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EDITORIAL
Catching Up, Conference Issues, and Open-Access

John G. Kruth

Although the Journal of Parapsychology and Parapsychology Press have released an issue every year since the journal's inception in 1937, recent issues have been delayed, and two issues were not being released each year. In early 2025, Volume 87(2) was released as the Fall issue of 2023. Due to the delay in previous releases, this issue, Volume 88, will be identified as the 2024/2025 issue of the journal. It contains articles that were submitted for 2024 and 2025 in a single volume. Beginning in 2026, the journal will return to the normal schedule of two publications a year.

There are two additional developments to highlight with our publications. In 2023, the Journal of Parapsychology began publishing a Conference Issue which includes the abstracts from some of the major conferences in the field of parapsychology. The 2023 issue included abstracts from the meetings of the *Parapsychological Association*, the *Society for Scientific Exploration*, and the *International Remote Viewing Association*. The 2024 issue and the soon to be release 2025 issue adds the abstracts from the meeting of the *Society for Psychical Research*. These conference issues provide an overview of current work within the field in a single issue by gathering descriptions of recent research presentations into a single volume that is available for free in electronic format on the Parapsychology Press website.

This brings us to the second new development related to the Journal of Parapsychology. Beginning with this issue, the Journal of Parapsychology is an open access journal that is available through the Parapsychology Press website. Paper copies are still available for those who wish to subscribe to the printed version. These issues will also be available to members of the Parapsychological Association, as they have been in the past, and members who have subscribed to receive printed copies of the journal in the past will still have those issues delivered as part of their PA membership.

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This issue is an oversized issue since it contains articles related to activities in both 2024 and 2025. During that time, we lost a number of iconic members of our community including Charles Tart, William Bengston, Chantal Toporow, and Jerry Conser. Five research articles are included ranging in topics related to remote viewing to metal bending to poltergeists to electromagnetism, and qualitative studies of exceptional experiences. Two book reviews are included in this issue as well as an exchange regarding a previous publication.

I hope that you enjoy this issue and learn something in the process. We will return to our normal publication schedule with the next two issues of 2026.

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The Transpersonal Legacy of Charles Tart

Marilyn Schlitz

Editor's Note: On March 5, 2025, Charles Tart passed away at the age of 87.

From his high school days, Charles Tart was already a budding psychologist, drawn to hypnosis and psychical research. He described himself as "a transpersonal psychologist waiting for a field to develop so that I knew who I was." This emerging identity took form with the publication of his seminal book *Altered States of Consciousness* in 1969, followed by *Transpersonal Psychologies* in 1975. Interestingly, that second book was originally intended to be titled *Spiritual Psychologies*, but, to his surprise, the word *transpersonal* resonated more deeply with his publisher—and ultimately with the field.

Tart first encountered the term "transpersonal psychology" from Jim Fadiman, a founder of the Institute of Transpersonal Psychology, in the early 1970s. It became an umbrella concept that allowed him to integrate his diverse psychological and spiritual interests. After becoming disillusioned with conventional religion, he sought a path that honored both scientific rigor and the expansive insights of mystical experience. Transpersonal psychology offered that bridge, drawing upon the foundational work of parapsychology. As he put it, "Once you know telepathy is real and someone has an experience, you can't just throw it out as fantasy." Tart saw parapsychology and transpersonal psychology in the same relationship as physics and engineering: where physics provides theory, engineering finds useful applications. Parapsychology reveals the mind's reach beyond the body, while transpersonal psychology applies those insights to foster spiritual growth.

He expressed concern that many in the transpersonal field were unaware of the evidence base emerging from parapsychology. Likewise, parapsychologists, in focusing on scientific credibility, often distanced themselves from the spiritual implications of their findings. As a professor at UC Davis for 28 years and later at the Institute of Transpersonal Psychology, Tart committed himself to bridging these worlds. He urged researchers to step beyond the lab bench and explore the broader meaning of their work, believing deeply that science was essential to understanding spirituality.

Tart embraced a developmental perspective: from materialist psychology and behaviorism, through humanistic psychology, and ultimately toward a transpersonal approach that includes all dimensions of human experience. His mission was to strengthen the field by building bridges between "genuine science and genuine spirituality," rooted in humility and open-mindedness. He wanted transpersonal psychology to be more effective in helping people achieve profound personal breakthroughs and access their fullest selves.

Despite his modesty, he was optimistic about the field's growth—delighted that it was expanding

faster than he could keep up with. Yet he also hoped that transpersonal psychology would become more mainstream, gaining recognition and contributing more fully to society. He emphasized the importance of cross-disciplinary dialogue, even as he remained cautious about reducing the mysteries of human experience solely to brain function or biology.

Ultimately, Tart' s life was shaped by a deep desire to awaken—and to support others on their paths to awakening. He saw transpersonal psychology as a gateway to this aspiration. One of his final projects explored the concept of enlightenment "from an unenlightened perspective"—a phrase that brought a characteristic chuckle. That light-heartedness, his ability to not take himself too seriously, was one of his most enduring and endearing traits.

Charles Tart is deeply missed by those who were touched by his relentless curiosity, his profound search for meaning, and his generous spirit.

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Be Playful. Avoid Ritual.

John G. Kruth

Rhine Research Center

When I first met Bill Bengston at the Rhine Research Center in 2012, his self-deprecating humor was charming, but I was afraid that it was hiding sloppy research or a lack of knowledge about the healing process. That impression lasted about 15 minutes until he began to discuss the specifics of his research.

What followed were some of the most advanced and sophisticated research designs that I had ever seen in the field of parapsychology. His humor wasn't a self-defense mechanism, but rather his own honest evaluation of the limitations of his understanding of an impossible phenomenon that wouldn't go away no matter how many times he tested it. His unusual affection for mice provided a compassionate connection - one he later identified as a "resonant bond" - that seemed to enable the process of physical healing. What was most attractive about his presentation of the material is that he was not promoting the healing technique he was using and had taught, but rather he wanted people to recognize that even with very tight controls and careful blinding, the healing effect was not only present, but also very effective. Mice were being cured of cancer in situations where western medicine had failed in the past.

It sounded remarkable, and it led me to investigate his research, his healing technique, and his interpretation of the data. For over 13 years I explored these topics, and I am lucky enough to say that Bill and I discussed our thoughts on healing together throughout nearly all of that time. One of the potential flaws I recognized in his early research designs and methods involved his participation in every published study using a technique he called "cycling". All of the studies up until that time included his participation training people to use the technique or supervising the collection of research data. Without questioning the results he presented, there was doubt as to the source of the observed healing activity. Could all of the results have come from Bill himself even though he was not directly participating in the studies? Numerous researchers have written about the impact of experimenter psi (e.g. Kruth, 2022), so my mind began to wonder whether we could explore a study independent of Bill that would determine the validity of his technique.

In less than 2 months after Bill's talk at the Rhine, a healing group formed at the prompting of a few long-time Rhine community members led by the late Phil Morse. A diverse group of 8 people gathered once a week to try to understand the healing method that was presented and to develop some research based on his work. The group consisted of healers from different backgrounds, researchers in different fields, and some motivated and interested parties who had no experience in healing or research. We determined that we would meet without telling Bill in order to remain as independent as possible while following his instructions on how to perform the healing technique.

It was an arduous process that included daily practice and regular discussions among the group to understand the instructions and refine our own methods for cycling. After about 6 months of practice, we reached a point where we felt we were all cycling, and we decided that we might want to try out the healing process. Rather than inflicting our untested technique on an unsuspecting patient, we stayed within the group. One of the group members had been suffering from sciatica for about 3 years, and he was losing the ability to dance or even sleep at night due to the pain. We casually did a session with him, following the technique as it was written, expecting nothing but hoping for the best. When we met the next week, the person who was treated said that the sciatica pain was gone. He was sleeping regularly and had even gone to a dance class which he continued for many years afterwards. The entire group was not only surprised, but also impressed that this technique required so little effort and appeared to have produced observable results!

Of course, this could have been the result of a placebo effect, and the session was not controlled or blinded. Nonetheless, the relief from sciatica was real and continued for years with just a single session. We determined that we must have learned how to use "cycling" for healing purposes, and we continued to work with people for 12 years going forward.

Two years after Bill's talk at the Rhine, in 2014, I was invited to give a talk at the annual meeting of the Society for Scientific Exploration. Bill Bengston was the president of this organization, and although I had not spoken to him for those two years, I was looking forward to sharing our activities with him. They were the first ongoing independent activities that had been done using the cycling technique that Bill had described. From the moment that I described our work on stage at that conference, Bill and I became friends.

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Bill Bengston joined the faculty at St Joseph's College in New York in 1979 and maintained a role as a professor of Sociology for over 40 years. His training focused on research methods and statistics, and his extreme logic and attention to detail are apparent in many dozens of publications from his early work in sociology and criminology to his more recent research into alternative healing methods. In 2011 he published a book called *The Energy Cure* which described his introduction to a specific healing process he called *cycling* and the numerous studies he had completed up until that time.

The amazing work that he did to test the effects of *resonant bonding* on mice has been published in numerous journals and described in presentations around the world (e.g. Bengston & Krinsley, 2000; Bengston, 2012). After nearly 18 years exploring the effectiveness of the cycling technique, other researchers began using cycling as a foundation for further research into healing mechanisms and physiological correlates to healing events (e.g. Cohen, et al., 2024; Yang, et al., 2026). His work progressed from demonstrating a measurable healing effect to determining whether the healing effect could be recorded, stored, and delivered independently of a healer – like within cotton, water, or other substances – and whether a healer was required to produce these effects (e.g. Beseme, et al., 2020). He discussed these topics related to the scalability of healing and whether healing energies can be stored and distributed in way similar to traditional medications.

His accomplishments were impressive and led to his tenure as the President of the Society for Scientific Exploration from 2010 through 2022. Besides his remarkable dedication to his work and exploring his

passions, Bill was an amazing speaker with a joyful sense of humor and a curiosity that extended to everyone he met. He expressed little ego when he spoke about his work, and he praised researchers who came before him and those working with him. He often spoke of Bernard Grad as one of the most advanced and gifted researchers of alternative healing methods and correctly recognized that nearly all healing research since the 1960′s, including his own, were an outgrowth of the work of "the great Grad" (Bengston, 2016).

Bill was a true friend and a great contributor to the field of parapsychology and science in general. His work will be remembered for decades to come as simple, effective, and sometimes awe inspiring, but my memory of Bill will always be the joy that he brought to life and his infectious curiosity for the world. His compassion and true engagement with those around him were only equaled by his dedication to finding answers to questions that would help humanity to understand the healing process.

Some people might wonder about the title of his article. One day while visiting with Bill, he asked me whether I had seen his manual for healing. Having read his book, listened to his talks, and spent many hours with him, the last thing I needed was to read a dense manual about his work. At that point, Bill pulled a business card out of his pocket. On one side it said, "Be Playful". On the other side it said, "Avoid Ritual". It was the most concise and accurate description of Bill′s philosophy that I had ever seen.

William Bengston passed away on April 16, 2025. Remain playful, my friend.

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In Remembrance of Chantal Toporow: A Life of Curiosity and Courage

Damon Abraham

I met Chantal Toporow in 2015 while I was attending the annual conference of The Society for Scientific Exploration (SSE) for the first time. Chantal was deeply active in the edge sciences community and had served the SSE over several years in various capacities including on the SSE Council and as Education Chair. At that time, I was in the final throes of a PhD program that was hitting a dead end. My wife and I had just had our first child, my assistantship had run out, and I was unable to secure funding for my dissertation research. We had moved from New York to Denver to be closer to family and there seemed no viable route for me to complete my program without transferring schools.

At the same time, I was beginning to flirt with coming out of the "psi closet". I had begun giving talks around Denver at local chapters of the SSE and the International Association for Near Death Studies (IANDS) concerning ideas around non-local consciousness. The 2015 SSE annual conference was my first large venue speaking event and marked a turning point in my career, partly thanks to Chantal. At that event, I was awarded the Young Investigator Prize, though I was the only nominee and was far from "young" in the traditional sense. It was Chantal who announced the prize and presented me with the framed certificate. And it was Chantal who would push me to figure out how to finish my PhD and pursue the edge science research in full force.

Chantal was a fast friend. Eager to welcome newcomers into the community, she organized a gathering for early career scientists like me to hear from more seasoned voices in the field. She made sure I had the chance to meet the likes of Robert Jahn, Brenda Dunn, Roger Nelson, Dale Graff and others who I consider luminaries in the field. In the evenings, she was the principal architect of the conference afterparty. The hotel bar, which had closed several hours beforehand, was kept alive with roaring laughter and deep discussion lasting until obscene hours of the following morning. For several consecutive nights, Chantal gathered up several SSE veterans along with first timers including me, John Kruth, and Laura Watson, and ensured that nobody got any sleep for the entirety of the conference. As the final night became morning, she said, "Well, I guess it's time I go grab a shower. I need to head to the airport soon to catch my 7 a.m. flight". This irresponsible behavior became a tradition, and the circle widened year over year. Many of the people who entered that circle would later become my mentors, colleagues, collaborators, and good friends.

Chantal's colorful flowing dresses, Bohemian jewelry, big blonde hair, and wide smile framed by bright red lipstick advertised her gregarious and affable nature. Although, this was not the archetypal image that tends to be evoked when one thinks of an aerospace engineer possessing a high-level security clearance. Chantal was much more than a mere ambassador of the edge sciences; prior to venturing into the fringes of accepted scientific orthodoxy, she had already earned a serious reputation as an accomplished researcher and engineering professor. But before all else, and rounding out her eclectic character,

she was an artist. From woodworking to painting, her love of the arts was something she embraced even in the midst of high-brow academics. She was involved with the arts in her community and wove synergy across seemingly disjointed disciplines. She even taught courses about Art as Psi for the Rhine Education Center.

Chantal's parapsychological interests did not bloom until later in her career. She recounted to us that her first introduction to it came through her interactions with Bob Jahn, the former Dean of Engineering at Princeton and founder of the Princeton Engineering Anomalies Research Lab (PEAR). Initially, these interactions were under the auspices of aerospace research. Chantal remained quite skeptical about the more terrestrial activities occurring in that basement laboratory at Princeton having more to do with the exploration of expanded human potential than with the exploration of outer space. As she would tell it, all of that changed the day she met Hal Puthoff who was visiting the PEAR Lab from his appointment at SRI. While walking through the courtyards on Princeton's campus together and listening to Hal talk about his research on non-local perception, Chantal put up a challenge to him. If remote viewing was real, then he should be able to tell her about the contents of a locked cabinet in her office. Of course, that would be preposterous. So, she was astounded when later the following day Hal produced a transcript containing just that. This experience opened a new door for her and marked a major pivot in her life and career as she would later become deeply engaged in similar lines of research.

In addition to the SSE, Chantal was a longtime member of The Mutual UFO Network (MUFON) where she applied her scientific background to the study of unidentified aerial phenomena (UAP) and the "experiencer" phenomenon. She took a very hands-on approach to "The Science of the Subjective" and was an advocate of exploring unusual and often controversial topics free from stigma. As such, she was a pillar of support for other researchers who often felt ostracized by their colleagues for even having an interest in these things. Likewise, she was committed to helping individuals who had anomalous encounters by creating a scientific, intellectual, and professional bridge to understanding and contextualizing their experiences. She was not content with armchair academics and preferred to become personally engaged with the subject of her studies. Whether it was learning about out-of-body experiences, practicing psychokinesis, or working on her Russian, every time I saw her, Chantal was embarking on some new form of exploration and self-improvement.

Chantal seemed a bottomless well of vitality, pouring so much of herself into everything she did. Her home was a reflection of this, teeming with life with an incredible garden that overflowed with dozens of varieties of fruits, vegetables, shrubs, and trees. Her home was also host to the SSE Salon, for many years, gathering Southern California members for stimulating discussions and practices. She lived a stone's throw from the Pacific Ocean, her other love. She swam every day, even through challenging treatments, herself, a force of nature.

She was a member of the Biodynamic Farming Association, developed courses on the connection between nature and consciousness, and saw her connection with nature as a spiritual practice. Everything around her felt animated. As her health faded with illness, she refused to take a beat. She hid the fact that she was sick from most of her colleagues and even many friends, convinced she could maintain her frenetic pace. The last time I saw her, bedridden and barely able to speak, she was looking forward to the book she had been meaning to write, and the next course she was eager to teach. But these plans she would not live to see fulfilled. Chantal died on August 18, 2025.

Chantal was the definition of an indomitable spirit. And though her vitality finally gave way, she planted so many seeds, literally and metaphorically, that still bear fruit; the most precious of which is her daughter, Sacha. Of the many subjects Chantal could speak to with great authority, inevitably all conversations eventually led to her. Equally brilliant and multi-talented, Chantal honored her daughter's independence, artistic spirit, wit, piercing intellect, and drive. To my knowledge, Sacha remains the youngest person to have attended an SSE conference. Many of the people she gathered, encouraged, and connected, including me, are still walking paths Chantal helped open. Long after the conferences ended and the conversations ran late into the night, her presence remains, urging us forward with the same generosity, curiosity, and courage she embodied so boldly.

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In Memoriam: Jerry Conser (1945 – 2024)

Bryan J. Williams

Psychical Research Foundation

Jerome J. ("Jerry") Conser, perhaps best known for being a long-time benefactor and enthusiastic supporter of parapsychological research, passed away unexpectedly on the evening of August 22, 2024, at the age of 79.

Jerry's contributions to the field largely stem from his own personal explorations into claims of psi phenomena early on, when he initially encountered the late psychic claimant Richard Ireland at a club in Phoenix, Arizona in the early 1970s. During his club performance, Ireland would blindfold himself and seem to gain clairvoyant impressions about certain members of the audience while holding folded paper billets with the members' names (and/or questions they wished to ask about their future) written on the inside. Having some background knowledge in mentalism, Jerry initially suspected that Ireland's psychic feat was merely a stage show display, until he found that Ireland was able to give a number of personal details to the audience members that seemed to be accurate. Intrigued by this and wanting to explore it further, Jerry managed to seize an opportunity to receive a private psychic reading from Ireland, during which he was told several personal details about himself that he found puzzling, since he had not openly shared any of these details with Ireland beforehand (Conser, 2012a, p. 9).

Impressed by the outcome of the reading, Jerry soon sought to bring wider public attention to psi ability and its potential for being put into practical application by asking Ireland to help him in his mining business by attempting to pinpoint the location of hidden natural resources (such as oil and mineral deposits) through psychic guidance. As Jerry once outlined it, the approach taken to do this was simple:

> He [Ireland] would close his eyes – I would place the [topographic] map in front of him after I asked him to close his eyes – and he would use his index finger and he would go across the map, and when he felt he was in a "hot spot," so to speak, he'd say "right there," and then I'd take a pen and mark it, since his eyes were closed. (Conser, n.d., 08:14 – 08:31)

Prospecting samples would then be taken on-site at the indicated area and analyzed for any traces of the targeted resource. Subsequently, Ireland would be brought to the site to gather additional impressions that might help further determine a more precise location at which to dig. Similar efforts combining psychically-guided input with more conventional search techniques have also been undertaken in archaeology to locate hidden geographic sites of historical significance (e.g., Schwartz, 1978/2001; Schwartz & De Mattei, 2020; Schwartz & Edgarton, 2021), and some remote viewing practitioners claim to have utilized their abilities toward similar practical ends (Katz & Tressoldi, 2022).

Although not all of Ireland's impressions were ultimately found to be correct, some of them reportedly helped lead to the discovery of gold deposits at the Jaries #1 mine in Cane Creek, Arizona in 1973, as well as to (what was later dubbed) the "Ireland/Conser" oil field in Nolan County, Texas in August 1980, earning substantial profits. Video footage produced by Jerry on these ventures has been digitally archived and can be viewed (along with a live TV demonstration of Ireland's billet reading) on YouTube (Conser, 2012b).

Keeping a promise he had made to Ireland of using some of the mining profits to help fund parapsychological research, Jerry went on to sponsor a gathering in San Francisco in 1980, inviting various parapsychologists to present their work and offering financial backing for the research projects which seemed to carry the most potential for progress. This brought Jerry into initial contact with the late William G. Roll, and would ultimately lead to a formal association with the Psychical Research Foundation (PRF) that Jerry would maintain for the rest of his life. After making several generous donations to help supplement its dwindling research endowment, Jerry was asked to join the PRF's board of directors in the Winter of 1981. Later on, following the retirement of mathematician Thomas N. E. Greville from the presidency in 1986, the PRF board would ask Jerry to become its fourth president, a title he would retain up until the very end of his life.

Among the notable accomplishments he made during his 38-year term as PRF president were the following:

- Alongside the late Myron ("Mike") Arons, Jerry played an instrumental role in the effort made in 1986 to relocate the PRF's facilities, library, and staff from Chapel Hill, North Carolina, to a new home within the psychology department on the campus of West Georgia College (now the University of West Georgia), thereby facilitating its return to the halls of academia;

- Much like Roll had done before him (when faced with a similar situation in 1964), Jerry took on the valiant responsibility of keeping the PRF alive by effectively placing its organizational holdings into dormancy when its operational support funds began running out in the early 1990s. He was successful in bringing the organization back into active operation in 2008, providing the support to establish a new virtual home for the PRF via a dedicated website and helping to host two reunion gatherings of past and present PRF staff in May 2007 and June 2012, in conjunction with the Rhine Research Center (Conser, 2012c);

- In addition to continually serving on the PRF board, Jerry was also elected to the Rhine Center's board of directors, serving a two-year term. He also provided financial support for the Rhine and its activities over a 12-year period.

- Jerry developed and provided the support for a number of PRF research projects, including a small series of pilot studies related to out-of-body experiences (jointly conducted by the PRF, the Rhine Research Center, and the Monroe Institute) in which attempts were made to follow-up on earlier experimental efforts designed to explore possible changes in body weight when something conceptually akin to a "soul" presumably leaves the body (Brading, 1979; Hollander, 2001; Ishida, 2009, 2010; MacDougall, 1907a, 1907b; Zaalberg van Zelst & Matla, 1912; see Muldoon & Carrington, 1929, pp. 207 – 208 for a concise summary).

Most of all, Jerry remained to be a dedicated benefactor, a wise teacher, and an eager explorer, bringing his vibrant "spirit" and enthusiasm to every act he did for the benefit of parapsychology. May we all now reflect fondly upon him and appreciate his many supporting contributions to the field, for which he helped pave the way for progress. The PRF will seek to carry on in honor of his enduring "spirit" and curiosity regarding the psychic realm.

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Investigating the Correctness of Single Data Records Within Controlled Remote Viewing (CRV) Sessions

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Abstract: This study aims to enhance the evaluation of remote viewing sessions, specifically focusing on the Controlled Remote Viewing (CRV) methodology, with the primary goal of developing a method for qualitatively analyzing the data. The study's objectives include understanding the correctness of individual data within remote viewing sessions, categorizing and assessing individual data points, and testing hypotheses related to data correctness, relevance, and individual perception profiles. The correctness is quantified through attribution of different categories combined with a graduated evaluation of the correctness. The approach involves "calibrated targets" providing detailed feedback across multiple sensory channels and tasking with specific coordinates and timestamps.

The measurements revealed an average data accuracy within the sessions of 84%, with 67% of the data being absolutely correct. Both values exceeded expectations. Additionally, the study demonstrates the applicability of foundational structural concepts from the original CRV approach to assess various types of remote viewing sessions, not limited to CRV itself. The findings further reveal that correct data is more likely to be mentioned multiple times within a session, with 71% of multiple objectified data being correct. The study introduces a graphical method for visualizing session results and calculates individual viewer perception profiles, revealing distinct patterns of perception across various sensory channels.

This project lays the foundation for future investigations within the field, introducing an innovative tool that also promises practical utility beyond research for operational application. Individual and cumulative session profiles provide objective means to assess viewers' strengths and weaknesses and offer a benchmark by comparing their results with all recorded sessions.

Keywords: *Remote viewing, Controlled Remote Viewing (CRV), data evaluation, data correctness, data relevance, qualitative analysis, viewer perception profiles, session benchmark.*

Recently we celebrated the 50th anniversary of the beginning of remote viewing research. Much has been written about the accuracy of remote viewing sessions. However, to date, research has been exclusively concerned with assessing the hit rate of sessions as a whole, i.e., the number of hits was assessed within a series of sessions.

More recent studies also continue to produce new data in the Associative Remote Viewing (ARV)

area, but here too the measured result is only related to a predominantly binary examination whether the entire session was a "hit" or "miss" in relation to one of the target options. Such a decision is relatively easy to determine, since all the variables needed (i.e., the two target options as well as the outcome in the future) are known at the time of the assessment. So, by now we have a pretty good idea of the hit rate of ARV. An overview of the results of various studies is provided, for example, in a study about stock market predictions (Müller et. al., 2019).

If remote viewing is to be used operationally beyond a test environment, however, there are two major problems. First, feedback rarely exists, and if it does, it is incomplete—so you cannot match the result of a session with a previously known target description. And second, the objective is not to search for information that is already known (information that could be provided by feedback), but rather, by definition, to obtain information that is not known in advance.

For the applied work with remote viewing in the operational area, thus outside of the binary designed ARV tasks, it is quite interesting for the analysis of the data to have an idea of the general accuracy of the sessions. This is primarily relevant for the learning process of the remote viewer, the structured validation of techniques and the fields of research in general, especially for Controlled Remote Viewing (CRV) and comparable structured methodological approaches, which are primarily used for professional investigative work nowadays. Internationally operating companies that use remote viewing for clients' projects operate with a team of remote viewers trained in CRV and CRV derivatives, for example, Husick Group (Gail Husick, USA), iRiS Intuition (Alexis Champion, France), PSI Vision (Jana Rogge, Germany) or Hilleard Academy (Sandra Hilleard, Australia). For understandable reasons, however, measurable accuracy can only be established in a controlled experimental setting where, ideally, full feedback can be provided for each individual impression or data set objectified by the remote viewer.

We refer here to *CRV* because all main offshoots of the original CRV, such as Technical Remote Viewing (TRV), Scientific Remote Viewing (SRV), Trans Dimensional Systems (TDS/TDRV), etc. are based on the same underlying concepts. Following their chronological development based on the Swann/Puthoff approach (Rogge, 2023; Appendix B), the subsequent new methods kept the original terminology, the placement protocol, or both. All of them refer to the same concept of stages, the column-oriented placement, and central concepts like Analytical Overlay (AOL) (The Center Lane Project, 2024).

The CRV method was originally named "Coordinate Remote Viewing" at the time of its development from 1979 to 1984 (Smith, 1986), referring to the use of geographic coordinates as a blinding mechanism for the target description. In the following years, the use of geographic coordinates was replaced by encrypted coordinates and random numbers. Therefore, in 1996, Ingo Swann proposed renaming the method "Controlled Remote Viewing," keeping the same abbreviation. The term "Controlled" refers to the process itself, in which the sequence and type of perceptions are controlled by the viewer through the application of the multi-stage working protocol and its underlying principles (Rogge, 2025).

The aforementioned offshoot methods all ultimately trace their roots back to CRV, but differ primarily in structural, theoretical, and commercial emphases. Most of them introduce altered or additional terminology and sometimes conceptual changes. E.g., TRV aims for simplicity and standardization of perceptual categories, SRV for metaphysical integration, and TDS continues this trend with even more conceptual additions.

The study was conceived as the initial milestone within a multi-year project, wherein ongoing data collection will be conducted continuously. This approach allows for the exploration of additional research questions based on the evolving dataset and the visualization and interpretation capabilities of the tool developed for this project. Furthermore, it is within the realm of possibility to provide access to the data for external researchers upon suitable requests and to tailor the parameters even more specifically to the unique requirements of the ongoing scientific process. In the appendix, Section 1, a list of the planned milestones for the future continuation of the project is provided.

Background and Significance

The CRV methodology was established in the early 1980s in response to a directive from the commissioning authorities, tasking the researchers with the development of a trainable approach to remote viewing. This mandate aimed to extend the application of remote viewing beyond natural psychics, enabling the training of regular military personnel in the utilization of this technique. CRV—the acronym then stood for "Coordinate Remote Viewing," later redesignated as "Controlled Remote Viewing"[1]—was, in contrast to the methodology previously used, a structured methodological approach based on a multi-stage protocol sequence (Smith, 1998).

The operational use of remote viewing to obtain information is, by definition, accompanied by the fact that complete information about the target of the session is not known in advance. The remote viewer's task is to seek information that is currently unknown, rendering it impossible to ascertain a hit accuracy. Instead, one can only infer the degree to which the viewer was "on target" based on the presence of previously known information in the session. The protocol emphasizes that the viewer operates under blind conditions, enabling subsequent analysts to search for elements of information that are already known. However, this can, at best, provide an estimate of the reliability of the remaining data.

As an example for understanding, one of the often-cited sessions on the secret Russian submarine factory in Severodvinsk, widely recognized as Shipyard 402 (Smith, 2015, pp. 45–63), could be used. If rank sum ratings were applied in this context, the analyst might be able to conclude that the remote viewer successfully identified the target's exterior structure, as depicted in satellite surveillance imagery. However, the correctness and extent of the descriptions regarding the interior and events occurring inside would remain indeterminable unless and until ground truth in the future be demonstrated.

A recurring question in remote viewing research is whether viewers are merely describing the feedback they will receive in the future, rather than acquiring extrasensory perception (ESP)-based data at the time of the session. This issue is particularly relevant to associative remote viewing (ARV) protocols, where the task specifically involves describing feedback that will be provided later. However, in operational remote viewing applications, this confound is less applicable. Documented cases exist in which viewers produced accurate session data despite never receiving individual feedback, e.g., Pat Price remote viewing the swimming pool complex at Rinconda Park, Palo Alto (Puthoff & Targ, 1976), such as those in which feedback became available only posthumously or where the described details extended beyond what was

[1] The change of the term was initiated by Ingo Swann himself in the period after disclosure of the program (1995). In all official documents and reports from the previous period, which are available through the CIA library, also in the relevant manuals, the term *Coordinate Remote Viewing* is used.

included in the final feedback materials, e.g., Tom McNear's outbounder remote viewing experient where he described a staircase in the building (Schnabel, 1997). This suggests that remote viewing performance in such contexts cannot be solely attributed to retroactive or feedback-based explanations.

To address this inherent challenge of reporting and analyzing "unknown" data, an operational approach usually involves multiple remote viewers independently and blindly working the same target. Subsequently, the analyst or analysts only consider data as more likely relevant if it has been consistently objectified by all, or at least the majority of, viewers.[2] Conversely, data points for which two remote viewers provide contradictory information are excluded from the results or at the very least treated with skepticism. While it remains possible for different viewers to produce notably distinct data when focusing on different aspects of the target, such information would not be regarded as valid unless mentioned by multiple viewers.

Nevertheless, it would be highly beneficial for session analysts to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the overall correctness rate for individual data points. Moreover, it enables the assessment and comparison of individual correctness scores and specific skills among remote viewers.

In the early years of remote viewing research at SRI, which initially focused primarily on detecting the respective psi phenomena themselves and demonstrating the accuracy and reliability of data obtained through RV, it was sufficient, much like in contemporary Associative Remote Viewing (ARV) experiments, to differentiate outcomes between "hit" and "miss." If a session and target was clearly distinguishable to an impartial judge, it met the statistical requirements.

When assessing a session as a whole, a significant challenge arises in finding a balance between evaluating individual data and sketches and considering the overall impression of the session. This evaluation is partially subjective, thus requiring the establishment of consistency not only between the assessments of different judges but also within the assessments of sessions from a specific subject over an extended period. To facilitate this process, various rating scales were developed and employed. Initially, a scale ranging from 0 to 7 was used, later recognized as the SRI Seven-Point Confidence Ranking Scale, or "Targ Scale" (Puthoff, 1980, p.20). To this day, this scale is a widely used instrument for evaluating RV sessions. Subsequently, this scale was condensed for efficiency to only four levels from 0 to 3 Defense Intelligence Agency [DIA], 1981, p. 69; DIA, 1983, pp. 8, 11).

From previous documents, the assessment using a method called "first-place matching" or "blind ranks matching" (Puthoff et.al., 1979) is also well-documented. However, this evaluation approach based on the sum-of-ranks method, in contrast to, for instance, a median calculation, does not consider the actual distances between the measured values. Also, the use of an "elimination strategy" in a sum-rank procedure may lead to biased statistical measures when some matches are evident, which in turn raises the probability that the other matches are accurately assigned. (Smith, 2009). As a result, this type of evaluation can offer insights into a certain effect size but does not provide a concrete quantification of the correctness of individual data points in a session. In essence, this evaluation method was primarily employed to identify the overall viewer's session hit rate using first-place matches that, in addition to the statistical calculation, yielded an eye-catching result of subjective perception as a "hit." (Targ et.al., 1979)

[2] Generally, CRV and comparable structured methodological approaches like TRV are primarily employed for the investigative approach outlined above, where a larger group of viewers is engaged.

While traditional rank-based methods such as first-place or blind ranks matching have been used in remote viewing statistical evaluation, the objective at this time was merely to prove the ESP phenomenon rather than measuring the accuracy of a session in detail. The inherent subjectivity and reliance on interpretive judgment are acknowledged limitations.

Another challenge in conducting robust remote viewing studies lies in the general limitation of sample size. Producing several hundred or even thousands of sessions is extremely demanding in terms of time and organization. This limitation affects both statistical power and the generalizability of results and thus represents a major boundary condition for the empirical validation of remote viewing sessions. One possible solution is the integration of multiple independent judges. This approach was adopted in the SRI research program, where the use of multiple independent judges helped improve reliability by minimizing individual bias and facilitating more robust statistical validation of results.

During the developmental phase of CRV in 1980–84, the streamlined 4-step evaluation matrix (DIA, 1983) was employed to assess the accuracy of the diverse RV approaches being used at SRI (Puthoff & Smith, 2021). Given the extensive volume of thousands of individual tests conducted at SRI, this simplified approach was sufficient for the primary objective of identifying the most successful method from a range of variants. However, a comprehensive assessment or survey of the methodology′s accuracy concerning individual datasets had not been undertaken at that point (May & Bhatt Marwaha, 2017). Extensive research in the field has thus far yielded no evidence of a prior study of this nature.

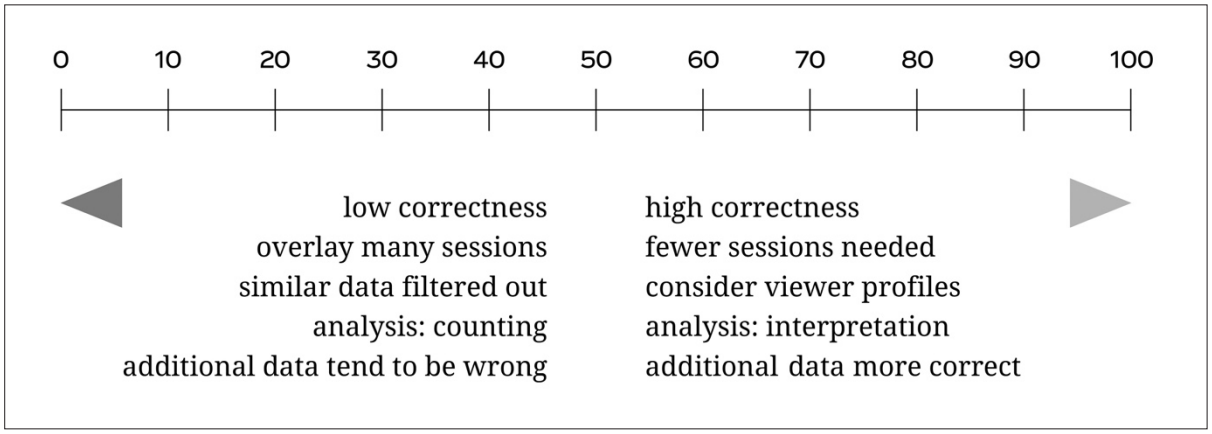
Nonetheless, the evaluations conducted during that period revealed a significant improvement in the hit rate with regard to the target when the remote viewer employed the Stages approach. A 1984 study report (Puthoff, 1984, p. 11) comparing the correctness rating of two samples (99 & 93 trials), for the same remote viewer before and after receiving CRV training showed a significant difference. The sessions in this experiment series were rated on a scale from 0–3 for accuracy, with 0 being a "miss" and 3 being a very good "hit". While in the first series, done with a generic RV approach, the viewer achieved an overall result of 22.68% in grading categories 3 (4) and 2 (18), he produced a result of 65.59% sessions with a 3 (37) and 2 (24) grade in the second series, after receiving CRV training. This gives us a base for our assumption of at least 50–80% correctness as mentioned in hypothesis 1.

It would not be feasible to reconstruct the correctness rate of individual session data from later operational sessions. Firstly, the data is not entirely accessible. Furthermore, the lack of feedback for many of the operationally conducted remote viewing sessions within the military unit poses a significant challenge. Additionally, the operational use and analytical processing at that time were often intertwined with other investigative methods.

Consequently, while a certain general hit rate could potentially be derived from the multitude of operationally conducted remote viewing sessions in comparison to their overall success, even this would, at best, provide a rough estimate of the correctness of individual data points within the sessions.

What would it imply if the project manager or analyst in an operational remote viewing project was aware of the average hit accuracy of the participating remote viewers? Figure 1 provides an approximate representation of the potential implications.

Figure 1: ***Potential Implications for Management of Operational Remote Viewing Projects***



Note. Fewer viewers are required when session data reliability increases. This reduces resource needs in operational settings.

The higher the data reliability, the fewer viewers are required for a project. It is important to consider that viewers may occasionally miss the target and exhibit fluctuations in the accuracy of their individual sessions. However, by initially comparing the data with known information, it can be determined to what extent the viewer has established contact with the target, and consequently, a few confirmations of the data may suffice. Furthermore, additional individual data, provided only by one subject, can be included in the analysis, considering individual strengths and weaknesses.

Research Aims and Objectives

In summary, the current state of research has primarily focused on establishing a general assessment of the hit accuracy for overall sessions, with corresponding calculations. However, a comprehensive quantitative or qualitative examination of individual data categories remained elusive. With this project, we aimed to create a method for evaluating data material for qualitative analyses and provide remote viewers an opportunity to enhance their learning and training process.

The study had the potential to be a pioneering project for future follow-up studies that could be conducted in the years to come based on the constantly expanding data material, by evaluating and graphically representing complex data situations and contexts.

Objectives

With our research project, we were endeavoring to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the correctness rate in data obtained from remote viewing sessions employing structured methodologies like CRV. Our primary emphasis was on developing an evaluation logic capable of capturing, displaying, and assessing individual data points derived from each recorded session.

Overall Correctness (Hypothesis 1)

The assumption is that at least 50–80% of the information provided by the viewers will prove to be accurate in relation to the target. Based on the oral histories provided by various remote viewers regard-

ing their session accuracy we anticipate an average percentage of "correct" rated data falling within the range of 50–80% for individual data categories. Additionally, the anticipated correctness percentage for the mean of complete sessions is expected to be within the range of 60–75%.

Numerous contemporary active remote viewers have made a multitude of assertions regarding the accuracy of the methodology, particularly in reference to their own work. However, these claims have not been substantiated with scientifically valid data. One of the earliest statements on this matter can be found in a chapter by Ingo Swann, where he discusses the moment when he achieved 65% correctness (Swann, 2020, p. 61). Although the specific method for determining these percentages was not explicitly mentioned, references in the CIA library (DIA, 1983, pp. 8, 11) suggest that the evaluation method cited therein could be the basis for these percentages.

Multiple Data Correctness (Hypothesis 2)

We anticipate that multiple objectification of individual sensory impressions, especially within Stage 2, will serve as indicators of the correctness of these data. As a result, data classified as "correct" should exhibit a significantly higher frequency of being mentioned multiple times compared to data in the other categories.

Individual Perception Profiles (Hypothesis 3)

The comparison of results from various viewers implies the presence of individual preferences, strengths, and weaknesses in the different perceptual categories (viewer perception types[3]).

Terminology and Definitions

For clarity and consistency, the following terms are standardized throughout this study:

- Accuracy: The proportion of all reported data points that match factual information in the feedback. Expressed as a percentage, accuracy represents how much of the session output is objectively verified as correct.
- Correctness: The binary status of an individual data point as correct or incorrect based on available feedback. Correctness is used for fine-grained evaluation of specific perceptions.
- Hit Rate: The frequency with which sessions or data points meet the pre-defined criteria for a successful match ("hit"), either at the level of entire sessions or aggregated target features.
- Relevance: The practical operational utility of a correct data point; describes whether the information is not only correct, but pertinent for analysis, decision-making, or further application.

To avoid ambiguity, each term is used strictly according to the above definitions in all quantitative and qualitative analyses in this report.

[3] In operational work, it is commonly observed that viewers can exhibit a specific perceptual type or a preference for certain target types. For instance, one viewer might excel at describing spatial structures, while another could demonstrate a higher proficiency in capturing living beings or dynamic events.

Experimental Framework

Sources

The study is founded upon a qualitative assessment of the collected datasets and their quantitative analysis. Therefore, we exclusively used primary sources in order to have all data produced under similar conditions.

The planned milestones for the future continuation of the project are evident from the Milestone List in the appendix, Section 1. The present study, designed as the first phase, exclusively addresses Category 1 targets, which pertain to the description of locations. To participate in this phase, remote viewers were required to work their sessions to at least Stage 3 of CRV. This involved determining the fundamental nature of the target (gestalt), collecting sensory data, and creating initial dimensional sketches of the target location. Some of the participating viewers worked beyond Stage 3 in their sessions, through Stage 4 or, in some cases, Stage 6. While these data were collected for possible later assessment, they were not used for evaluation. Only stages 1–3 of all submitted sessions were assessed to ensure measurement comparability.

In the following sections, we refer only to the respective stages in CRV, even though we have incorporated some TRV data into the evaluation. In the first four stages, the data categories of both methods are comparable.

The milestones for this study and for the first year of the overall research goal were defined as:

- Development of the evaluation logic
- Creation of a functional database
- Initial testing
- Visual rendering for session profiles/viewer profiles
- Target database compilation (20 targets)
- Creating a data set of 60 basic data sessions (aiming for 10 viewers each completing 6 sessions)

We recruited remote viewers from a pool of individuals with whom we were already actively engaged in operational projects and practice. Furthermore, a few remote viewers who were currently undergoing training also volunteered to participate, demonstrating a keen interest in having their results assessed. All participating remote viewers were required to meet the minimum criteria outlined for our study (defined in the following).

To ensure the acquisition of data sets under standardized conditions, the same criteria were applied to all participating remote viewers:

- The viewers conducted their sessions blind.
- The viewers worked solo, without the use of a monitor/interviewer, which helps avoiding any un-

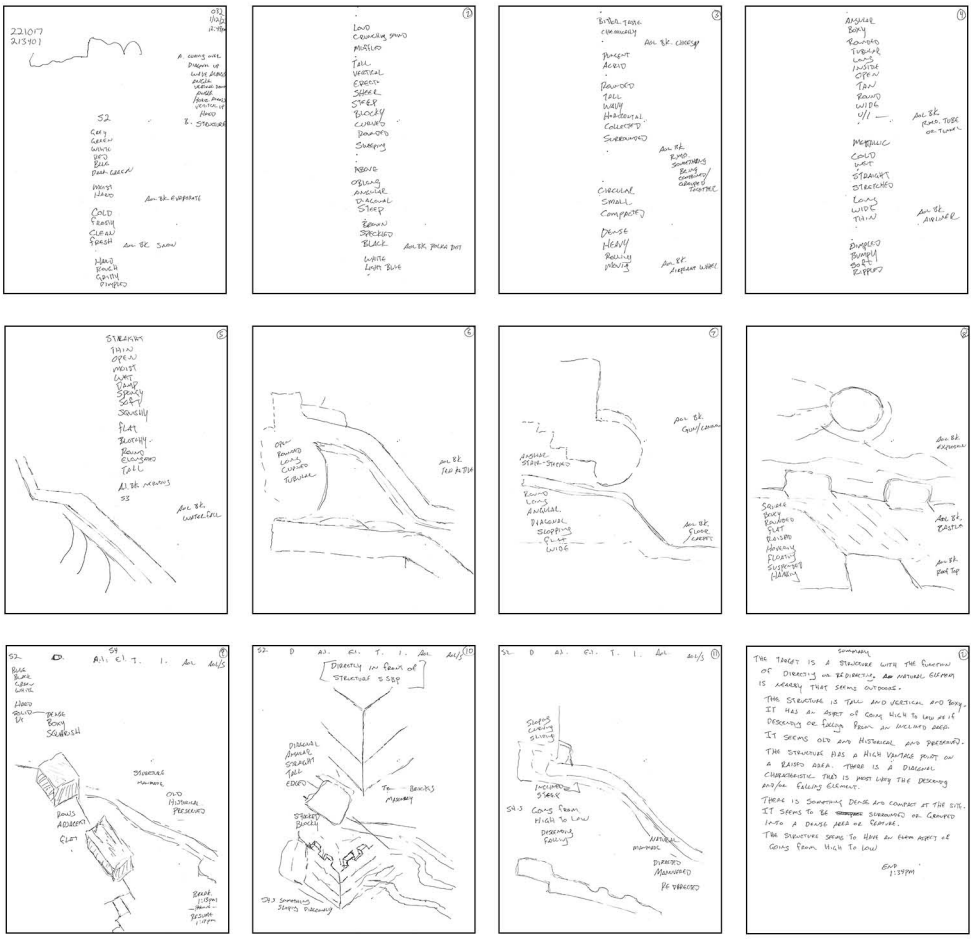
intended contamination of the data from monitor comments and ensures that all data originate solely from the viewer.

- The viewers employed the original CRV methodology or a similar approach that adhered to the original 6-stages protocol.
- It was required that sessions should be conducted up to at least Stage 3, with the option for voluntary progression beyond this level (Figure 2).
- The viewers recorded their sessions in writing on paper.
- Following each session, the viewers submitted a complete PDF scan of their session, along with a digital transcript in which each term objectified in the session was typed out word by word and arranged chronologically.
- The viewers did not receive feedback on the sessions immediately; feedback was provided only after completion of all of their sessions. This ensures that each session was conducted under identical preliminary conditions.

Participating viewers in the study were required to be proficient in and employ a methodology approved for the study, as defined in the preceding list. Furthermore, viewers conducted their work independently and without prior knowledge of the target, adhering to the blind and solo session criteria.

Despite the existence of a larger target pool, each viewer was assigned a specific set of six different targets for processing. This approach was employed to mitigate potential influences, such as a form of "collective consciousness effect," resulting in data overlap. Furthermore, it helped prevent any potential cheating during the individual experiments and allowed for multiple participation of some viewers, enabling us to, for instance, compare different methodologies. The typical working speed of the participating viewers was about 1 to 1.5 weeks per target.

Figure 2: Full Sample Session



Note. Twelve-page sample session submitted by one remote viewer for the study. Pages 1–8 show stages 1–3, pages 9–11 are stage 4, and page 12 is a written narrative summary. The length and structure of sessions vary widely among participants, typically ranging from 6 to 20 pages depending on the number of stages worked, individual style, detail, and the protocol used. While viewers were not limited to stages 1–3, for this study only the first 3 stages from each session were evaluated to ensure a consistent data pool for analysis.

Target Pool

Throughout the experimental period, a target pool consisting of 20 different targets was compiled for the project. These targets must meet specific predefined criteria. They should have comparable levels of complexity and difficulty while potentially encompassing different basic gestalts. The targets included in this pool adhere to a well-defined acquisition framework, which is why we refer to them as "calibrated targets." For this study, we gathered Category 1 targets, as outlined in the table provided in the Appendix, Section 1.

The protocol for creating calibrated targets is as follows:

- The target creator personally visits the site and spends a minimum of 30 minutes at the location.
- During this visit, the creator captures photographs, video and audio recordings, at least one panoramic view, and takes notes regarding the primary sensory impressions.

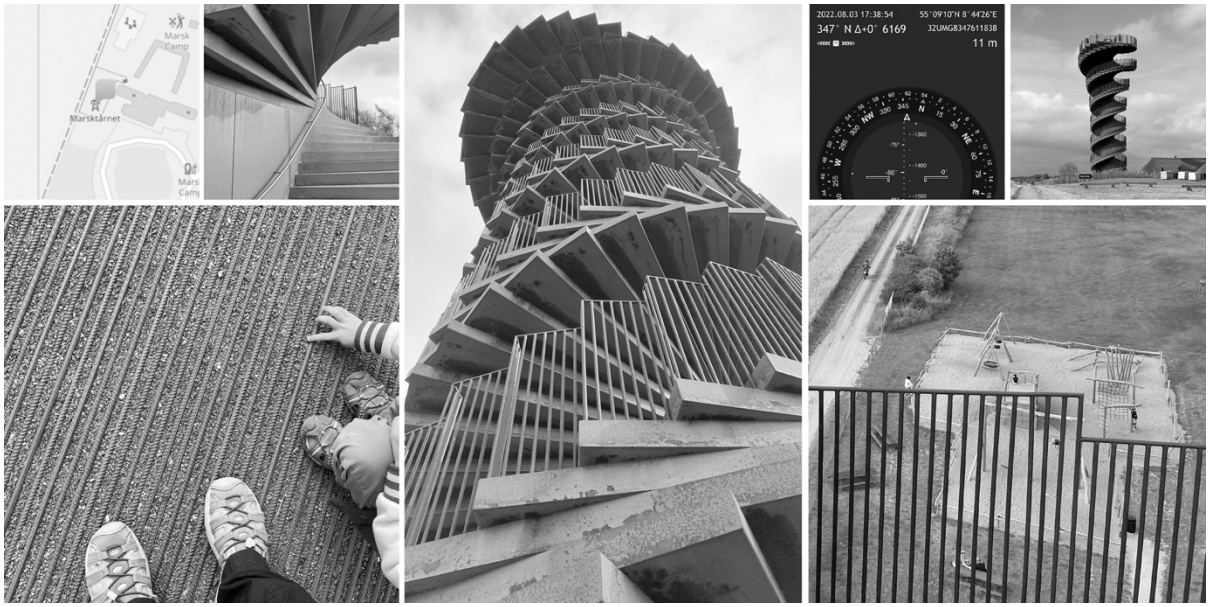
- The precise coordinates of the target are known, and a thorough inspection of the target's surroundings is conducted to identify potential *distracting factors.*

In this context, *distracting factors* refer to objects, landmarks, or events that are present in the immediate vicinity of the target at the time of the recording. These factors have the potential to compete with the target in terms of sensory appeal, thereby diverting the viewer's attention away from the actual target. It's important to note that personal preferences or affinities of individual viewers, which could also lead to distractions, cannot be considered in this context. These potential sources of error could be addressed only through personal follow-up interviews with the viewers and comprehensive recording of all environmental data at the designated time, which is beyond the scope of this study. Consequently, when evaluating the results, it's advisable to account for a certain level of data ambiguity due to the aforementioned factors.

We considered it essential to create this type of "calibrated targets" (Figure 3) with the requirement that at least one team member has physically visited the site and documented the target. When evaluating individual sessions in the database later on, the involvement of the respective target creator who visited the location is crucial. Their personal assessment of the sensory impressions on-site, combined with detailed documentation of visual and auditory data, provides a more robust foundation for evaluation compared to what is typically available for commonly used training targets. While some overview of the target's general environment can be established through the collection of digital recordings and panoramic views on platforms like Google Maps, this is not the case for all sensory channels and their simultaneous occurrence at a specific time. Consequently, the tasking is tailored to the coordinates and a fixed time, approximately in the middle of the 30-minute acquisition period.

Since the viewers conducted their sessions at a time that was in every case later than the target time defined in the tasking, this is not a precognitive experiment but remote viewing of a specific point in the past where feedback could be provided.

Figure 3: Example of a "Calibrated Target" from our Target Pool



Note. This target, the "Marsk Tower" in Denmark, is a structure entirely constructed from steel. It features a distinctive dimensional configuration in the form of a spiral, which is easily identifiable in remote viewing sessions. Distinctive target features allow for precise and objective scoring of session data.

The target locations for our pool were chosen from a larger set of potential sites gathered during the months leading up to the study. The criteria for target selection were the presence of unique features that enable unambiguous identification of the targets in comparison to the other sites, as well as diversity in the configurations of land, water, and structures.

Tasking

The targets are assigned a 12-digit target number, which is designed to prevent any inferences about the target. Tasking was conducted concurrently with the development of the feedback album and is stored as a PDF document. Viewers are exclusively provided with the tasking numbers (TN) via email, given to them individually and sequentially for their sessions. The viewers conducted their sessions solo at their individual home/place and submitted the session scans and transcripts after finishing their sessions, receiving the next tasking number only after submission of the previous session.

No further instructions were given to the viewer apart from the TN. The viewer's intention, and the objective of each session, is to fulfill the tasker's intent as defined in the tasking, even though this intent remains unknown or unspecified to the viewer due to the blinding process.

In our case, the tasker was an individual knowledgeable about the process (the principal investigator), which ensured that all tasking numbers were generated under consistent conditions and linked to their respective targets.

The number itself does not provide any insights into the nature of the target. The number is generated from the date of the tasking, the target number, and the running number of the tasking (a convention that was adopted from other operational work for the sake of ensuring orderly organization). In general,

the length or format of a tasking number or target designation is not crucial; however, for psychological reasons, numbers are preferred over letters or combinations to avoid unintended or semi-conscious associations or preconceptions.

Assuming that temporal coordinates, whether in the present or the past, can be approached by the viewer much like spatial coordinates, we effectively extend the concept from the three-dimensional (3D) space into a four-dimensional (4D) realm that encompasses both space and time. This assumption is derived from practical experiences in the training and application of remote viewing.

An example for a tasking number from the target pool is:

220917-213101

The assigned tasking for this tasking number is:

Location: "Marsk Tower", Skærbæk, Denmark

Geo coordinate: N 55° 9' 11" E 8° 44' 26"

Time coordinate: August 3, 2022 at 5:38 p.m. local time

The viewers only get the 12-digit tasking number to launch into their session. The associated tasking defines the target, including the name and location or address (if available) of the site, the geographical coordinates, and a time coordinate.

Feedback for the Viewers

For their feedback, viewers were provided with a corresponding dataset of photos, videos and panoramic images for each target, along with the coordinate and an aerial view of the target area. These resources are made available through Google Photos albums, each accessible via a unique link. The feedback photo gallery was presented to the viewers online. The following link provides access to the feedback gallery for the example target "Marsk Tower": https://bit.ly/46ZQrbq

The PDF document created as part of the tasking process also served as a feedback sheet for the viewers (Figure 4). It includes a representative photo, as well as a link to a comprehensive photo and video gallery that is accessible online. Additionally, a link to the coordinates on Google Maps was included, allowing the viewer to further explore the target area.

Figure 4: ***Target Feedback Sheet***



TASKING SHEET

Project No.: 2131
Session No.: 1
Tasker: 001
Deadline: -
Cue: Describe the target site

220917
213101

Target:
„Marsk Tower", Skærbæk, Denmark
N 55° 9' 11" E 8° 44' 26"
3rd August 2022 at 5:38 p.m.

more Photos of this series at Google:
https://photos.app.goo.gl/uhVbLishokT87fTo9

aerial view of the target site on Google maps:
https://goo.gl/maps/bhB4MYTntpWVEA8u6

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Note. Feedback materials ensure that all relevant aspects of a target are available for session evaluation.

Data acquisition

For each session created as part of this investigation, in addition to the actual target data (session body), we have collected data about the session creation's environmental variables (session header). These supplementary data we have gathered include an anonymized 3-digit identification code for the viewers, timestamps for the session's start and end, duration, time zone, geographical location of the viewer, gender, age, nationality, RV background, and other related data. While these data are not necessary for the current experiment, they may prove useful for future experiments[4] that seek to investigate statistically significant variations.

We collected a data sample of 65 individual sessions, which were created under the same conditions. The data was provided by 16 different remote viewers. Some of the remote viewers did not complete a series of six targets. Two of the remote viewers provided a second series, in order to compare different methods that they were trained in (CRV and TRV). As a result, the initial plan to collect 10 series of 6

[4] Possible suggestions for further investigations are presented in the appendix of the document, Section 2, Follow-up studies.

sessions each was not fulfilled; however, the total planned number of sessions was nevertheless reached, allowing us to conduct our analysis as intended.

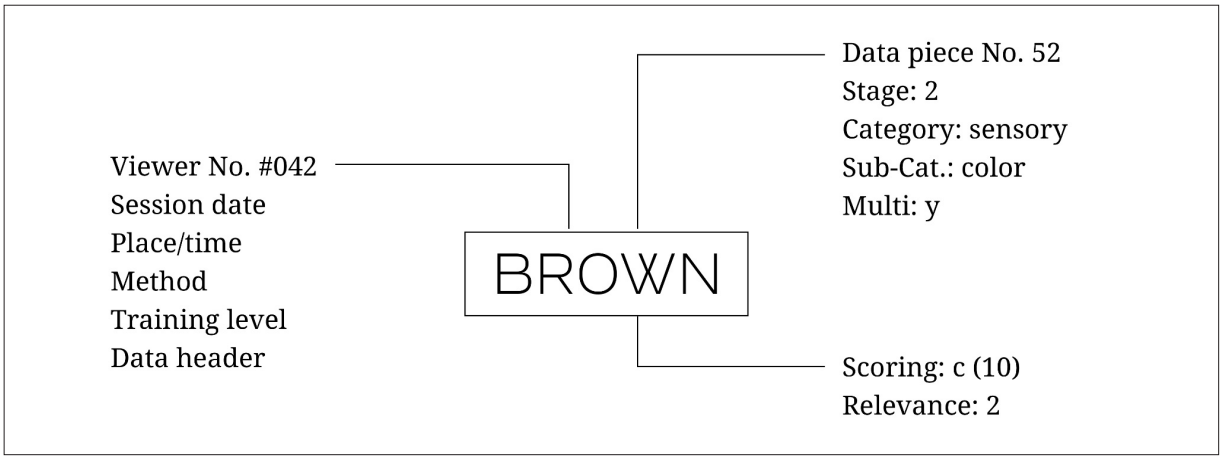
We included all sessions in the calculation of the average, but only those viewers who completed a full series had an individual profile created. To create such a profile, as we will see later, multiple data sets are necessary to make meaningful statements about a perceptual profile, as individual sessions may vary. However, all sessions were valuable in contributing to finding the answer to the question of average accuracy.

Two of the remote viewers provided a second series, in order to compare different methods that they were trained in (CRV and TRV).

Data assessment

The individual data pieces of the session body, which contain the actual target data, are each assigned attributes such as stage, category, sub-category, and the corresponding score (Figure 5). A piece of data—data bit—in this context refers to an individual term or sketch, essentially an element within the session that cannot be further subdivided into smaller semantic units.

Figure 5: Data Attribution to One Single Piece of Data



Note. Detailed data attribution enables systematic assessment of viewer output at the individual data point level.

From all this data and its various possibilities for variation (number of categories and subcategories, different scoring results), a large amount of individual data points were processed per session.

The quantity of session body data in an average CRV session typically ranges from 200 to 450 individual data records. Even though we won't be evaluating the higher stages for this experiment, there was still the need for recording, assigning, and scoring all of them. Even with an average data volume of approximately 250 data points per session and 47 different attribution possibilities, this would amount to over 11K individual entries in a data sequence. It was logical for us to consider developing a database for this data processing.

Therefore, in order to assess the sessions individually and for the purpose of a comprehensive com-

parative analysis, we endeavored to develop a supporting database tool. This tool was planned to be designed to streamline the calculation of individual parameters to accommodate the substantial volume of expected data output.

Furthermore, the objective was to design the data logic and processing in a manner that would allow the seamless integration of additional and larger volumes of sessions into the evolving database in the future.

Essential for establishing a database, but also an important step on its own: The underlying evaluation logic had to be developed first. This logic was built upon the original CRV structure, enabling a distinct categorization and interpretation of each individual data point generated throughout the course of a session in terms of its category and significance.

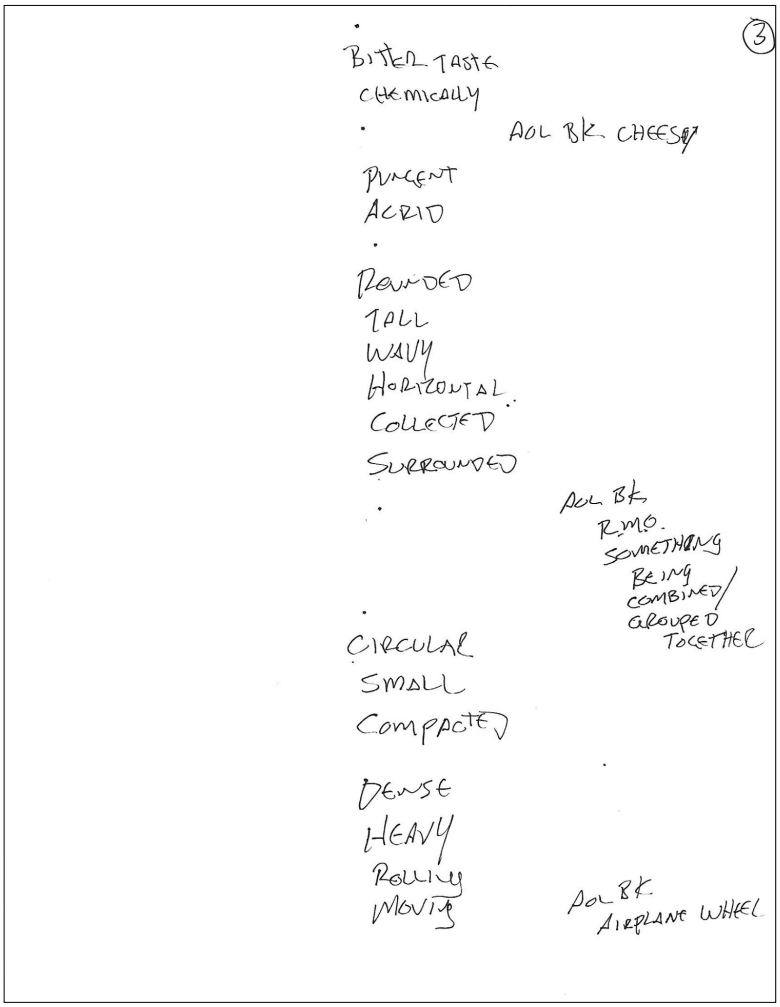
A few initial setbacks in the database programming led to the implementation of an interim solution for data evaluation, which relied on Excel spreadsheets and embedded programming. The data structure was designed to facilitate direct import into a finalized database at a later stage. Although the manual handling of data was considerably time-consuming, it greatly assisted researchers in the development of the evaluation and scoring matrix. The process is well-defined and replicable. We anticipate (with initial tests showing promising results)[5] that the model created is not only applicable to CRV but also to its derivatives, as data categorization is primarily based on the actual content of the data.

The finalization of the database with the envisioned functionality was postponed until after the conclusion of the study.

The following excerpt from Stage 2 of a typical session (Figure 6) demonstrates the application of the logic and how the same data point is implemented in the two-dimensional data structure used as an interim solution (Table 1, Figure 7).

[5] Additional datasets that were generated for various rounds of testing were not incorporated into the evaluation utilized for this study.

Figure 6: Page from Sample Session



Note. Page 3 from the session transcript shown in Figure 2. This page from the session transcript (showing an excerpt from CRV Stage 2) includes typical S-2 data. The target for this session was a private airfield hangar.

Table 1: Sample Session Data Arranged Chronologically and Annotated by CRV Stage and Category

Data	Item	Score	Relevance	Stage	Category	Sub-Cat.	AOL
bitter	49	pc		2	S/D	TAS	
chemically	50	pc		2	S/D	TAS	
AOL cheesy	51	–		2	AOL		miss
pungent	52	cfb		2	S/D	TAS	
acrid	53	cfb		2	S/D	TAS	
rounded	54	c	high	2	S/D	DIM	
tall	55	c	ave	2	S/D	DIM	

wavy	56	pc		2	S/D	DIM	
horizontal	57	c	ave	2	S/D	DIM	
collected	58	c	ave	2	I		
surrounded	59	c	ave	2	S/D	S4D	
RMO something being combined/grouped together	60	–		2	AOL		hit
circular	61	c	ave	2	S/D	DIM	
small	62	pc		2	S/D	S4D	
compacted	63	–		2	AOL		sim
dense	64	c	ave	2	S/D	DIM	
heavy	65	c	ave	2	S/D	DIM	
rolling	66	c	high	2	S/D	S4D	
moving	67			2			
AOL airplane wheel	68	–		2	AOL		hit

Note. This table shows the same data as in the example above (Fig. 6), attributed with correctness and relevance score, session stage, and data categories.

Figure 7: Category View of Attribution and Scores (Stages 1–3)

		c	multi c	netto c	high	average	low	pc	multi pc	netto pc	cfb	multi cfb	netto cfb	n	multi n	netto n	m	multi m	netto m
	A	7		7		7													
	B	1		1	1														
S/D	COL	10	1	9	2	3	4												
	QOL							2		2									
	TAC	5	1	4		3	1	2	1	1	6	3	3				3		3
	SND							2		2	2		2						
	TAS	2		2		1	1	2		2	1		1						
	TMP										1		1				3	1	2
	DIM	48	12	25	3	21	1	5	1	4	2		2						
	S4D	8		8		6	2	1		1									
	MAT	1		1	1														
	ENR																		
	AI										1		1						
AOL/AOL-S	hit	3		3															
	similar	3		3															
	miss	10		10															
		75						14			13			0			6		

Note. The category view of attribution shows the total amount of data points in stages 1–3 attributed for the sample session. This category-level analysis highlights where data points are most frequently correct and identifies channels contributing most to session performance.

Data Categories

The main data expected in Stage 2 and 3 are sensory and dimensional impressions. We have used the overarching category "Sensory/Dimensional (S/D)" and divided it into a total of 10 subcategories (Table 2):

Table 2: Definition of Sub-Categories to Sensory/Dimensional data (S/D)

Description	Sub-Category	Code
Perception of colors, all colors that can be named	color	COL
Visual impression that describes interactions of light with the target without naming specific colors (e. g., bright, shadowy, speckled, reflective, striated, etc.)	qualities of light	QOL
Surface and consistency	tactile	TAC
Auditory impressions	sound	SND
Taste and smell, combined into a single category, as impressions in this domain often overlap or cannot be definitively attributed to just one of these sensory channels. Additionally, our vocabulary frequently doesn't provide clear indications of which of the two sensory channels is involved.	taste & smell	TAS
Temperature and climatic environmental data.	temperature	TMP
Simple dimensions (the typical range of perception in stage 2 is found in this category).	dimension	DIM
Advanced dimensions, as they typically occur from S-4 onwards, include 3-D appreciation of elements, relationships between elements, as well as temporal information (movement of matter over time).	S-4 dimension	S4D
Material-related information is gathered in a separate category. From a technical perspective, they belong to the tactile data but also encompass analytical elements since the inference of a material often subconsciously involves the perception of other sensory channels (e.g., metallic taste, woody smell).[6]	material	MAT
This category is typically not included/featured with the targets of this phase, but it was added to complete the database to be usable for targets of all kinds.	energy	ENR

Note. Clear sub-category definitions are essential for reproducible data evaluation. The sub-categories used here refer to the different

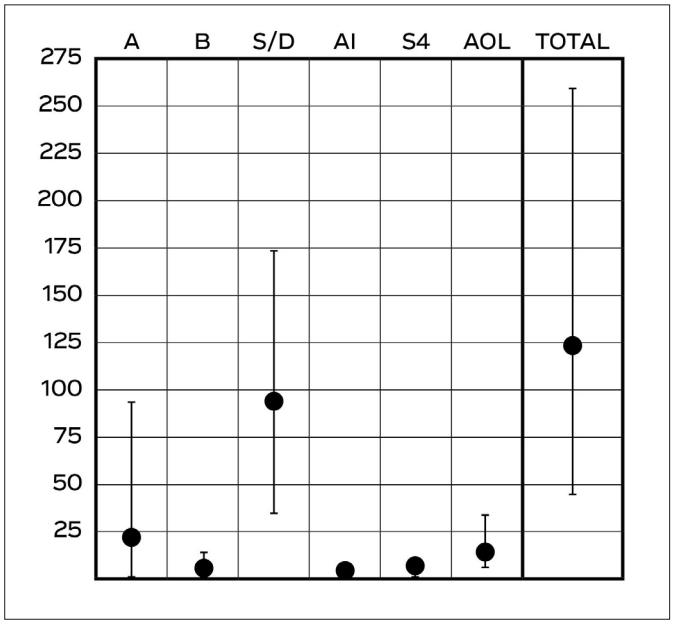
[6] There are indications that early perception of information about materials positively influences the course of the session and its correctness, but there also seems to be an interaction with individual perception profiles. It's too early to make a definitive statement about this, but it's certainly a worthwhile subject for future studies.

perceptual categories as used and taught in the CRV method, including all possible kinds of perceptual raw data in the Sensory/Dimensional main category.

On average, about 70% of the data in stages 2–3 falls into the S/D category. This corresponds to the expected volume of data, since stages 2–3 are explicitly designed to perceive this type of data. The percentage varies depending on the method used because different amounts of data are allocated to investigate the ideogram in Stage 1. In our evaluation, the average amount of S/D data for the Swann/Morehouse CRV is 73%, for the Buchanan approach to CRV 58%, for other types of CRV 71%, and for TRV 82%. The remainder consists of AOL and Aesthetic Impact (AI)[7] (variable percentage, individual to each session), and data from stage 1 used to determine the primary gestalt(s). This process can have varying lengths and characteristics but is not directly correlated with correctness. (Figure 8).

From stage 1, we only evaluate the result, the determination of the B-component[8] (the specification of the general nature— "gestalt"—of the target). Occasionally, sessions in stages 1–3 also contain data that structurally belongs to stage 4 and higher (analytical information, e.g., Intangibles).

Figure 8: Amount of Data According to Categories (Average and Range)



Note. The last column shows the total number of data pieces for Stage 1–3. An average of 69.3% of the Stage 1–3 data belong to the S/D category. All data bits from the A category are not relevant for calculating correctness, as they are only used to determine the primary gestalt and can vary greatly in quantity depending on the method used.

An integral component of method-based remote viewing is the separation of analytical data. The term used for this in CRV is AOL, which stands for Analytical Overlay. AOL is therefore defined as impressions resulting from analytical processes (i.e., analytically processed incoming data, also commonly referred to as left-brain functioning, as opposed to raw perceptions). Identifying them within the CRV structure is straightforward: composite elements that can be broken down into multiple sub-impressions are con-

[7] Aesthetic Impact (AI) is data that concerns the viewer, not the target, and describes personal and individually different impressions.
[8] The B-component determines the "gestalt" of the target in most of the CRV derivatives. If in some cases, e.g., in the in the David Morehouse version of CRV, a C-component is introduced to hold the gestalt information, we substitute B with C.

structs of the analytical mind. For example, "brick"—this single concept could contain at least half a dozen sensory and dimensional data that ultimately lead to naming it a brick (red, hard, stony, rough, angular, ...), but a combination of these data could also fit other objects. A definition of the term AOL can be found in the "12 Principles of Remote Viewing" as principle number 6, mental noise (Rogge, 2025).

Naming things requires having an existing concept of them, which involves memory. In general, naming concepts is a function of data processing efficiency that is evolutionarily ingrained in us and serves to maximize results with the limited bandwidth of data processing. This strategy becomes problematic when the elements of the target are not yet known to the viewer. The analytical mind then often comes up with the next best similar concept that aligns with the impressions. In our language usage, names, labels, nouns, etc., are always associated with this form of analysis, which is why we categorize them as AOL by default. This is not a judgment of their potential correctness but simply a clear structural differentiation between "data reception" and "data processing" on the viewer's part.

Experience shows that in remote viewing AOL is much more often incorrect than correct. However, it's important to keep in mind that in an operational context, no one can definitively know whether a particular AOL is correct or incorrect. Therefore, it is immensely helpful to systematically filter out the error-prone AOL data and rely on the descriptive S/D data. This is one of the core functions of CRV and a significant part of the training process.

It happens that viewers forget or fail to objectify AOL data in their sessions. As part of the evaluation, we had to consider how to handle these data that were incorrectly handled by the viewer. In order to make the evaluation comparable, we decided to treat undeclared AOL still as AOL in our analysis. However, we maintained the other attributes unchanged.

Data Scoring

The evaluation of the data sets follows the response method typically employed in CRV training, consisting of five categories: correct (c), probably correct (pc), can't feed back (cfb), near (n), and miss (m). This method is described as "in-session feedback" in the original CRV manual (McNear, 1985) and was used in the Ft. Meade unit training at the time. Even today, in-session feedback is applied for CRV training purposes, e. g. at RVIS, Inc., by Paul H. Smith. We adopted these five categories for our evaluation of the sessions.

In the initial step, we obtain a quantified total sum of all individual data elements, each assigned a score, and a percentage indicating the proportion of correct data. To calculate the percentage correctness, we assign the following values to the five scoring categories (Table 3):

Table 3: Scoring Categories and Assigned Values for Calculation

Score	Correctness	Value
correct data, contained in feedback	correct (c)	10
data not contained in feedback material, but high probability of being correct by logical interpretation and conclusions	probably correct (pc)	7.5
data not contained in feedback material, no way of telling if it is correct or not, equals a 50% probability	can't feed back (cfb)	5
data that is not to the target, but near the target, where feedback is possible	near (n)	2.5
no correspondence	miss (m)	0

Note. Adapting a 5-step scoring matrix from the in-session-feedback approach in Ingo Swann's CRV training allows for a finer-grained assessment of correctness.

We opted for an evenly spaced percentage distribution because the "Can't feed back" category, in particular, represents an average of both correct and incorrect data. Assigning this category indicates that the judge is uncertain about whether the impression pertains to the target area or not. Therefore, the hypothetical probability of correctness for this category is considered to be 50%, akin to a random chance. The classification of the "near" category is given a lower value because the primary focus is not solely on the viewer's general ability to accurately perceive non-locally but rather on the functionality of the method itself. This functionality encompasses the tasking process, as well as the requirement for the viewer to provide a concrete description of the specified target.

Data from the immediate vicinity of the target can confirm that the viewer is "on signal," meaning they are perceiving information related to the target. However, this data may not necessarily be useful for the operational remote viewing process, which aims to obtain unknown and specific information about the target. In some cases, it could potentially introduce noise or bias into the viewer's perceptions or the analyst's evaluation, making it important to focus on target-specific information.

In the example provided earlier (Marsk Tower), the entire tower, which is the target, is made of metal. Adjacent to it, there is a playground constructed from wooden beams. If the viewer uses the term "woody," in this case, it would not be considered correct; instead, it would be categorized as "near." The playground is indeed near the target, but it is *not* the actual target.

The scoring process was applied to all recorded data, regardless of how far beyond stage 3 the session progressed. However, as mentioned before, for this experiment, we only analyzed the session data up to stage 3 to ensure comparability of the data sets.

At this point, we have examined two factors separately to avoid corrupting the overall evaluation: We introduced a separate relevance score and a process for handling multiple mentions of data.

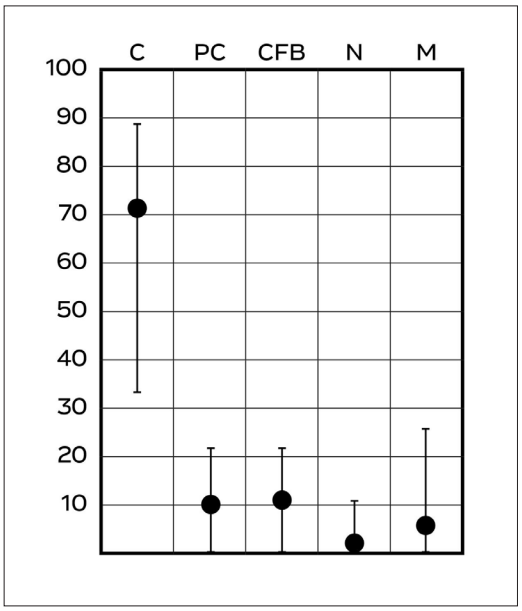
Multiple Data. The CRV working protocol allows for various data to be objectified multiple times during a session. There are several possible reasons for this: It could be the case that a sensory impression genuinely occurs frequently in the target area (for instance, there is a lot of metal everywhere) or that the viewer feels uncertain and retreats to a "safe ground" to generate new data. Also, when consistently objectifying data generated during sketching, multiple mentions often occur. While some RV methods may impose regulations, CRV leaves this quite open. However, it can be misleading in assessing the correctness of a session if a viewer mentions a term excessively, especially if it is correct. Their calculated score would improve, but not the actual correctness in relation to other provided data.

Introducing a relevance scoring allows us to gain insight into the interesting question: Can multiple objectifications of data by the viewer indicate data correctness, either strongly or weakly? Alternatively, does the frequency of mentions occur independently of correctness?

All the sessions we evaluated consistently paint the same picture: Multiple mentions occur significantly more often with correct data (Figure 9).

- Correct = 71%
- Probably Correct = 10%
- Can't feed back = 11%
- Near = 2%
- Miss = 6%

Figure 9: Incidence of Multiple Mentions Based on the Rating Category



Note. Repeated perception entries tend to correlate with higher data correctness.

To prevent distortion in the evaluation, these multiple data points were recorded and attributed. For the calculation of correctness and all further analyses, only the cleaned net values were used.

Relevance Score. Another problem in the analysis is that simply assessing the correctness of data is not sufficient to determine how useful and valuable the data in a session are. Especially with inexperienced viewers, it is common to see them resorting to more generic data (big, wide, blue...). In the context of operational remote viewing, the relevance of data is a critical consideration. While the quantity of data generated may be substantial, it is the quality and relevance of this information that truly determines its value. Assessing merely the volume or correctness of data is insufficient; instead, an additional focus should be on evaluating how useful and applicable the data are to the specific RV objectives.

Unlike applications like ARV, where we only need to compare the data from a session with already fully known feedback, RV is used in operational applications to obtain *unknown* data that cannot, by definition, be accessed through other means. To address these questions, the viewer must provide much more, and more specific, data than what the tasker/client or analyst already knows about the target.

Let's again take the example of Shipyard 402 mentioned earlier (Smith, 2015, pp. 45–63): If the viewer reports that it's a square-shaped building, that would be correct but, in the context of the tasking, not very useful because we would already know this fact from the respective satellite images. Similarly, describing the chain-link fence around the area in elaborate detail would also be correct but still not very helpful. It was only when the viewer provided specific data about the building or the inside of the building that it became relevant for the analysts.

An essential skill that a viewer must develop in remote viewing (regardless of the method they use) is the ability to express impressions verbally. Even in Stage 2 and 3, which primarily contain data from sensory and dimensional categories, there is a lot of potential information, provided the viewer can communicate it effectively through words and sketches.

The more specific individual data points are, the better. Depending on the data category, what is considered "specific" may vary. Therefore, we applied a 3-tiered subdivision based on the following question: How helpful is this data element in identifying the target or unique elements of it?

The additional "relevance score" applies *only* to correct data, as it only holds useful meaning in this context for analysis (Table 4).

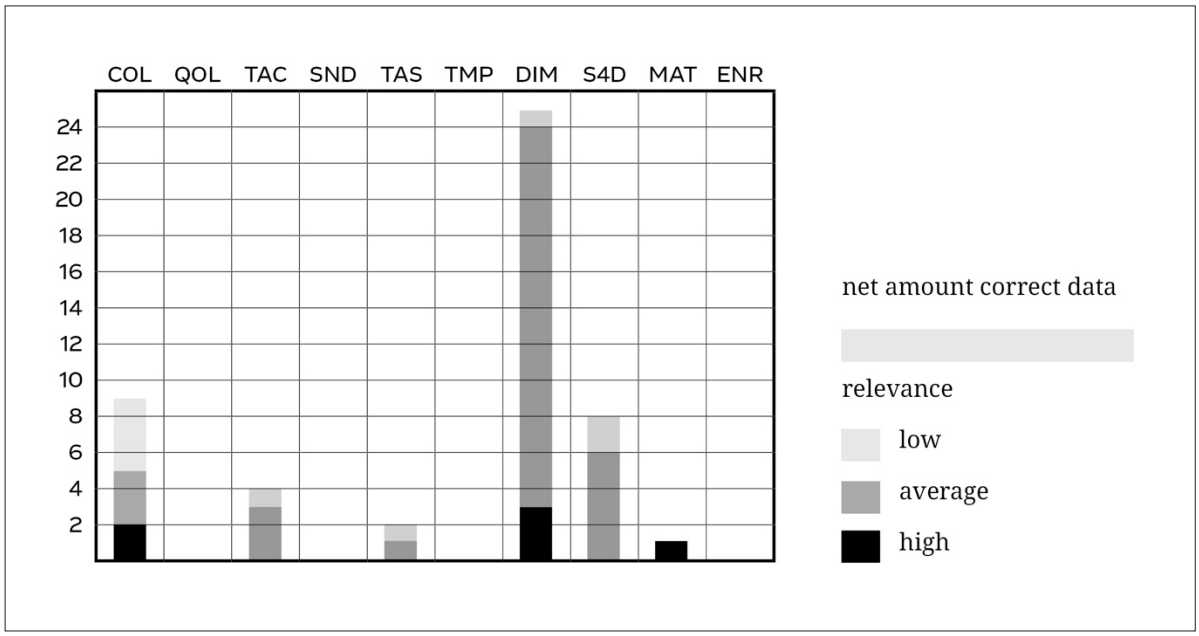
Table 4: Relevance Score and Assigned Values

Description	Relevance	Value
unique for the target, and/or significant to important or unambiguous aspects of the target	high	3
main target data, but not specific	average	2
ambiguous data, or data related to minor target aspects	low	1

Note. Operational applicability is best assessed by relevance in addition to objective correctness. The relevance rating is scored on a 3-step matrix.

Relevance, however, is not the same as correctness, so this factor cannot be simply incorporated into the calculation. Instead, it can be included as an additional layer in the analysis (Figure 10).

Figure 10: Correct Data Scored for Relevance



Note. Data from sample session discussed above, S1–3. The correspondence of relevance compared to correctness is different for the perceptual categories, indicating a perceptual profile for the individual viewer.

Scoring Sketches. The evaluation of sketches initially presented a challenge due to their varying origins and purposes. In remote viewing, there are different types of sketches used, some replacing descriptive words (primarily in Stage 2), while others depict elements of the target, ranging from partial representations to complete renderings of the target area. Not all methods use sketches with the same frequency and intent. In general, sketches are intended to produce additional and supplementary data that can be objectified separately. Some methodologies also utilize analytical sketches created from previously mentioned data. Additionally, the correctness of sketches is highly subjective, making a dedicated scoring difficult. To address this, the solution was to apply the same scoring mode as for written words, using a 5-point scale with the same assigned values (10, 7.5, 5, 2.5, and 0 points). To minimize subjectivity, the sketches were independently scored by various evaluators, and the average score was derived from the assessments.

Session Scores. For Stages 1–3, we evaluate the data from B and S/D. Certain elements of the CRV format, such as the A-component, AI or AOL, are excluded from our analysis, as they are extraneous to our purposes here[9].

From the total data of session stages 1–3, we are left with a gross value X. After subtracting the multiple mentioned data, we obtain a net value N for each data category. This results in a three-part evaluation for each session.

[9] The A-component only provides the basis for the determination of the main gestalt(s) B. By evaluating the gestalt information, we have a single reliable data bit, while the amount of data in A, that leads to B, can vary greatly with no additional information. AI data is personal to the viewer and does not belong to the target itself. AOL data is not treated as "real data" but analytical processed data, therefore not seen as reliable in operational analysis.

1. First, a total correctness score. The maximum achievable value is N x 10 (10 points for correct).
2. Second, the gross number of absolutely correct data C from N (data that is graded "correct").
3. Third, the relevance factor for the absolutely correct data, where the maximum achievable value is C x 3 (3 points for highly relevant).

For the sample session, the calculation is as follows:

- T (Total) = 136
- X (Gross) = 107
- N (Net) = 76 (maximum score 760)
- Total correctness score: 637.5 = 83.88%
- True correct data: 50 of 76 = 65.79%
- Relevance score: 100 of 150 (50 x 3) = 66.67%

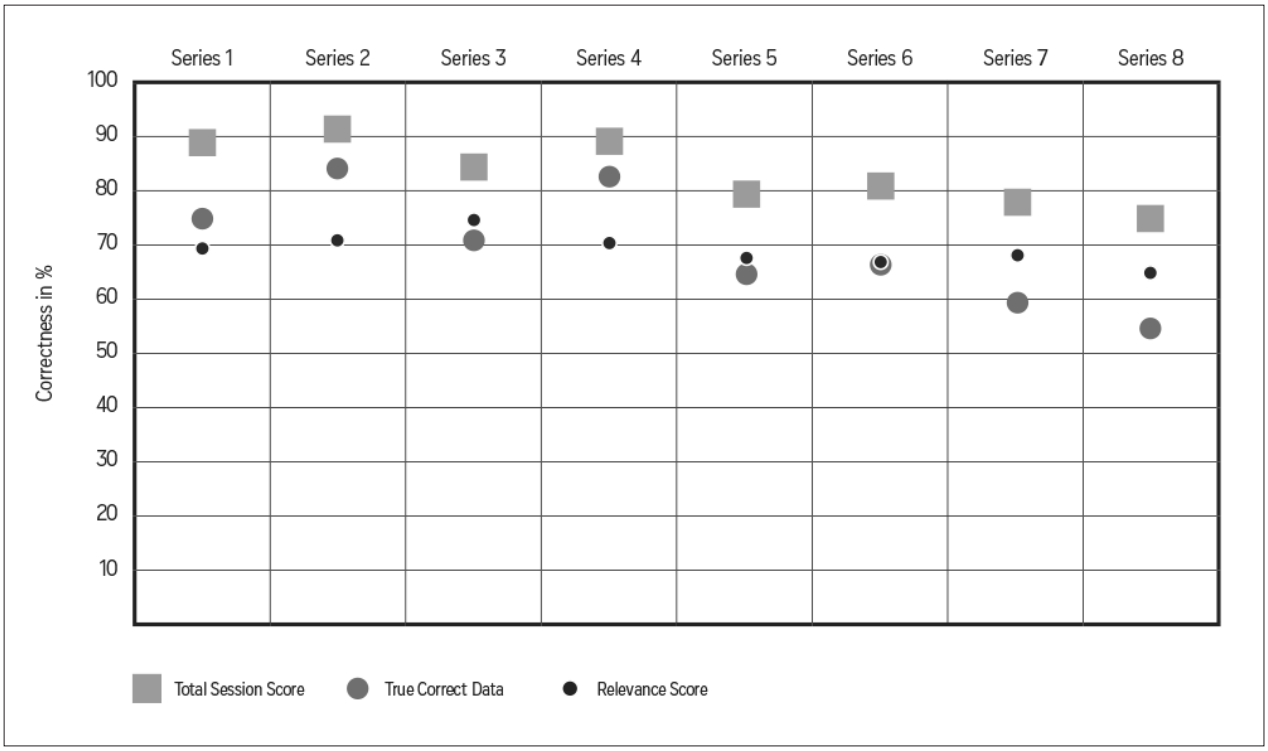
Table 5 and Figure 11 display the analysis of the aforementioned three scoring variations for 8 completed series of sessions.

Table 5: Session Scores for 8 Completed Series, in Percent

	Session Scores in %		
Session Series	Total Correctness	True Correct Data	Relevance Score
Series 1	88.30	75.81	69.40
Series 2	92.38	84.06	71.63
Series 3	84.76	71.78	75.94
Series 4	89.78	83.48	70.21
Series 5	79.69	64.58	68.40
Series 6	81.72	67.29	68.83
Series 7	77.83	59.97	68.04
Series 8	75.39	54.21	65.12
average	83.73	67.24	69.70

Note. While the correctness score is more relevant to this study in displaying the overall correctness of perceptions in a session, the scored relevance is more useful in potential viewer assessment for practical applications and operational work.

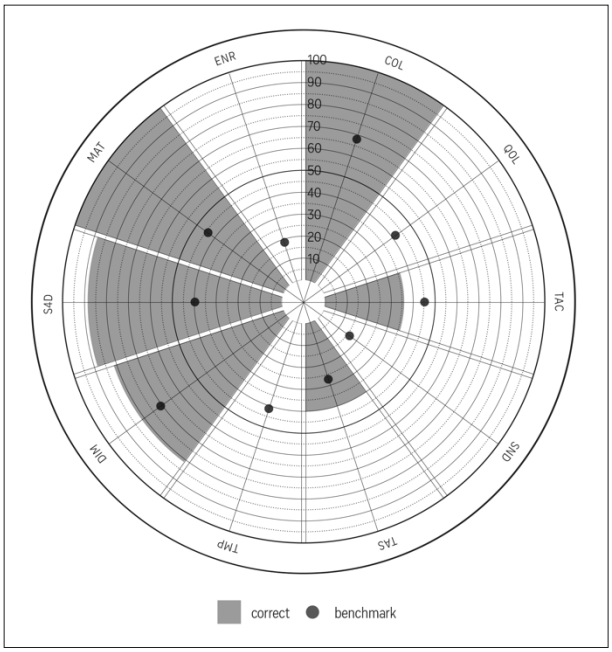
Figure 11: Session Scores for 8 Completed Series, in Percent (Graphical Chart)



Note. Eight completed series of sessions (stages 1–3), scores in percent.

Session and Viewer Profiles. As part of the evaluation, a method was developed to generate a graphical representation of the session data from the provided data. The conversion into a visual representation makes it easier to identify patterns and similarities.

Figure 12: Pie Chart representation of Data Categories

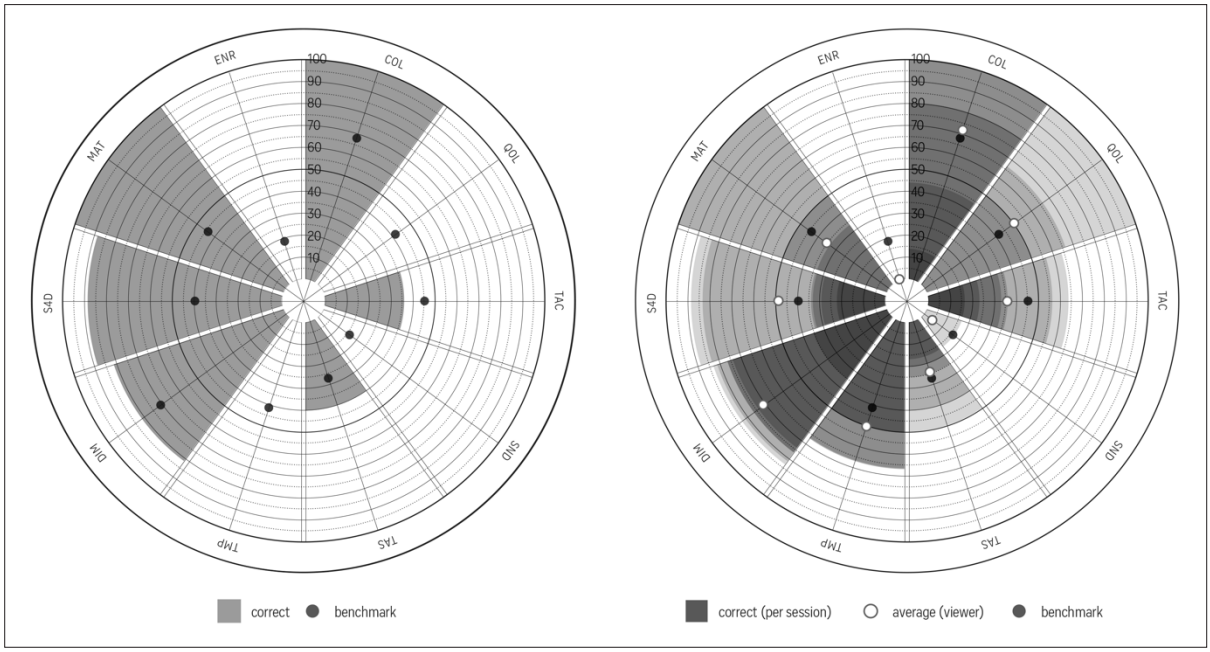


Note. The circular segments each show the percentage (0–100%) amount of data belonging to the respective sensory sub-categories ac-

cording to table 2: clockwise—colors (COL), qualities of light (QOL), tactile (TAC), sound (SND), taste and smell (TAS), temperature (TMP), dimension (DIM), S-4 dimension (S4D), materials (MAT), and energy (ENR). The benchmark point represents the average throughout all evaluated sessions. This segment configuration remains consistent in all subsequent visualizations.

The graphic representation in Figure 12 pertains to the number of correct data within the various subcategories of sensory data in stages 1–3. In this case, a pie chart displays the values for correct data as a percentage for each respective category, with 100% representing the total of data mentioned in that category during the session. The first chart in Figure 13 presents the evaluation of a single session, while the second chart displays a series of six sessions from the same viewer, overlaid for comparison.

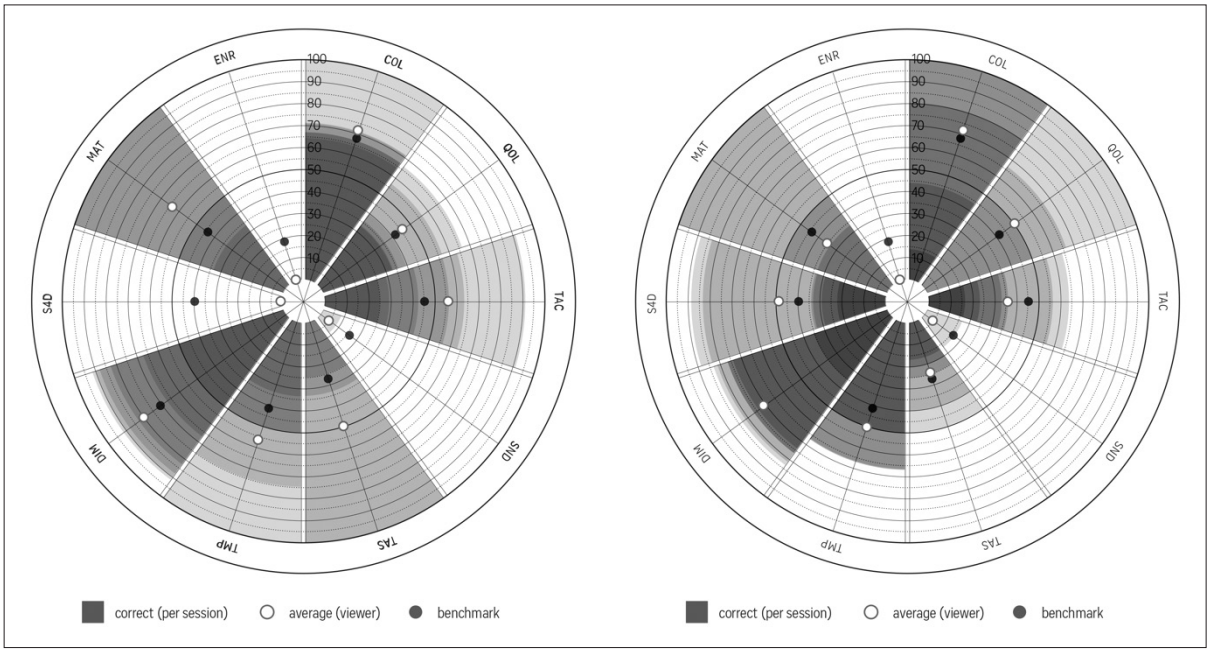
Figure 13: Correct Data According to Perception Categories



Note. Correct data for one viewer according to categories, single session (left) and cumulated series (right), in percent (S1–3). The pie chart visualization supports rapid assessment of the proportions of different perception types in output.

When comparing different series, it becomes apparent that each viewer exhibits an individual profile, indicating their preferred perception channels and in which channels they yield strong data (Figure 14). The more sessions available for cumulative analysis, the more meaningful the insights become. In this study, as we deliberately limited the viewers to a series of six sessions from the outset, the values from all six sessions are included. For future research, it would be interesting to investigate whether these perception profiles can change or evolve with increasing experience or according to a viewer's training level.

Figure 14: Correct Data Showing an Individual "Perception Profile"



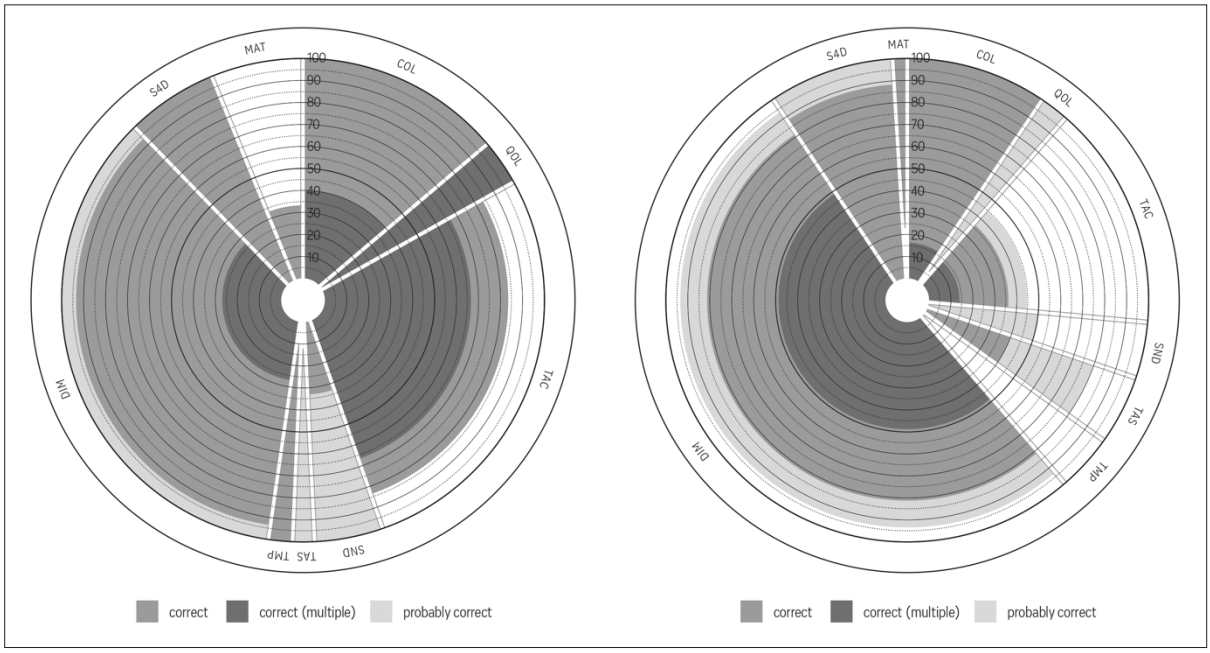
Note. Correct data for different viewers according to categories, cumulated series, in percent (S1–3). The category-specific analysis clarifies which sensory channels are most reliable among participants, and also display individual perception profiles.

This form of representation is suitable for providing viewers with valuable insights into how they can modify or leverage their training process. Some viewers may appreciate knowing their particular strengths, enabling them to focus their training on further enhancing those strengths. Others might aim to improve their weaknesses through targeted training to become more well-rounded in the overall sensory perception category. Experiences with CRV demonstrate that the results, concerning the operational utility of sessions, significantly improve when viewers are capable of producing specific data in the early stages.

Equally valuable is the assessment of individual perception profiles for clients or project managers who are selecting viewers for a task, either based on specific strengths or by combining different strengths to cover a diverse range of requirements.

A second form of visualization (Figure 15) aims to represent the quantitative distribution of accurate data. In this representation, the size of each pie section correlates to the quantity of data in the session with respect to that category of data. This format is less suited for profiling but highly beneficial for analysts and project managers who can better assess the data they can tend to rely on from a viewer. The graphic includes both "correct" and "probably correct" data since both offer higher relevance for actual analysis in an operational setting. The representation deals with net values, with particular emphasis on the count of repeatedly mentioned correct data points.

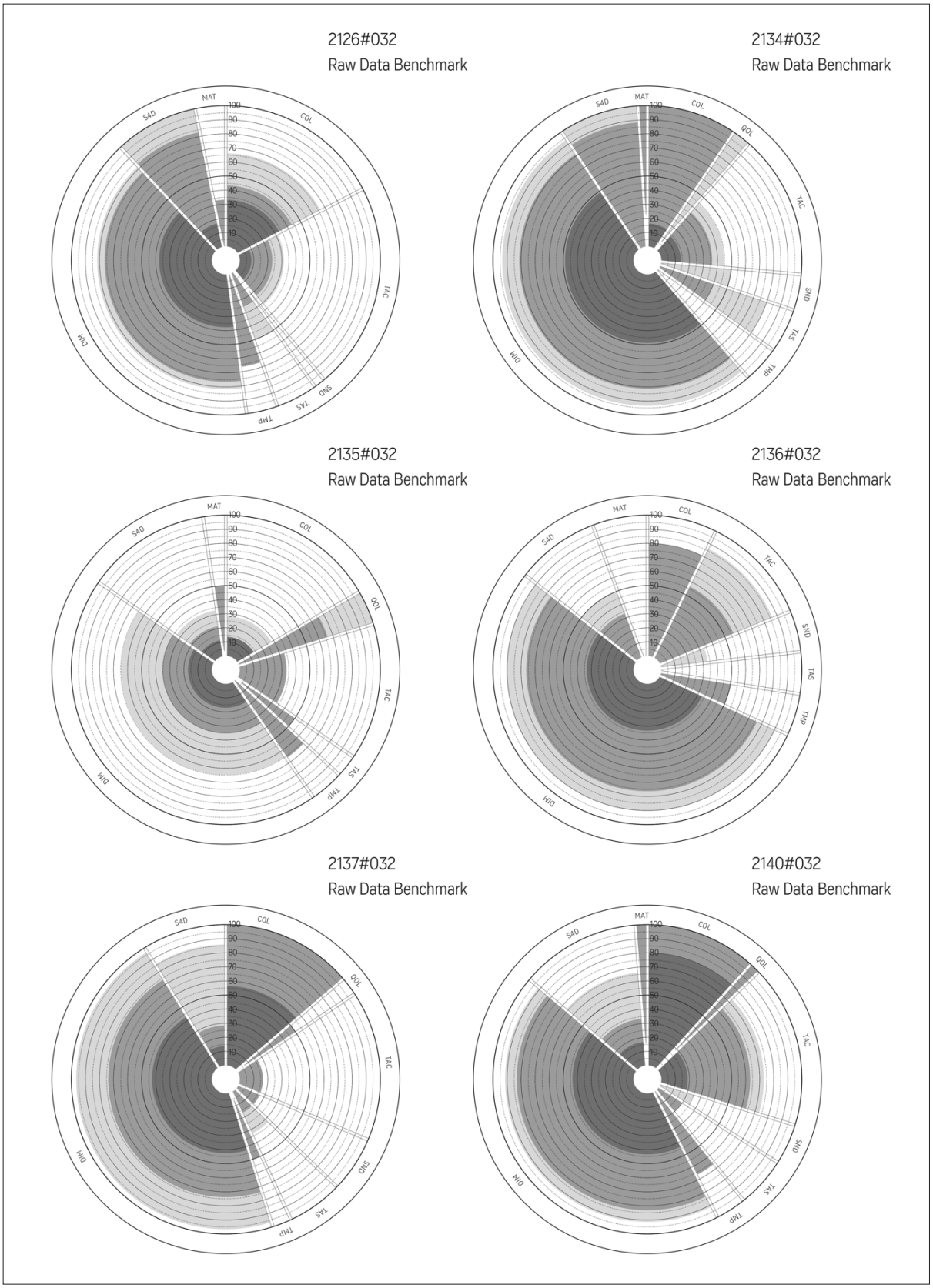
Figure 15: Single Session Profile



Note. Correct and probably correct data for two different viewers according to categories, single sessions, in percent (S1–3). In this visualization, the segment sizes also show the quantitative distribution of data in correlation to their correctness. It is noticeable that categories in which the viewer provided more data have a tendency for better overall correctness.

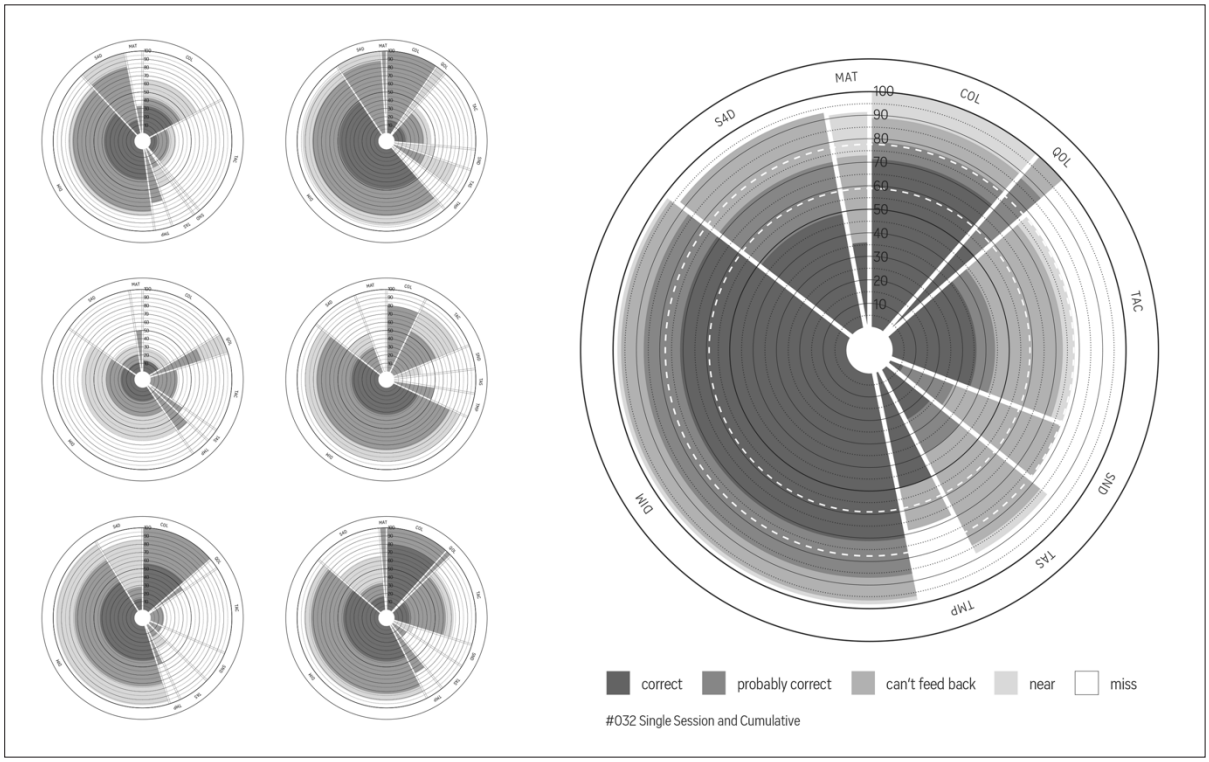
Again, in this representation, it becomes evident that the quantity of data in each category follows an individual profile for the viewers. The subsequent Figures 16 and 17 display individual and cumulative data from six sessions of the same viewer. It is quite apparent that, despite variations in the accuracy of individual sessions, the general distribution pattern remains consistent.

Figure 16: Single Session Profiles Showing an Individual Distribution Pattern



Note. Profiles of 6 single sessions from the same viewer, in percent (S1–3). While the viewer provided both good and bad sessions in this series, the quantitative distribution of data remains similar for all sessions, again indicating an individual profile.

Figure 17: Single Session Profiles and Cumulative Chart

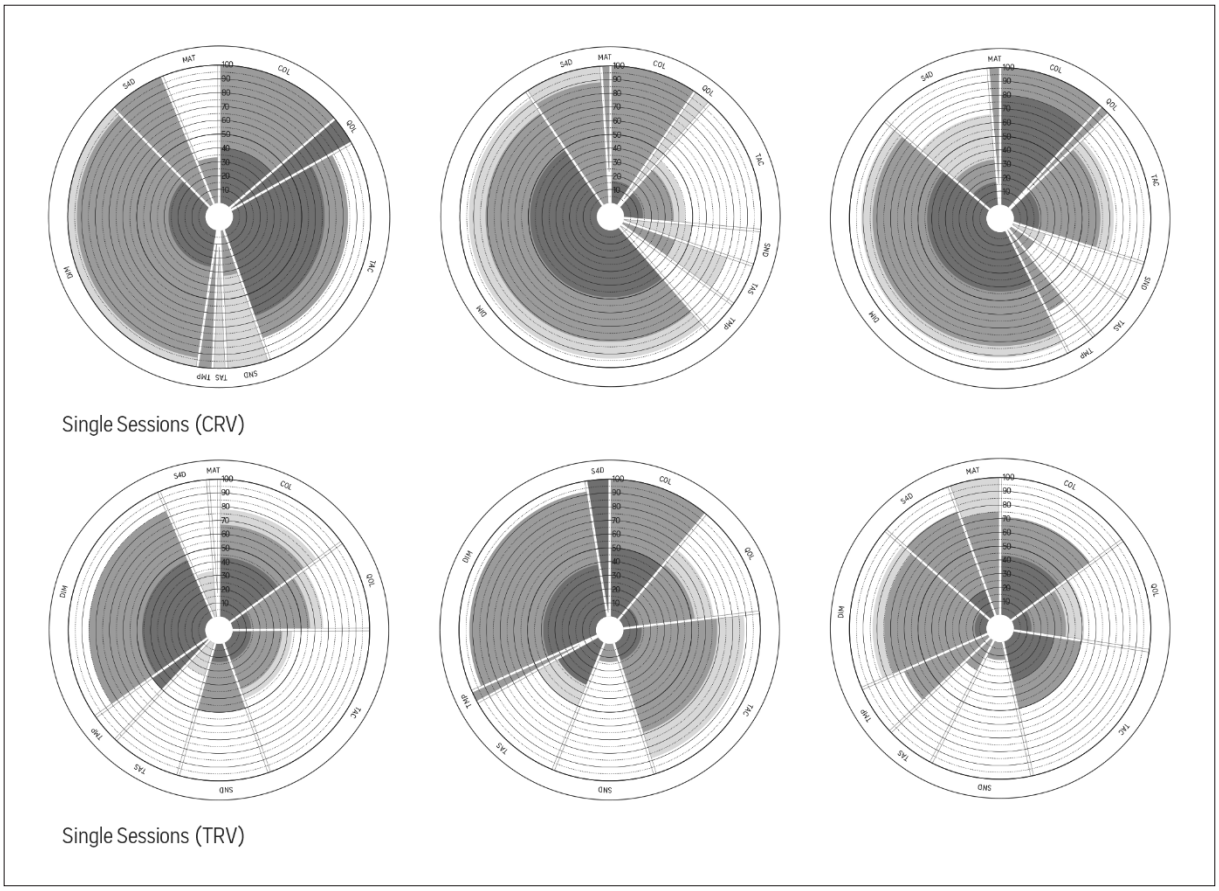


Note. Profiles of six single sessions from the same viewer and cumulative graphic, in percent (S1–3). The cumulative chart can be of use as a general viewer profile, and also serve as a personal benchmark measurement e.g., for tracking of training progress.

Viewers tend to produce more data from "strong" categories than from weaker ones, provided the methodology employed allows for such differentiation. In this respect, TRV is more restrictive in its methodology compared to CRV[10], which somewhat attenuates this effect. In Figure 18, the charts for CRV sessions (upper row) show a stronger correlation between the total amount of data in a perception category and their correctness compared to the TRV sessions (lower row). We conclude that with the non-restricted approach of the CRV method the viewers have a tendency to focus on their strong perception channels. This seems to indicate that—at least for the viewers in our sample—the TRV methodology produces a higher percentage of incorrect data. Whether this will prove true across the board will only be determined with addition of more data from a larger number of viewers.

[10] In TRV, the viewer prompts the different perception categories in a pre-defined order, going through all of them one after the other. In CRV, the viewer objectifies the data "as it comes in," which may be according to channels, gestalts, or clusters, resulting in an unordered list with all perception categories intermixed.

Figure 18: Single Session Profiles in CRV and TRV (Showing the Difference in Detail between the two Methods)



Note. Profiles of single sessions, different viewers, in CRV (upper row) and TRV (lower row). This chart indicates that a specific feature of the TRV method, namely the ordered and restricted addressing of the perceptual categories in stage 2 of the session, as opposed to a "free flow" of incoming data in CRV, supports weaker categories and probably suppresses more good data in strong channels for the individual viewer.

Data Analysis in Probabilities and Significance

As the results display chart was further developed, the statistical probabilities associated with each individual viewer's outcomes were also computed. This approach enables each viewer to gauge whether their results in a specific category fall above or below average probabilities. This analysis encompassed standard deviations and standard errors for a comprehensive assessment.

Consequently, the viewer's individual results can be ranked and assessed based on their level of accuracy in relation to the average statistical probability for a specific field of perception across all provided targets. This approach allows for the combination of more complex types involving multiple perception categories by multiplying various probabilities, encompassing statistical errors and deviations in the calculations.

Certain complex types were not explored in this report due to their time-consuming nature. These will be addressed in future projects and research proposals, as they hold the potential to form the founda-

tion for new theories and thesis topics. Furthermore, there is a need to enhance automation in the future, as the existing manual evaluation and scoring processes are notably time-consuming.

This analysis aims to determine the overall correctness of data in CRV sessions, using feedback that can be fully compared to the content of each session. While the results of this study provide a solid foundation for operational applications—notably in evaluating remote viewers and their strengths and weaknesses—the applied procedure does not substitute for operational analysis for two main reasons. First, in operational remote viewing, stages 1–3 only account for a small part of the total data gathering process, and CRV viewers typically work at least through stage 4, often continuing to stage 6. Second, operational applications focus on uncovering unknown information, which is not already present in the feedback used for this type of comparative analysis. Thus, while informative, the methods used here reflect the limits and context of experimental accuracy assessment rather than operational practice.

Limitations

This study is subject to several important limitations. First, the sample size is small, which constrains the statistical power and generalizability of the findings. Second, the study is limited to Category 1 targets—descriptions of locations with full feedback—which restricts the diversity of target types addressed; however, this is an intentional approach, designed as only the first step in a larger series of studies with progressively varied target categories, as outlined in the Appendix (see Section 1 for planned milestones and future phases). Third, data handling was performed manually using interim spreadsheet solutions rather than a finalized database, introducing additional opportunities for human error and making the process notably time-consuming. Finally, efforts to anonymize viewer and method information were challenged by inherent structural data features, meaning that neither the protocol variant nor the viewer could be fully anonymized in some evaluations. These limitations should be clearly considered when interpreting the study results and when designing future research that will expand on these foundations.

Results

The foundational structural concepts of the original Coordinated Remote Viewing (Swann/Puthoff approach) as documented in the two official CRV Manuals (McNear, 1985; Smith, 1986), upon which today's CRV is built, proved applicable to a range of remote viewing sessions, including unstructured "free-form" remote viewing such as Generic Remote Viewing (GRV) and Extended Remote Viewing (ERV) in the evaluation matrix that was created for this study. (See appendix B for an overview and explanation of RV methods).

Based on the analysis of various sessions during the testing and creation phase of the evaluation matrix for this study, we found that with this evaluation approach remote viewing data from every session, regardless of the method, can be indexed, provided the session transcripts include written descriptions and/or sketches in a clearly traceable chronological order. It was our primary goal to generate an evaluation method that can be applied universally to remote viewing sessions, providing a solid foundation for future projects. Sessions originating from other methods, however, were not included in the results of this study.

Overall Correctness (Hypothesis 1)

The hypothesis that at least 50–80% of the information provided by the viewer within a session is correct has been confirmed. The average score for purely correct data is 67%. The assumed average overall score for sessions of 60–75% has been exceeded, with a value of almost 84%.

Multiple Data Correctness (Hypothesis 2)

We anticipated that multiple objectification of individual sensory impressions, especially within stage 2, will serve as indicators of the accuracy of these data. As a result, data classified as "correct" should exhibit a significantly higher frequency of being mentioned multiple times compared to data in the other categories.

It has been demonstrated that the multiple objectification of data is a significant indicator of data correctness. In total, 71% of all repeatedly mentioned data bits were correct, whereas only between 2–11% of the repetitions fell into the remaining four rating categories.

Individual Perception Profiles (Hypothesis 3)

The data strongly suggests the existence of individual perception profiles (the presence of individual preferences, strengths, and weaknesses in the different perceptual categories) that are unique to each viewer. Cumulative views of sensory data, categorized separately, reveal consistent patterns that vary between individual viewers.

Discussion and Conclusion

In the course of this study, we have developed a new and comprehensive methodology aimed at assessing not only the accuracy of remote viewing sessions but also at representing and comparing individual strengths, weaknesses, and profiles.

The development of the evaluation matrix proved to be the most critical factor in this work. Various issues and challenges that emerged during the analysis of sample sessions were addressed and resolved. These include the creation of the relevance score, sketch assessment, and a method for conducting a global comparison of data across different sessions using target-based lists of words to eliminate different attribution or scoring.

Some challenges are more difficult to overcome or may not be fully resolved. For instance, we attempted to anonymize the viewers to mitigate potential bias towards the viewers or methods. However, it became evident that the method used cannot be anonymized effectively due to the clear data structure, which readily indicates the variant of the working protocol that has been used.

This research serves as a foundational work that not only paves the way for the planned exploration of the higher stages of a session but also provides a basis for countless future research fields. These fields will delve into the functionality of RV protocols and investigate the underlying principles of the working method, addressing numerous unanswered questions.

As a result of this work, two tools are introduced that, in particular, may be of interest to viewers and project managers/analysts in the future, independently of research purposes:

Individual and cumulative session profiles, derived from the average of scored sessions, offer a means of assessing viewers' personal strengths and weaknesses objectively, facilitating comparisons of individual performance with that of other viewers, and revealing distinctive patterns associated with specific methods. This tool not only enhances the practice of remote viewing but also has the potential to reshape the way we approach its analysis and evaluation in the future, offering valuable resources for operational applications.

Perception Profiles offers viewers the ability to gauge their own perceptions and abilities by comparing their results with the benchmark of all recorded sessions. By providing viewers with a clear perception profile, this tool becomes invaluable for those who seek to employ remote viewers.

Both tools aid in the selection of viewers by offering a means of evaluating and comparing their performance against the collective average of all recorded sessions. This could function as a screening mechanism to evaluate the potential of individual remote viewers for operational work. Thus, these tools serve as essential resources for individuals and project managers looking to hire remote viewers, ensuring that they can make informed decisions about viewer selection, ultimately contributing to the overall quality and effectiveness of remote viewing sessions. Additionally, these tools play a significant role in enhancing public perception regarding the reliability of remote viewing as a working method. Viewers can now demonstrate a serious evaluation of their work, moving beyond mere utilization of sample sessions and individual assertions. This advancement adds a level of credibility to the field and is likely to strengthen the trust in remote viewing as a valuable and dependable methodology.

The solid scientific foundation has long been a defining feature that sets remote viewing apart from other modalities of psychic work. This project could contribute to the question of whether we can maintain the "original" essence—the underlying principles—of RV for the future. This essence is rooted in the mission to provide critical insights into the realm of the unknown, which remains challenging or impossible to access through conventional investigative methods in operational contexts.

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Investigación sobre la Corrección de Registros Individuales de Datos en Sesiones de Visión Remota Controlada (CRV)

Resumen: Este estudio busca mejorar la evaluación de las sesiones de visión remota, centrándose específicamente en la metodología de Visión Remota Controlada (CRV), con el objetivo principal de desarrollar un método para analizar los datos cualitativamente. Los objetivos del estudio incluyen comprender la corrección de los datos individuales dentro de las sesiones de visión remota, categorizar y evaluar puntos de datos individuales, y poner a prueba hipótesis relacionadas con la corrección de los datos, su relevancia y los perfiles de percepción individuales. La corrección se cuantifica mediante la atribución de diferentes categorías combinada con una evaluación graduada de la corrección. El enfoque utiliza "objetivos calibrados" que proporcionan retroalimentación detallada a través de múltiples canales sensoriales y una asignación de tarea con coordenadas y marcas temporales específicas.

Las mediciones revelaron una precisión promedio de los datos del 84% en las sesiones, con un 67% de los datos absolutamente correctos. Ambos valores superaron las expectativas. Adicionalmente, el estudio demuestra la aplicabilidad de los conceptos estructurales fundamentales del enfoque de CRV original para

evaluar diversos tipos de sesiones de visión remota, no limitadas únicamente a CRV. Los hallazgos revelan, además, que los datos correctos tienen mayor probabilidad de ser mencionados múltiples veces dentro de una sesión, con un 71% de los datos objetivados múltiples siendo correctos. El estudio introduce un método gráfico para visualizar los resultados de las sesiones y calcular perfiles individuales de percepción de los videntes, revelando patrones distintos de percepción a través de diversos canales sensoriales.

Este proyecto sienta las bases para futuras investigaciones dentro del campo, introduciendo una herramienta innovadora que también promete utilidad práctica más allá de la investigación, para aplicación operativa. Los perfiles individuales y acumulativos de las sesiones proporcionan medios objetivos para evaluar las fortalezas y debilidades de los videntes y ofrecen un punto de referencia al comparar sus resultados con todas las sesiones registradas.

Palabras clave: *visión remota, Visión Remota Controlada (CRV), evaluación de datos, corrección de datos, relevancia de datos, análisis cualitativo, perfiles de percepción del vidente, punto de referencia de sesión.*

Untersuchung der Korrektheit von einzelnen Datenaufzeichnungen in Controlled-Remote-Viewing-Sessions

Zusammenfassung: Diese Studie bezweckt, die Auswertung von Remote-Viewing-Sessions zu verbessern, wobei der Schwerpunkt insbesondere auf der Methodik des Controlled Remote Viewing (CRV) liegt. Das vorrangige Bestreben besteht darin, eine Methode zur qualitativen Analyse der Daten zu entwickeln. Zu den Zielen der Studie gehören das Erkennen der Korrektheit einzelner Daten innerhalb von Remote-Viewing-Sessions, die Kategorisierung und Bewertung einzelner Datenpunkte sowie die Überprüfung von Hypothesen hinsichtlich der Datenrichtigkeit, der Relevanz und der individuellen Wahrnehmungsprofile. Die Korrektheit wird durch die Zuordnung zu verschiedenen Kategorien in Kombination mit einer abgestuften Bewertung der Richtigkeit quantifiziert. Der Ansatz umfasst „kalibrierte Targets“, die ein detailliertes Feedback über mehrere Sinneskanäle hinweg liefern und mit spezifischen Koordinaten und Zeitstempeln versehen sind.

Die Messungen ergaben eine durchschnittliche Datengenauigkeit innerhalb der Sessions von 84 %, wobei 67 % der Daten absolut korrekt waren. Beide Werte übertrafen die Erwartungen. Darüber hinaus demonstriert die Studie die Anwendbarkeit grundlegender struktureller Konzepte aus dem ursprünglichen CRV-Ansatz zur Bewertung verschiedener Arten von Remote-Viewing-Sessions, die nicht auf CRV selbst beschränkt sind. Die Ergebnisse zeigen ferner, dass korrekte Daten mit höherer Wahrscheinlichkeit mehrfach innerhalb einer Session erwähnt werden, wobei 71 % der mehrfach objektivierten Daten korrekt sind. Die Studie führt eine grafische Methode zur Visualisierung der Ergebnisse der Sessions ein und berechnet individuelle Wahrnehmungsprofile der Viewer, wodurch sich unterschiedliche Wahrnehmungsmuster über verschiedene Sinneskanäle hinweg zeigen.

Dieses Projekt legt den Grundstein für zukünftige Untersuchungen auf diesem Gebiet und führt ein innovatives Instrument ein, das über den Forschungsbereich hinaus auch praktischen Nutzen für den operativen Einsatz verspricht. Individuelle und kumulative Sessions-Profile bieten objektive Möglichkeiten zur Bewertung der Stärken und Schwächen der Viewer und dienen als Richtwerte, indem ihre Ergebnisse mit allen aufgezeichneten Sessions verglichen werden.

Schlüsselbegriffe: *Remote Viewing, Controlled Remote Viewing (CRV), Datenauswertung, Datenkorrektheit, Datenrelevanz, qualitative Analyse, Wahrnehmungsprofile der Viewer, Session-Richtwert*

Investigation de l'exactitude d'enregistrements de données uniques dans le cadre de sessions de Remote viewing contrôlé (CRV)

Résumé : Cette étude vise à améliorer l'évaluation des séances de remote viewing, en se concentrant plus particulièrement sur la méthodologie du remote viewing contrôlé (CRV), avec pour objectif principal de développer une méthode d'analyse qualitative des données. Les objectifs de l'étude comprennent la compréhension de l'exactitude des données individuelles au sein des séances de vision à distance, la catégorisation et l'évaluation des points de données individuels, ainsi que la vérification d'hypothèses relatives à l'exactitude des données, à leur pertinence et aux profils de perception individuels. L'exactitude est quantifiée par l'attribution de différentes catégories, combinée à une évaluation graduée de l'exactitude. L'approche implique des « cibles calibrées » fournissant un retour d'information détaillé via plusieurs canaux sensoriels et des tâches comportant des coordonnées et des horodatages spécifiques.

Les mesures ont révélé une précision moyenne des données au sein des séances de 84 %, 67 % des données étant absolument correctes. Ces deux valeurs ont dépassé les attentes. De plus, l'étude démontre l'applicabilité des concepts structurels fondamentaux de l'approche CRV originale pour évaluer divers types de sessions de remote viewing, sans se limiter à la CRV elle-même. Les résultats révèlent en outre que les données correctes sont plus susceptibles d'être mentionnées plusieurs fois au cours d'une session, 71 % des données objectivées multiples étant correctes. L'étude présente une méthode graphique pour visualiser les résultats des sessions et calcule les profils de perception individuels des observateurs, révélant des schémas de perception distincts à travers divers canaux sensoriels.

Ce projet jette les bases de futures recherches dans ce domaine, en introduisant un outil innovant qui promet également une utilité pratique au-delà de la recherche, pour des applications opérationnelles. Les profils de session individuels et cumulatifs fournissent des moyens objectifs d'évaluer les forces et les faiblesses des remote viewers et offrent un repère en comparant leurs résultats à l'ensemble des sessions enregistrées.

Mots-clés : *remote viewing, remote viewing contrôlé (CRV), évaluation des données, exactitude des données, pertinence des données, analyse qualitative, profils de perception des remote viewers, repère de session.*

Appendix A

Future Project Milestones

This project was designed as the initial step in a series of five experiment series, each progressively representing varying levels of difficulty in the application of remote viewing sessions, represented by different categories of targets. Based on using Targets with (almost) full feedback ("calibrated targets") these five phases are:

Table A1: Target Categories for Experimental Series

Target Type	Minimum training level required (CRV stages equivalent)	Target Category
Description of places (site description)	Stage 1–3	1
Accessing people (with permission)	Stage 4 or higher	2
Description of events	Stage 4–6	3
Details, technical elements, processes	Stage 4–6	4
Abstract/non-physical targets, concepts	Stage 4–6	5

Before proceeding with further work, it will be necessary to implement the designed database, as the sheer volume of data exceeds the processing capabilities of current means. Initial steps toward this have already been taken. Additionally, the challenge arises that as the planned categories become more complex, the number of available viewers capable of adequately handling these tasks decreases. For some categories, it will be necessary to prepare the selected pool of viewers for data collection by providing them with specific training tailored to the requirements.

Assuming that the personnel and financial foundations are secured, one can anticipate a processing duration of approximately 4–5 years for the completion of the study series.

Follow-up Studies (Collection of Possible Future Research Objectives)

In the future, it is conceivable to provide access to the data for other researchers who may wish to investigate their own research questions. The database, therefore, provides the opportunity to continue research in the field of remote viewing and promote interdisciplinary collaborations. The collected volume of data both from this study as well as from further continuing work can subsequently be used to investigate various questions. Some potential research objectives that have arisen during the course of the study are listed below.

1. Since it has been established that multiple mentions of data are an indicator of correctness, it would be interesting to determine whether the occurrence or allowance/possibility of multiple mentions (which varies between methods) also influences the overall correctness of sessions.
2. Is there a difference in the average correctness of perceptions in different sensory perceptual channels, e.g., colors vs. qualities of light, dimensionals vs. tactiles?
3. Does the accuracy of the data change with viewer experience, or does the specificity of data change, or both?
4. An interesting research question for the future would be to investigate whether, after hidden/undeclared AOLs, the frequency of incorrect data, AOL drives, or similar phenomena increases.
5. Can we identify main influencing factors or elements that have an effect on accuracy, e.g., the subjective "attractiveness" of the target, AOL and AI handling, preparation or cooldown methods, choice of RV method, biorhythm/time/sidereal time, perception types?
6. Is there a training effect correlated to accuracy?

7. Does the hit accuracy change as the remote viewing session progresses into higher stages?
8. What is the impact of time coordinates compared to spatial coordinates on data accuracy?
9. Is there a difference in data accuracy when the same viewer uses different remote viewing methods?
10. Does map dowsing yield better results if conducted directly after a remote viewing session on the intended target?
11. Do "natural psychics" achieve higher scores than trained or method-based viewers?
12. Does the act of sketching improve the quality of the data gathered during remote viewing sessions, and which types of sketches are most important?
13. Is out-of-structure data (e.g., stage-4 concepts in earlier stages) more likely to be correct or not?
14. A repetition of the evaluation at a later point in time with a larger data set is useful especially with regard to the replication problem (Walach et al., 2021).

Furthermore, we can aim to address some of the prevalent myths and legends surrounding RV, including:

1. Whether a viewer's performance decreases after 45–60 minutes.
2. The idea claimed by some practitioners that data must be produced in less than 4 seconds to avoid analytical "left-brain" data.
3. Whether conducting multiple sessions in a row (or on the same day) enhances or decreases performance in the latter sessions.
4. The impact of "operational frontloading" ("legally blind" viewing) on session quality.

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Appendix B

Remote Viewing Methods Overview

To provide clarity on the relationships among established remote viewing methodologies, the following chart (Figure 19) presents a genealogy of major protocols and training systems as referenced in this study. Over several decades, the civil remote viewing community has created a series of methodological refinements, name changes, and derivative systems.

While foundational methods such as Controlled Remote Viewing (CRV) have remained largely unchanged and continue to be taught in their original form, several alternative approaches—including Technical Remote Viewing (TRV), Scientific Remote Viewing (SRV), and TransDimensional Systems (TDS)—have emerged, each claiming distinctive features or emphases. These related methods are best understood as

branches that share a common origin and similar core concepts, rather than as sequential improvements; their status as independent systems often reflects the perspectives of individual developers or schools rather than consensus within the field. It is important to note that after several generations of reinterpretation and adaptation, some modern offshoots share little practical or conceptual commonality with the original protocols, having diverged significantly over time in both concept and understanding.

The foundational CRV approach, developed in the early 1980s as a structured, multi-stage training system for non-psychic personnel, introduced the core ideas of stages, column-based layout, and defined terminology for concepts such as Analytical Overlay that many later systems adopted. Subsequent methods trace their lineage back to CRV, primarily modifying terminology, emphasis, and commercial framing rather than altering the underlying structure in a fundamentally new way.

In addition to this lineage, several other methods emerged that trace back to unknown origins or were developed from a personal understanding of remote viewing without previous formal training in other methods.

The top part of the following chart shows methods used before 1995, including remote viewing research at SRI and the training and practical application within the military remote viewing unit at Ft. Meade, MD (Star Gate program). Chronologically before and parallel to CRV, other methods such as Generic Remote Viewing (GRV), Extended Remote Viewing (ERV) and Written Remote Viewing (WRV) were in use by remote viewers in the program.

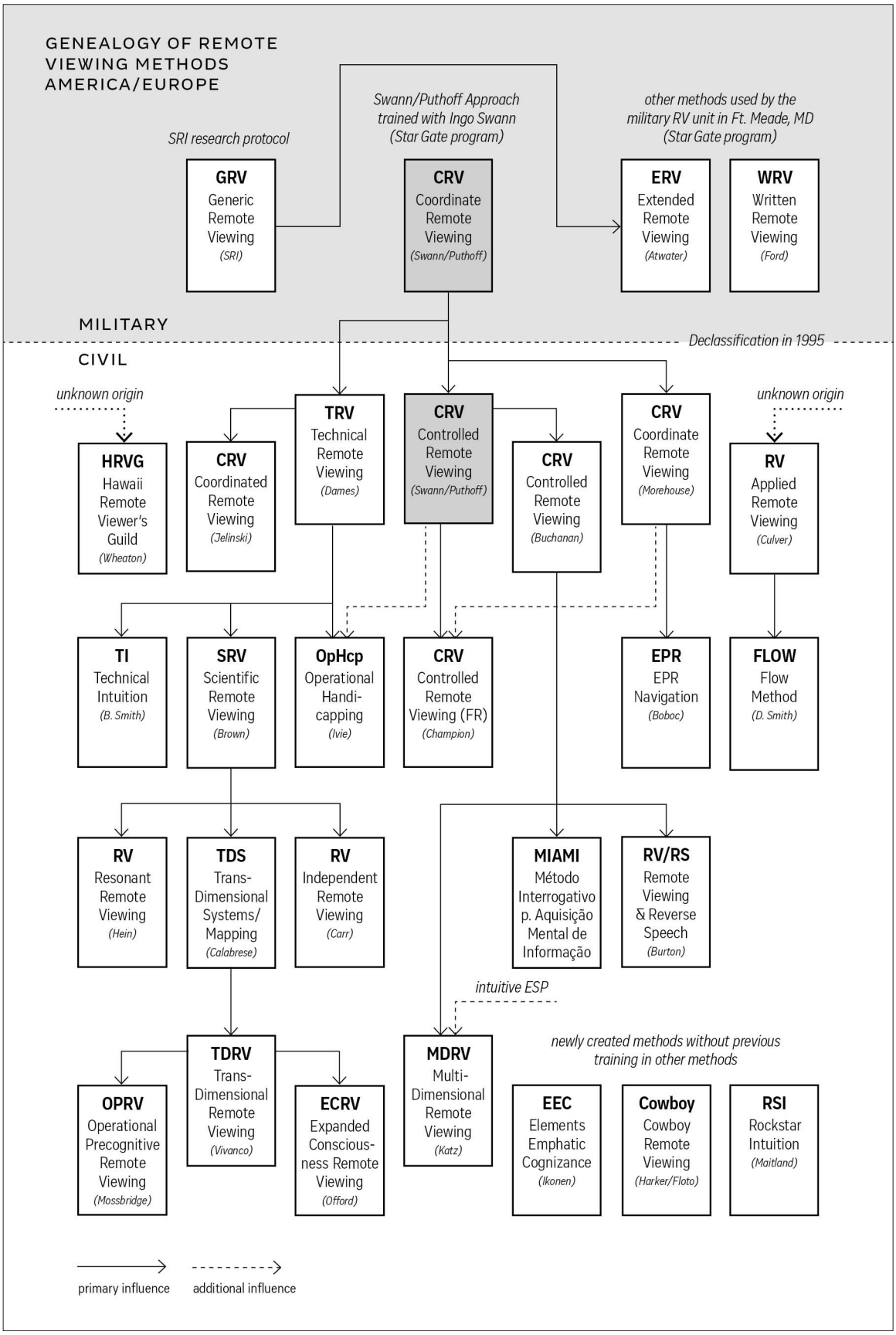
GRV refers to the unstructured method practiced at SRI before the development of CRV. In GRV, the viewer was guided by an interviewer, making sketches and writing words during the session. Even if not formally named at the time, fundamental concepts such as AOL ("describe, don't name") and blinding protocols were developed and applied, and were later included into CRV's methods and terminology.

ERV is derived from GRV and refers specifically to the technique applied by Frederick H. "Skip" Atwater for the military remote viewing unit at Ft. Meade, where the viewer reported to the monitor with eyes closed (while audio was recorded) and created sketches and a narrative only after the session.

While both methods differ considerably from the more conscious practice of CRV, they all adhere to the 12 general principles of remote viewing (Rogge, 2025), and can therefore be understood collectively as a group of RV methodologies.

WRV was introduced at Ft. Meade by a viewer who used a combination of channeling and automatic writing together with some of the RV elements. Although referred to as remote viewing at that time, we do not consider this form as part of the RV group as outlined above, since some characteristics do not match the 12 remote viewing principles, and it is not known to have influenced the development of subsequent civilian methods.

Figure 19: Genealogy of Main Remote Viewing Methods in America and Europe before and after 1995



Note. The year 1995 marks a turning point in the development of RV methods, as previously classified remote viewing research and

programs were declassified, and the training of civilians by some former military remote viewers began. In the years that followed, new methods were developed by students of these different approaches, each incorporating their own understanding or adding changes based on individual emphasis and working styles. The chart shows the genealogy, but not necessarily the chronological sequence of developments in relation to each other.

The name "Coordinate Remote Viewing" was changed to "Controlled Remote Viewing" in 1996 at the request of Ingo Swann (see Introduction section).

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A Conceptual Replication and Extension of William G. Roll's Database of Reported Cases of the "Poltergeist"/RSPK-Type: Preliminary Survey

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Abstract: In the late 1970s, William G. Roll had compiled and conducted a survey of a database of 116 cases of the "poltergeist"/RSPK-type spanning the period from 1612 to 1974. Here we report our efforts to conceptually replicate this database by reconstructing it in digital form almost entirely from the ground up, and then extending its coverage up to the end of 2021. A preliminary analytical survey of this extended database of 212 cases is also presented, which yielded several findings consistent with Roll's original survey, as well as being in line with the results of two other subsequent case surveys. This relative consistency across surveys suggests that further in-depth study of spontaneous cases of the "poltergeist"/RSPK-type using a more systematic approach would be worth pursuing.

Keywords: *anomalous experience, poltergeist, recurrent spontaneous psychokinesis (RSPK), spontaneous case research, anomalous episodic communal kinetic occurrence (AECKO)*

Author Note: We would like to express our gratitude to Blynne Olivieri-Parker, Catherine Hendricks, and the staff of the Ingram Library Special Collections at the University of West Georgia for their helpful assistance in facilitating our manual search of the W. G. Roll Papers archive. Appreciation goes to the late PRF President Jerry Conser for his support and help in arranging our visit to the university. Thanks must also go to Loyd Auerbach and Wolfgang Fach for supplying further case information. We also thank Lise Roll-Pettersson, Leif Roll, and William G. Roll III for their continuing encouragement and support of our effort to carry on their father's work. Support received for this study from the BIAL Foundation under Grant No. 387/20 is also gratefully acknowledged.

Spontaneous cases of the "poltergeist"- or recurrent spontaneous psychokinesis (RSPK)[1] -type are characterized by a series of ostensibly anomalous macro-scale physical disturbances which occur sporadically and tend to be closely clustered in time (Edge et al., 1986, p. 43; Thalbourne, 2003, pp. 89 & 106). Accounts of such disturbances – some reaching as far back as 355 A.D. – have most commonly included witnessing objects of various sizes being set into motion without direct physical contact, and hearing a range of spontaneously-arising knocks, taps, thuds, booms, and other odd percussive sounds (e.g., Auerbach, 2004; Barrett, 1911; Bayless, 1967; Bender, 1969, 1974; Carrington & Fodor, 1951; Carvalho, 1992;

Cox, 1961; Fodor, 1958; Gauld & Cornell, 1979; Goss, 1979; Huesmann & Schriever, 1989/2022; Lang, 1903; Owen, 1964a; Puhle, 1999, 2001; Rogo, 1979/1990, 1986; Roll, 1972/2004, 1977a; Sitwell, 1940; Thurston, 1954; Zorab, 1964).

In an effort initiated four decades ago to search for the underlying processes involved in such disturbances, William G. Roll (1926 – 2012) constructed a database of 116 cases of the "poltergeist"/RSPK-type compiled from accounts published within the parapsychological and psychical research literature spanning the period from 1612 to 1974. His subsequent analytical survey of this database – broadly reported across four separate but related articles (Roll, 1977a, 1977b, 1978a, 1978b) – had found preliminary indications that "poltergeist"/RSPK-type phenomena do tend to exhibit various patterns, features, and characteristics of a psychosocial, neurological, and/or physical nature. But in the decades that have passed, have any of Roll's survey findings remained fairly robust over time?

This was one of the things that we wondered about in discussions we began holding in the winter of 2019 – 2020, which were aimed at finding a way to build upon Roll's work and move the study of "poltergeist"/RSPK-type cases forward. But we soon realized there was a problem: Not all of the content and source data originally utilized by Roll in his database (apart from the few sources he cited in the text of his four articles) could be readily identified. None of the four articles gave a complete listing and sources of all 116 cases in his database, and no other written record could be located in the published literature. G.F.S. recalled from his days working at the Psychical Research Foundation (PRF) in the 1970s that Roll had once constructed and maintained a large poster displaying a detailed table of these cases, but previous attempts he made to search for and recover this poster from the W. G. Roll Papers archive held in the Ingram Library Special Collections at the University of West Georgia were unsuccessful.

Thus, we realized that it would be necessary for us to conduct a conceptual replication of Roll's work by trying to reconstruct (as close as feasibly possible) the content of Roll's original database almost entirely from the ground up, and that this would have to entail some degree of logical deduction on our part. We further realized that our effort to recreate Roll's original database would also give us the opportunity to extend its coverage up to the present time, adding cases that have been reported in the parapsychological literature since 1974.

In addition to carrying on Roll's work, our objective to achieve a broad synthesis of the currently available data on "poltergeist"/RSPK-type cases would serve another valuable purpose in providing data to help guide the conceptual development and testing of a new systems theoretic-based methodological approach for identifying a specific sub-type of spontaneous case of the "poltergeist"/RSPK-type that meets certain criteria referred to in short-hand by the acronym *anomalous episodic communal kinetic occurrence* (AECKO, pronounced "echo"), coined by G.F.S. (see Auerbach et al., 2023; Solfvin, 2021; and Solfvin & Williams, 2021, for brief overviews).

Here we report the details of our joint effort to generate this newly reconstructed and extended database in digital form, along with an analytical survey that (for reasons of brevity) is purposely kept preliminary and basic. A case survey of broader analytical scope, as well as other uses of the extended database in the development of the AECKO approach, will be reported separately in additional reports to come.

Method

To begin forming a foundational framework for conceptually replicating and extending Roll's original database, we re-examined the set of four survey articles initially published by Roll (1977a, 1977b, 1978a, 1978b) in order to develop a general idea of the specific case range, selection criteria, and categorical parameters that Roll had utilized for his database. Our aim was to refine these and utilize them again as necessary for guiding the reconstruction and extension of the database in a way that would remain fairly consistent with Roll's original approach.

Case Range

The range of cases examined by Roll in his original database had spanned four defined temporal periods (before 1850, 1850 – 1899, 1900 – 1949, 1950 – 1974), with each containing totals of 19, 25, 38, & 34 cases, respectively. From examining the text citations and references contained in his set of survey articles, we were able to inferentially identify 9 (47%), 17 (68%), 14 (37%), & 30 (88%) of the cases that Roll had likely included in his database from each period, respectively, starting with the earliest case: the "Devil of Mascon" case of 1612 (Perrault, 1658/1879; Thurston, 1954, Ch. 4).

Beyond this, in the lack of a fuller case listing, reconstruction of the remainder of the case content would require using a degree of logical deduction, as mentioned. Guidance on how to compile the remaining content was thus based on the following:

- Our attempt to conceptually replicate the number of cases contained in each temporal period of Roll's original database would follow the case totals given by Roll for each period, with relative success being determined by our own case numbers either meeting or exceeding those totals;
- The inclusion of cases would follow the selection criteria utilized by Roll, with some slight refinement (see the next sub-section);
- The 1612 "Devil of Mascon" case would also mark the start of our reconstructed and extended database. In addition to remaining consistent with Roll's own approach, this decision was made because although there are a number of other cases of the "poltergeist"/RSPK-type which predate this one (Carrington & Fodor, 1951, pp. 21 – 23; Gauld & Cornell, 1979, Ch. 2), the accounts of these earlier cases were often written in an allegorical, occultist, and/or semi-religious manner, making it difficult to clearly sort fact from (potentially embellished) folklore in descriptions given of the ostensibly anomalous events (Davidson & Duffin, 2012; Owen, 1964b).

To expand the range of cases up to the present time, we added a fifth temporal period to the database, spanning from 1975 (starting where Roll's original database had ended) on up to the end of 2021.

Case Identification and Retrieval

To locate and obtain cases in the literature for possible inclusion in the extended database, we first identified and collected several English-language bibliographic and archival library sources relating to spontaneous cases in parapsychology and psychical research for case query. Primary sources were the ref-

erence lists cited in Roll's (1977a, 1977b, 1978a, 1978b) four survey reports, as well as the cases cited in the surveys by Cox (1961) and Zorab (1964). Another primary source used for identifying any cases reported prior to 1975 that might have been overlooked in Roll's original database was the bibliography compiled by Goss (1979), containing an extensive listing of case reports published in English from circa 1880 to 1975. Sources for international cases and studies originally published in languages other than English, and which have now either been translated or summarized in English, included Alvarado (1984, 1985); Amorim (1990); Barrington (2011, 2012); Bugaj (1996a, 1996b); Carvalho (1992); Dasher (1931); Evrard (2019); Fach (2011); Flammarion (1924); Huesmann and Schriever (1989/2022); Leaf (1897); Machado and Zangari (2000); Ostrzycka and Rymuszko (1989/2023); Perrault (1658/1879); Walther (1931); and Zorab (1964). Additional online bibliographic sources used to further identify cases were "PF Bibliography No. 17 – Poltergeists" compiled by Alvarado (2000) and Section 9 ("Hauntings and Poltergeists") of the Society for Psychical Research (SPR)'s online Research Catalogue, 1884 – 2011 (https://www.spr.ac.uk/9-hauntings-and-poltergeists).

We also consulted print or digital copies of the following books or book chapters for case listings, as well as for reports of individual cases investigated by their respective author(s):

Saducismus Triumphatus (Glanvill, 1668/1680); *Lithobolia: or, the Stone-Throwing Devil* (Chamberlain, 1698/1914); *Bealings Bells* (Moor, 1841); *The Night Side of Nature* (Crowe, 1848); *Cock Lane and Common-Sense* (Lang, 1894); *The Book of Dreams and Ghosts* (Lang, 1897); *On the Threshold of the Unseen* (Barrett, 1918); *Haunted Houses* (Flammarion, 1924); *Ghosts and Apparitions* (W. H. Salter, 1938); *Poltergeists* (Sitwell, 1940); *Haunted People* (Carrington & Fodor, 1951); *Ghosts and Poltergeists* (Thurston, 1954); *On the Trail of the Poltergeist* (Fodor, 1958); *Four Modern Ghosts* (Dingwall & Hall, 1958); *Can We Explain the Poltergeist?* (Owen, 1964a); *Between Two Worlds* (Fodor, 1964); *The Enigma of the Poltergeist* (Bayless, 1967); *The Unexplained* (MacKenzie, 1970); "Modern Poltergeist Research" (Bender, 1974); *The Link* (Manning, 1974); *Poltergeists* (Gauld & Cornell, 1979); *The Poltergeist Experience* (Rogo, 1979/1990); *On the Track of the Poltergeist* (Rogo, 1986); *The Hidden Powers of Nature* (Cassirer, 2001); *Investigating the Paranormal* (Cornell, 2002); *Unleashed* (Roll & Storey, 2004); *Hauntings & Poltergeists* (Auerbach, 2004); *A Paranormal Casebook* (Auerbach, 2005); *Australian Poltergeist* (Healy & Cropper, 2014); *The World's Most Haunted House* (Hall, 2014); *N = 1: Case Studies in Anomalistics* (Mayer, 2019); *Poltergeist!* (Fraser, 2020)

Manual and electronic searches were made of the following English-language journals and periodicals as available through regional library access, our own personal holdings, and digitized volumes uploaded to the International Association for the Preservation of Spiritualist and Occult Periodicals (IAPSOP; https://www.iapsop.com) online archive and the Library of Exploratory Science (Lexscien; https://www.lexscien.org/lexscien/index.jsp) using the filtering search terms *poltergeist*, *recurrent spontaneous psychokinesis, RSPK, macroscopic psychokinesis:*

Annals of Psychical Science (1905 – 1909); *Australian Journal of Parapsychology* (2016 – Present); *European Journal of Parapsychology* (1975 – 2010); *International Journal of Parapsychology* (1959 – 1968, 2000 – 2001); *Journal of Parapsychology* (1937 – present); *Journal of Scientific Exploration* (1987 – present); *Journal of the American Society for Psychical Research* (1886 – 1964, 1968, 1970 – 2002); *Journal of the Society for Psychical Research* (1882 – present); *Light: A Journal of Psychical, Occult, and Mystical Research* (March 19, 1881; February 2, 1895; January 11, 1896; October 7, 1899; July 9, 1904; September

24, 1910; October 22, 1910; January 26, 1934; February 2, 1934; July 27, 1934); *Occult Review* (November 1905, April 1907, March 1910, May 1911, October 1919); *New Horizons: Journal of the New Horizons Research Foundation* (1972 – 1978); *Parapsychology Bulletin* (1950 – 1959); *Proceedings of the American Society for Psychical Research* (1885 – 1952); *Proceedings of the Parapsychological Association* (1968, 1991, 2003 – 2012); *Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research* (1882 – 2011); *Psychic Science: Quarterly Transactions of the British College of Psychic Science* (October 1922, January 1923, July 1925, October 1925, October 1928, July 1935); *Research in Parapsychology* (1972 – 1993); *The Psi Researcher/ Paranormal Review* (1991 – 2017); *The Two Worlds* (December 23, 1887; June 6, 1890; August 2, 1929); *Theta: The Journal of the Psychical Research Foundation* (1963 – 1971, 1975 – 1976, 1980 – 1990)

Lastly, to identify and locate any cases received and/or investigated by Roll that may have gone unpublished, we undertook a manual search of the holdings of the William G. Roll Papers archive (MS-0014) located in the Special Collections section of the Ingram Library at the University of West Georgia in Carrollton, Georgia (USA) during a two-week on-site visit made from April 16 – 28, 2023.

Case Selection Criteria

One of Roll's (1977b) original survey articles indicated that he had two main criteria for determining which published case reports were of sufficient quality for inclusion in his original database, which were rather subjective:

1. Reports had to have been given "...by persons held to be serious and truthful by their contemporaries" (p. 48).
2. "...the authors [of a given case report], or persons they have interviewed, must have witnessed at least one incident which convinced them they were dealing with psi and which remains convincing in the telling" (p. 48).

For present purposes of forming an updated version of the database, we decided that these inclusion criteria should be expanded with a more specific description of the type of cases being sought. Cases for inclusion must clearly describe a series (or a cluster) of physical events/disturbances that, in the witness' view, "...is believed to deviate from ordinary experience or from usually accepted explanations of reality" (Cardeña et al., 2014, p. 4). By *physical*, it is specifically meant that the events/disturbances seemed to be *kinetic* in nature, involving a potentially measurable release of some type of "force" which had brought about physical displacement and/or set a target object into motion.

This physical criterion helped minimize the potential confound of mixing in "haunt"-type cases, which (among other distinguishing features) can be considered subtly distinct from "poltergeist"/RSPK-type cases in that the phenomena reported in haunts tend to be more non-physical, often involving hallucinatory or illusory subjective sensory experiences (e.g., Auerbach, 2004; Dingwall & Hall, 1958, pp. 14 – 15; Edge et al., 1986, p. 25; Gauld & Cornell, 1979, p. 17; Rogo, 1986, Ch. 6; Roll, 1972/2004, Appendix; Roll, 1977a, p. 399; Williams & Ventola, 2011, Sect. 5).

In addition, some other inclusion/exclusion criteria were also decided upon:

- In certain cases, the reported phenomena were comprised solely of percussive noises (e.g., Cassirer,

2001, Ch. 1; Colvin, 2008; Dasher, 1931; Lamb, Gauld, & Cornell, 1973a; Wijk, 1905) or flashes of light (e.g., Roll, 1972/2004, Ch. 6). Such cases are faced with the issue that these phenomena could either be objective (i.e., due to some external physical source) or subjective (i.e., hallucinatory or illusory) in nature (Rhine, 1963), and so to determine their eligibility for database inclusion, the phenomena were judged here as to their *estimated probable objective physicality* based on the added criterion of their reportedly *having been heard or seen by at least two or more observers.* If this criterion was met in a given case, then for present purposes, the phenomena were judged more likely to be objective (and not purely subjective), and the case was deemed eligible for inclusion in the database.

- Cases which consist only of single witness accounts were excluded because they cannot be independently corroborated and possible instances of subjective hallucination or misperception are unable to be ruled out with a fair degree of confidence (e.g., Betty, 1984; Haines, 1991; West, 1947).

- Cases for which there is only a few letters, a few popular newspaper articles, or a media account were excluded because they tend to be somewhat sensationalized and/or may be incomplete or otherwise lacking in crucial detail (e.g., full durational length of phenomena, reporting of the psychosocial situation). Exceptions are certain historic or high-profile cases described by Bayless (1967), Flammarion (1924), Thurston (1954), Ostrzycka and Rymuszko (1989/2023), Healey and Cropper (2014), and Evrard (2019), for which they were often able to trace the rough sequence of events and a number of other details through multiple accounts provided in archival newspaper coverage.

- Certain cases which seem to have a fair amount of popular cultural folklore or mythology built around them were excluded because it can be difficult in such cases to clearly sort out fact from potential myth, folklore, or embellishment in the accounts given of the ostensibly anomalous events (e.g., Carrington, 1913, Ch. 8; Hubbell, 1916; Hudson & McCarter, 1934; Ingram, 1894; Nickell, 2014; Prince, 1919; Thurston, 1954, Ch. 16, Case 4).

- Certain unpublished cases discovered in the W. G. Roll Papers archive were excluded either because documentation of the case was found to be incomplete and/or the case did not appear to have been fully investigated (consisting solely of initial telephone and/or letter correspondence between Roll and the experients), or there were indications that the case possibly had a conventional explanation (e.g., Roll, 1962, 1974; Roll & Jones, 1997).

- Some cases reported by a certain investigator were excluded on the basis of unresolved controversy (considerable differences of opinion regarding the genuineness of the case) and/or claims of possible questionable credibility or unreliability on the part of that investigator:

    - cases investigated by Harry Price (1926, 1945; Price & Kohn, 1930): for controversy and claims, see e.g., Coleman (1997); Dingwall, Goldney, and Hall (1956); Dingwall & Hall, 1958, Ch. 2; Gregory (1977); Hastings (1969); Morris (2007); Owen and Mitchell (1979); and H. Salter (1956);

    - one case investigated by Playfair and Grosse (1988; Playfair, 1980): for controversy, see e.g., Barrington (1983); Gregory (1980, 1981, 1982, 1983); Grosse (1981, 1983, 1997, 1998); Harris (1980, 1981); Hutchinson (1996, 1998); Morgan (2018); Nickell (2012); and Playfair (1981, 1998);

- one case investigated by Andrew Nichols (2000): for claims, see Miller (2019), Roll (2004), and Swirko (2020);
- one case described by Gower and Gower (2002) and investigated by Michael Daniels (2002): for controversy, see Daniels (2003) and Ruffles (2003, 2015, 2023);
- one case investigated by Alejandro Parra (2004): for claims, see Braude (2021), Cardeña (2021), and Nahm (2021).

The intent here of excluding cases by these investigators was not to pass judgment on them, but simply to help ensure that the updated database was comprised of relatively reliable data.

- Cases in which total (or deliberate) fraud was found (see the "Fraud" section in Table 1), or in which such fraud could not be reasonably excluded, were excluded from the database, although their numbers were retained in the total case count in order to assess the degree to which such fraud may be present.
- Cases consisting of multiple macro-scale physical events *not* closely clustered in time (e.g., Burgess, 2012) were excluded because they seemed to be better classified as cases of the *isolated spontaneous psychokinesis* (ISPK)-type (Thalbourne, 2003, p. 58), as originally defined by Cox (1961, p. 48) and Pratt and Roll (1958, p. 81).
- Cases referred to by Roll (1977a, p. 399) as *"haunting RSPK,"* which seemed to involve the potentially confounding situation of both "poltergeist"/RSPK-type and haunt phenomena occurring together to a roughly equal degree (also referred to as *intermediate cases* by Gauld & Cornell, 1979, Ch. 11; and *tandem cases* by Williams, 2020) were instead relegated to a separate database being compiled by B.J.W. specifically for such cases (e.g., Barrington, 1965, 1969, 1976; Fraser, 2020, Ch. 7; Griffing, 1910; Lamb, Gauld, & Cornell, 1973b; Osis & McCormick, 1982; Roll & Tringale, 1983; Taff & Gaynor, 1976). These included certain cases that were in Roll's (1977a, 1978a) original database: Cornell and Gauld (1960); McHarg (1973); Pierce (1973); Rosenberg (1974); Mathews and Solfvin (1977); and Solfvin and Mathews (1977). This was done to ensure that the updated database was comprised solely of relatively "pure" cases of the "poltergeist"/RSPK-type.

Table 1: Case Variables and Associated Sub-Variables

Variable	Details and Sub-Variables (Italics)
Geographic Distribution	Regions of the world in which "poltergeist"/RSPK-type cases have been reported
Temporal Duration	Average estimated length of time that the disturbances lasted (mean, median, & mode, measured in months, with one month = 30 days/4 weeks used as conversion factors), when temporal information was given in a case report

Inception Time	Approximate time of year (month) that the disturbances began, when given in a case report
PHYSICAL	
Types of Phenomena Reported	*Spontaneous movement* and/or *displacement of objects:* • were any of the movements/displacements *destructive* in nature (causing object breakage, damage, or malfunction in at least one instance)? *Percussive noises* (e.g., knocks, raps, taps, thuds, poundings, bangs, booms, snaps, crashes): • were any of the noises accompanied by a sense of physical *vibration?* • did any of the noises seem *intelligent* (e.g., produced/stopped on demand, provide "responses" to witness questions, seem to exhibit or follow a rhythmic pattern)? *Imitative noises:* hearing sounds which seem to imitate or mimic some aspect of human activity (e.g., footsteps, scratching/scraping, doors opening/closing, "flutterings" or "swishes" of clothing fabric) Phantom-like *voices* (includes instances of indistinct speech, whispering, singing, crying, screams/yells) • did the voices seem *intelligent*? Were *both* noises & object movements reported? Ostensible *apportation* or *teleportation:* instances in which an object spontaneously disappears from one area, then reappears later in the same or another area (includes ostensible penetration or "tunneling" of an object through solid matter) Ostensible *materialization:* instances of any object, water/liquid, or writing spontaneously appearing in an area, with its origin being unknown (also includes ostensible *dematerialization*, in which an object spontaneously disappears from an area and is not found or seen again) *Unusual lights:* visual appearance of lights or illumination not seemingly attributable to natural or electrical sources (does not include electrical disturbances or movement/displacement of lamps, light bulbs, or freestanding electrical lights) *Electrical/mechanical disturbances:* any erratic behavior or sudden malfunction of electrical or mechanical systems, electric lights/bulbs, machines, and/or electronic devices & appliances (does not include movement/displacement of such items). Also includes ostensible electric emissions ("shocks" or "arcs") from a focal person's body. *Spontaneous appearance of water* ranging from drops & small pools to odd inundations/floods & soakings *Spontaneous fires* or incineration of objects *Spontaneous appearance* and/or smearing *of feces* *Tactile sensations:* any subjective impressions of direct physical contact (e.g., touches, grabs, pulls, pushes, pokes, pinches, slaps, body lifting, "scratches") by an unseen source, which may sometimes be accompanied by the appearance of dermal marks or reddening of the skin

	Sensations of an external *opposing force or resistance* being applied to one's body, or to objects being moved by a witness (includes reports of sleep paralysis)
	Olfactory sensations: any spontaneous impressions of odd scents and odors which do not seem to have clear source
	Animals reportedly being attacked, annoyed, or behaviorally affected in some way by the disturbances (includes sudden unexplained animal deaths)
	Spontaneous ties, braids, and knots of hair, ribbons, string, rope, etc. (includes untying or unfastening of these binds)
	Writings or drawings spontaneously appearing on walls, floors, or pieces of paper
	Witnessing of *apparitions*
	Photographic effects: any instance of film prints or digital photographic images being oddly overexposed ("washed out"), underdeveloped ("darkies"), or containing anomalous forms/figures
Features of Affected Objects/Areas	*Object focusing:* tendency for a certain object (or type of object) to be moved/disturbed multiple times (only considers objects other than stones, to avoid an excessive and potentially inflated estimate due to a large number of lithobolia or "stone-throwing" reports)
	Area focusing: tendency for phenomena to be localized to a certain room or spatial area
	Both area & object focusing
	Did an object exhibit a motion to suggest that it was *skillfully thrown?* (e.g., object seemed to repeatedly hit a particular target spot to an accurate degree)
	Did an object seem to exhibit an *unusual trajectory* in its flight, fall, or movement, which seemed to be out of line with its expected kinematic motion under the observed circumstances? (e.g., instances in which objects were said to "hover"/"float" in the air, fall in a "zigzagging" pattern, move around sharp corners in mid-flight, or not cause injury or damage when that would be expected)
	Thermal change: any instance in which a.) a disturbed object is said to have felt hot/warm to the touch; or b.) the air temperature within a certain room or area suddenly felt colder/hotter than usual during manifestation of the phenomena
Outside Observers?	Were any of the disturbances directly witnessed by outside witnesses (types): • *First responders* (e.g., police officers/constables, firefighters, paramedics/EMTs) • *Social service & mental health professionals* (e.g., psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, counselors, clinicians) • *Scientists and physicians* (general label to include researchers and physicians who work or specialize in a non-mental health-related capacity) • *Clergy* (e.g., priests, nuns, rabbis, monks, church officials, exorcists) • *Government and military personnel* (e.g., judges, lawyers/barristers, soldiers, court officials, municipal workers, royal courtiers) • *Parapsychologists*, psychical researchers, or *members of organizations* dealing with psychic phenomena • *Other* types of outside witnesses • *Not specified* (in the case report)

PSYCHOLOGICAL

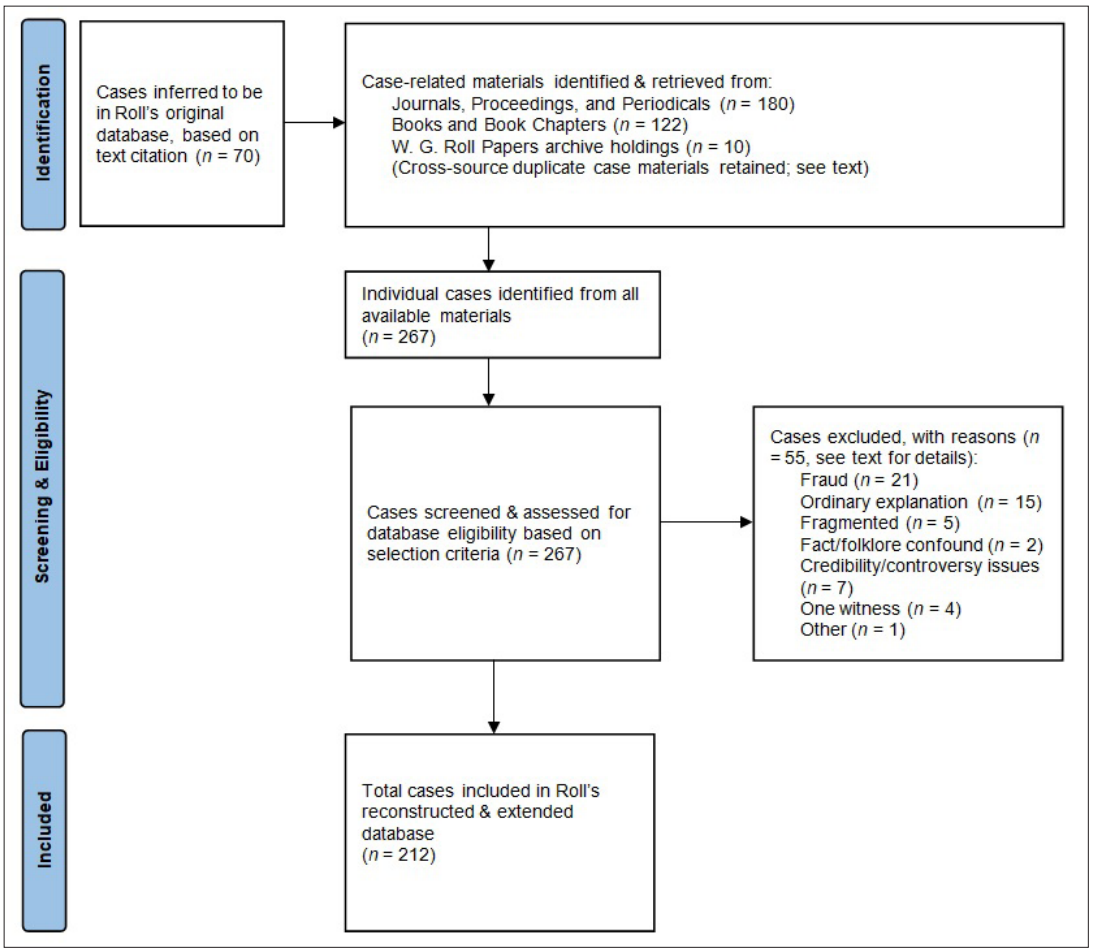
Presence of Focal Persons?	Was there one or more *focal persons* present (in time) or proximate during events in the case, who seemed to be the focus of the disturbances and/or in whose presence the disturbances seemed to most often occur? • Approximate *age* of focal person (mean, median, & range; for cases involving more than one focal person, the one seeming to be most closely associated with the phenomena was counted) • *Sex* of focal person
Multiple Focal Persons?	Were there any signs that the case might have involved multiple (two or more) focal persons?
Family Group	Did the disturbances take place in *a family home* setting (defined here as a residence for a group of biological and/or foster relations)? Was the family temporarily or permanently *forced to leave* the home setting due to the disturbances?
Adverse Psychosocial Situation?	Were there any signs of an adverse psychosocial situation existing among the suspected focal person(s) and/or their immediate family, communal, or social group during the course of the disturbances (e.g., dysfunctional relations, marital problems, grief/bereavement, excessive stress; Williams, 2019)?
Focal Person Health Issues?	Were there signs of any (physical or mental) health issues exhibited by the suspected focal person(s)?
Fraud	Two distinct types assessed (Cox, 1961, p. 50): • *Total* (or deliberate): Disturbances are all being deliberately faked or staged by those involved (either individually or in collusion) for purposes of deceit, sensationalism, and/or financial gain • *Imitative:* Focal person (or another individual) is caught throwing an object or staging a disturbance through ordinary means without clear signs of deceptive intent, typically at times when other seemingly genuine phenomena are declining or have ceased
Termination Efforts	Were any *exorcism/religious/spiritual rites* performed, and what effect (if any) did they have on the phenomena? • Did the rites seem to *fail?* (no apparent change in frequency or intensity of phenomena) • Did the rites seem to bring a period of *temporary relief* from the phenomena? • Did the rites seem to *intensify* the phenomena and/or increase its frequency? *Departure:* Did the phenomena cease when the focal person(s) or family permanently left or moved away to another home or location?

Database Construction and Variable Coding

Cases drawn from the consulted sources were sorted according to the five temporal periods being examined, and those meeting the specified selection criteria were entered chronologically into a list contained in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet file created to digitally store all of the data pertaining to the entire reconstructed and extended database. A flow diagram providing a summary of the search, sorting, and screening process is shown in Figure 1.

Duplicate reports for a given case were not removed as part of the sorting process because it was found that these duplicate reports often varied in length (ranging anywhere from two- to six-page summary abstracts akin to those found in the *Research in Parapsychology* series, all the way up to full-length journal articles and books) and the amount of detail given from one to the next. We thus retained and used them in combination in order to extract as much detailed information about the case as possible, as well as to cross-check for consistency in details of the case reported across the duplicates.

Figure 1: Flow diagram illustrating the case search, sorting, and screening process used for reconstructing and extending the Roll database



We then began identifying, and subsequently listing as columns within the Excel file, all of the individual quantitative and qualitative variables and associated sub-variables that would be examined and tallied across the entire set of cases contained in the database. To maintain consistency with other large databases (for the sake of relative comparison), many of the variables were those previously examined in the surveys by Roll (1977a, 1977b, 1978a, 1978b) and Gauld and Cornell (1979), while a few (such as the "Family Group" variables listed in Table 1) were derived based on certain case features which have been previously undescribed or relatively unexplored in other case surveys using a quantitative approach.

For ease of listing and display within the Excel file, the individual variables were each grouped under three main category headings: *General*, *Physical*, and *Psychological*, with each of these categories being given its own dedicated spreadsheet within the file. In total, 255 variables and associated sub-variables were listed in the file. For brevity, Table 1 lists only the variables (left column) and associated sub-variables (italicized terms and bulleted points in the right column) from these three categories which will be pertinent to the preliminary analytical survey results reported here. (A complete listing of all 255 variables & sub-variables listed within these categories is available in a Supplementary Appendix file on request.)

Variable data were then extracted from each piece of written case account material and manually entered into the Excel database file using a "present/not present" designation code, with 1 = "variable present" and "variable not present" simply being indicated with a blank space.

Results

For relative comparison, some of the preliminary analytical results we present here are examined in light of other related results previously reported in other case surveys by Carrington and Fodor (1951); Roll (1977a, 1977b, 1978a, 1978b); Gauld and Cornell (1979, Ch. 12); Huesmann and Schriever (1989/2022); and Dullin (2024).[2] While it is important to keep in mind that these surveys are not fully independent (in that some of the cases included in one survey may also be included in the others), they may nonetheless point to some hinting patterns for further follow-up in future case surveys.

Descriptives

Through manual and electronic searches, we were able to locate and retrieve copies of 267 "poltergeist"/RSPK-type case reports from the parapsychological and psychical research literature. Fifty-five of these cases did not meet one or more of the specified selection criteria and were subsequently excluded (see Figure 1). Thus, our reconstruction and extension of Roll's original database is comprised of 212 cases. (A complete list of the cases and their respective sources is available as a 15-page Supplementary Appendix file on request.)

Table 2 gives the numerical breakdown of cases for each of the five temporal periods and compares them with those reported in Roll's original survey. It can be seen that for each period, we were able to exceed the totals originally reported by Roll, and our efforts have now expanded his database by 96 cases.

Table 2: Descriptive Summary and Comparison of Roll′ s Original & Extended Databases (# Cases)

Temporal Period	Original Database (1977)	Extended Database (2023)
1612 – 1849	19	23
1850 – 1899	25	35
1900 – 1949	38	59
1950 – 1974	34	50
1975 – 2021	-	45
Total	**116**	**212**

These 212 cases are geographically distributed across 31 countries and island territories, as listed in Table 3. Also shown are the original distributions reported by Carrington and Fodor (1951, p. 17) and Roll (1977b). Comparison of the numbers reported by Roll (1977b) with the extended database indicates notable differences for two regions: Australia and Italy. The higher number of Australian cases in the extended database can likely be attributed to the inclusion of cases from this region later reported by Healey and Cropper (2014), while the reason for the relatively lower number of Italian cases in the extended database is unclear.

T**able 3: Geographic Distribution of "Poltergeist"/RSPK-Type Cases (# Cases)**

Country	Carrington & Fodor (1951)	Roll (1977)	Extended (2023)
United States	56	31	48
Canada	13	-	3
United Kingdom & Ireland	127	26	55
Spain, Portugal	4	-	1
Germany, Austria, Switzerland	34	21	28
Italy	15	9	4
France	58	7	19
Holland, Belgium	1	5	6
Scandinavia (Norway, Finland, Sweden, Iceland)	16	4	5

Greece	1	-	-
Hungary	9	-	-
Poland	-	-	4
Russia	7	2	3
Czech Republic	1	1	2
Europe & United States	342	106	178
Caribbean Islands (Haiti, Jamaica, Grenada, Martinique, Barbados)	7	-	2
Brazil	1	-	6
Argentina, Chile, Bolivia	3	-	1
South Africa, Madagascar	6	-	-
Mauritius	-	1	1
Turkey	-	-	1
India, Sri Lanka	9	4	5
Indonesia (Java, Sumatra)	4	5	4
Malaysia		-	1
China	3	-	-
Vietnam	-	-	1
Australia	-	-	12

Duration & Inception Time

Across the 147 cases in which duration of the disturbances was recorded (or could be roughly estimated), the mean was found to be 5.16 months (9.27 *SD*), with a median and mode both of 2 months. This is very close to the mean of 5.1 and median of 2 originally reported by Roll (1977a). The mean reported by Huesmann and Schriever (1989/2022) was three times larger (15.3), with a median of 5 months, although their values were based on a much smaller sample of 54 cases.

In terms of temporal range, the shortest duration for a case was less than one hour (approximately 10 – 15 min), while the longest was 62 months (approximately 5.2 years, with the phenomena occurring intermittently).

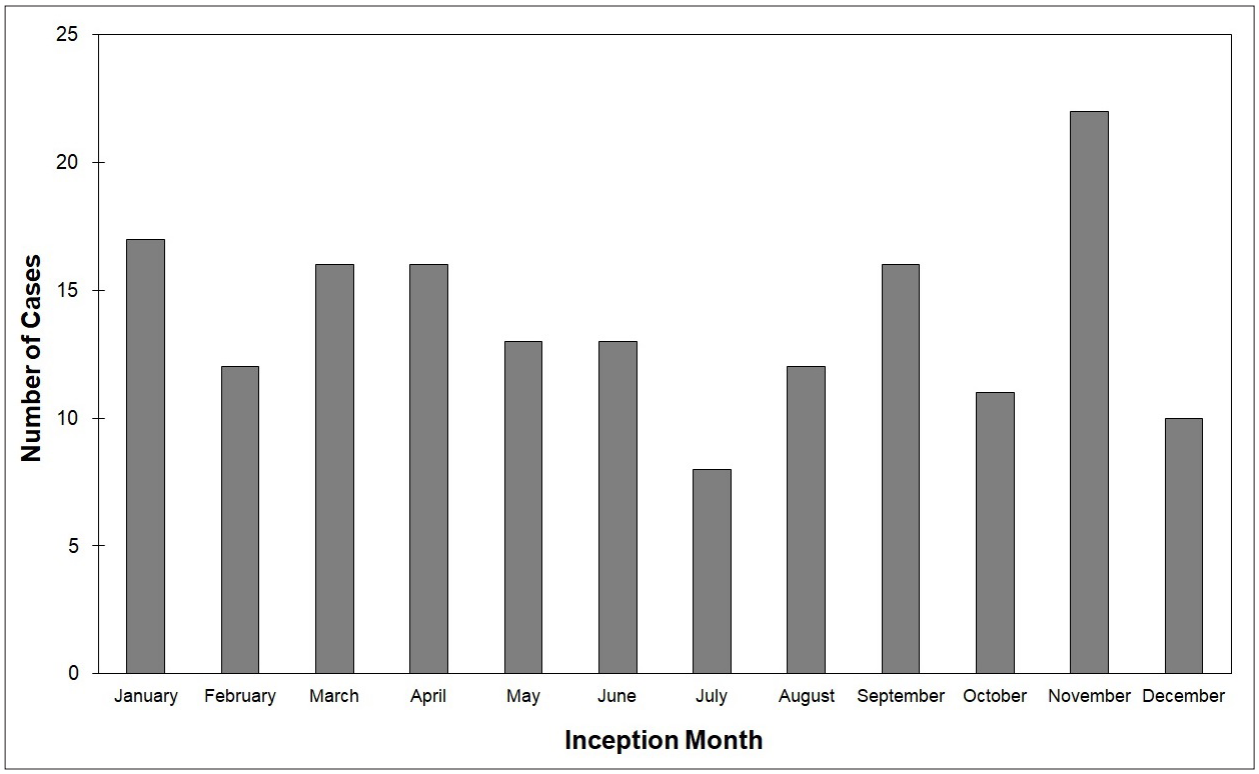
Both Roll (1978a) and Huesmann and Schriever (1989/2022) had found November to be a notable month for disturbance inception, tending to exhibit the highest case frequencies. As Figure 2 indicates, this tendency remains present for the 166 cases in which the month of inception was noted (11 other cases only specified the season or general time of year, while 35 did not give a month), with November still having the highest number of cases (22).

Also noticeable in Figure 2 is the relative lack of inception during the month of July (8 cases). Though the reason for the predominance of disturbance inception in November is not clear, Huesmann and Schriever (1989/2022) tentatively suggested that:

November is likely to be the most unpleasant month of the year for children because it has short days, is cold and rainy, but usually does not yet offer snow to play in. This means children have to spend most of their free time indoors, and existing tensions can escalate. (p. 122)

Following this same line of reasoning, one might tentatively speculate that the relative lack of inception in July is that this is the middle of the summer season, when the days are longer, children are out of school and able to play outdoors, and it is a period when family vacations are often taken. These may be times of relatively less stress and tension.

Figure 2: Temporal distribution for the month of disturbance inception in 166 cases contained in the extended database



Physical Variables

Table 4 lists the case survey percentages for 30 types of phenomena and other physical variables contained in the extended database, along with the percentages reported by Roll (1977a, 1977b); Gauld and Cornell (1979, Ch. 12); Huesmann and Schriever (1989/2022); and Dullin (2024).

Particularly noticeable in Table 4 are the relative consistencies across the surveys for two variables: spontaneous movement/displacement of objects, and percussive noises, further suggesting that these two phenomena tend to most often characterize "poltergeist"/RSPK-type cases. Yet one might note the lower percentages given on these variables by Gauld and Cornell (1979) and Dullin (2024) as compared to the other three surveys, making them appear to be relatively low-end outliers. Additional discussion of this shall be made in a later section.

Of the 178 cases within the extended database that contained movement/displacement, 100 of them (56%) involved activity that ultimately resulted in the destruction of one or more objects.

Table 4: Types of Reported Phenomena and Other Physical Variables (% Cases)

Variable	Extended (2023)	Roll (1977)	Gauld & Cornell (1979)	Huesmann & Schriever (1989/2022)	Dullin (2024)
Total Number of Database Cases	**212**	**116**	**500***	**54**	**906***
Spontaneous Movement/Displacement of Objects	84	91	64◊	87	60◊
Destructive?	56	N/R	N/R	N/R	11
Percussive Noises	52	54	48	57	43
Accompanied by Vibration?	29	N/R	N/R	N/R	N/R
Noises Seemed Intelligent?	18	N/R	N/R	11	18
Imitative Noises	28	N/R	43	54	46
Voices	10	13	26	17	N/R¶
Voices Seemed Intelligent?	5	11	N/R	N/R	N/R
Both Object Movement and Noises Reported	45	47	N/R	46	N/R
Apportation or Teleportation	26	17	22	31	24
Materialization/Dematerialization	27	N/R	5	17	24
Unusual Lights	6	9	10	N/R†	8
Electrical/Mechanical Disturbances	13	N/R	3	35	6

Spontaneous Appearance of Water	12	2	5	37	5
Spontaneous Fires (or Object Incineration)	13	3	11	19	12
Spontaneous Appearance/Smearing of Feces	5	3	4	15	N/R
Tactile Sensations	18	9‡	15	46	29
Opposing Force or Resistance	6	N/R	2	N/R	N/R
Olfactory Sensations	3	N/R	2	17	3
Animals Attacked, Annoyed, or Behaviorally Affected	12	N/R	6	N/R	N/R
Spontaneous Ties, Braids, and Knots	4	2	N/R	N/R	N/R
Writings or Drawings	6	3	5	19	18
Apparitions	15	23	29	26	28
Photographic Effects	1	N/R	N/R	N/R	N/R
Object Focusing	48	77	N/R	N/R	N/R
Area Focusing	15	16	N/R	41	N/R
Both Types of Focusing	10	10	N/R	N/R	N/R
Moving Object Skillfully Thrown?	12	N/R	N/R	N/R	N/R
Moving Object Exhibit Unusual Trajectory?	35	41	N/R	45	23
Thermal Change	15	6	4	13	7^

All percentages rounded to the nearest one percent; N/R: not reported

*Higher total is likely due to the inclusion of haunt and intermediate cases

◊Refers to movement of small objects only

¶Value is intermixed with "Noises other than raps" in Dullin's (2024) Table 1

†Value is likely intermixed with value for "apparitions" variable (Huesmann & Schriever, 1989/2022, p. 89)

‡Value combines "wounds/slaps" and "pullings/liftings" in Roll's (1977a, p. 397) original survey

^Value combines "Cold air current" and "Hot objects on contact" in Dullin's (2024) Table 1

Of the 110 cases containing percussive noises, a sense of physical vibration was said to accompany the noises in 32 of them (29%), and in 20 of them (18%) the noises seemingly exhibited a degree of intelligence.

Two variables with somewhat notable differences in the present survey relative to the other surveys are imitative noises and apparitions. This may likely be due to the exclusion of "haunting RSPK" cases in

the extended database, in which these phenomena (which are often associated with haunts) can sometimes be found.

Also notable between Roll's original survey and the present survey is the relative reduction in object focusing. One likely reason for this is that the present survey took a conservative approach toward examining this variable by only assessing instances involving objects other than stones, so as to avoid a potentially inflated estimate of its frequency due to a large amount of lithobolia reports (see Table 1). Another possibility is that it might be due in part to a relative increase in cases across the five temporal periods (Table 2) where this feature was either not found or examined for.

Over half (131, or 62%) of the 212 cases contained instances in which one or more of the reported disturbances were observed by various witnesses external to the family or social group involved. The distributions of these outside witnesses are given in Table 5.

Table 5: Outside Witnesses to the Reported Phenomena (# Cases With Type of Witness)

Witness Type	1612 – 1849	1850 – 1899	1900 – 1949	1950 – 1974	1975 – 2021	Totals
First Responders	0	10	11	16	10	**47**
Social Service/ Mental Health Workers	0	0	1	0	4	**5**
Scientists/Physicians	4	5	12	4	3	**28**
Clergy	7	9	6	5	6	**33**
Government/ Military Personnel	7	9	5	0	3	**24**
Parapsychology Researchers	0	3	8	15	5	**31**
Other	4	13	8	9	14	**48**
Not Specified	11	3	1	2	2	**19**
Period Totals	**33**	**52**	**52**	**51**	**47**	

Psychological and Medical Variables

Of the 212 cases in the extended database, at least one identified or suspected focal person was found to be present in 169 of them (80%). This is consistent with the percentages of 79% found by Roll (1977b) and 85% found by Huesmann and Schriever (1989/2022), but not with those found by Gauld and Cornell (1979) and Dullin (2024), which are much lower (30% and 38%, respectively). We also address this in a later section. Out of the 169 cases with a focal person, 31 of them (18%) seemed to contain hints of there being multiple (two or more) focal persons possibly being present. A similar value of 22% was reported by Huesmann and Schriever (1989/2022), though with a smaller sample.

Of the 92 focal persons identified in his original survey, Roll (1977b) found 56 to be females and 36 to be males, a marginally significant difference (χ^2 [3] = 7.65, p = .054). Of the 169 focal persons in the presently extended survey, there are 109 females and 60 males, a difference that is now only weakly suggestive at best (χ^2 [4] = 8.19, p = .085; two right columns in Table 6).

Table 6: Comparison of Sex of Focal Persons in Roll's Original and Extended Databases

Temporal Period	Original Database (1977)		Extended Database (2023)	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
1612 – 1849	10	4	10	4
1850 – 1899	16	3	22	4
1900 – 1949	16	14	31	15
1950 – 1974	14	15	23	20
1975 – 2021	-	-	23	17
Totals	**56**	**36**	**109**	**60**

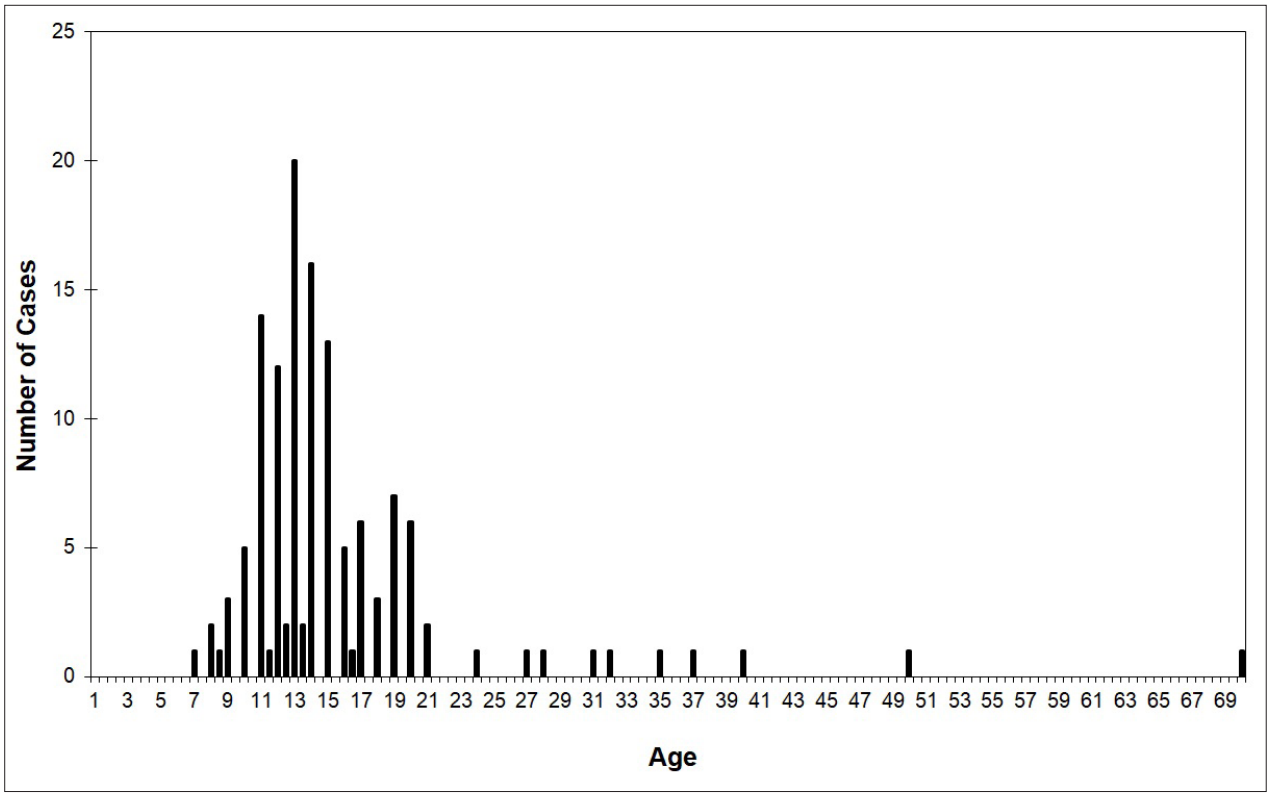
From the 132 cases in which an exact age or age estimate was given (in cases seeming to involve multiple focal persons, we followed Roll's approach of counting the individual who seemed to be most closely associated with the phenomena), a mean of 15.7 years (7.8 *SD*) was found, along with a median of 14. When divided according to sex, there is a mean of 15.4 years (5.9 *SD*) and a median of 14 years for females, and a mean of 16.1 years (10.4 *SD*) and median of 13 for males. These are consistent with the female mean of 15 years and median of 13 years, and male mean of 17 years and median of 13 years originally reported by Roll (1977b). The tendency for focal persons to be in the adolescent to teen age range is further apparent from the clustering in this range observable in the frequency distribution shown in Figure 3, which is quite similar

to the distribution reported by Huesmann and Schriever (1989/2022, Figure 4) in that they too found a preponderance of adolescent focal persons with a peak frequency at around 13 years.

Perhaps also of some note in Figure 3 is the fair amount of adult focal persons present in the distribution: If 18 is taken as the age threshold for adulthood, then there are at least 28 focal persons (21%, or about one-fifth of the distribution) who may be considered adults, ranging in age from 18 to 70 years. This suggests that while many focal persons may be adolescents or teens, it is also not too uncommon to find focal persons of older age.

Of the disturbances described in the 212 cases of the extended database, 170 (80%) were found to have taken place in a family home setting. And of the latter, nearly one-third (28%) involved the family being either temporarily or permanently forced to leave the home due to the disturbances.

Figure 3: Age distribution for the focal persons in 132 cases within the extended database that mentioned age



In his original survey, Roll (1978a) found that in 41% of his cases involving a focal person, the disturbances "...began at a time when there were changes or problems in the home or family which affected the [focal person]" (p. 176). Expanding this to a wider and more specific range of adverse psychosocial situations (Williams, 2019), we found that such situations were seemingly affecting the focal persons and/or their family, communal, or social group during the time of the reported disturbances in half (107, or 50.4%) of the 212 cases in the extended database.

Roll (1978a) also found that just over half (53%) of the 92 focal persons in his original database were exhibiting signs of physical or mental health issues. We found the same proportion among the 169 focal persons in the extended database.

Fraud

An issue of particular concern with regard to "poltergeist"/RSPK-type cases is the degree to which fraud may be present. Cox (1961) made a distinction between two types of fraud: *Total* or deliberate fraud involves a situation in which the reported disturbances are being deliberately faked or staged by the focal person individually and/or in collusion with their family, communal, or social group, likely for purposes of deceit, sensationalism, and/or financial gain. Although Roll (1977b, p. 66) stated that total fraud cases had (presumably) been sifted out of his original database, we purposely retained any cases of total fraud (or cases in which such fraud could not be fully excluded) we came across during our search of the literature in order to basically gauge the extent to which it might be present. Of the unfiltered collection of 267 cases we initially compiled, 21 of them (7.9%) were of this type.

As its name implies, *imitative* fraud involves the situation in which the focal person (and/or another member of their family, communal, or social group) is caught trying to imitate the phenomena by throwing an object with their hands or staging a disturbance through ordinary means without clear signs of deceptive intent, usually at a time when the phenomena have begun to decline or have ceased. Roll (1977b) covered this particular type of fraud in his original survey, finding it in 19 (16%) of his 116 cases. In the presently extended database, 33 (15.6%) of the 212 cases had at least one instance of this type of fraud.

Upon examining the distribution across the four temporal periods he initially used (left side of Table 7), Roll (1977b) found that there was a significant increase in the detection of imitative fraud in the fourth (last) period (χ^2 [1] = 8.22, p = .004). We further found a significant increase in detection across the temporal periods within the extended database, with a slight inversion at the end (χ^2 [4] = 13.8, p = .008; right side of Table 7). As Roll (1977b) suggested, this might be "...due to increased scrutiny of RSPK cases and the increasing attention paid to the focal person" (p. 66) over time.

Table 7: Comparison of Imitative Fraud in Roll's Original & Extended Databases (# Cases)

Temporal Period	Original Database (1977)	Extended Database (2023)
1612 – 1849	2	1
1850 – 1899	3	3
1900 – 1949	3	9
1950 – 1974	11	13
1975 – 2021	-	7
Total	**19**	**33**

Termination

People have tried a number of things in an effort to bring the reported disturbances to an end. One of the simpler things has been *departure*, whether through dismissal or by a voluntary act. As Roll (1978a) described it:

Once it had been noticed that the phenomena followed a servant or other employee, this person was sometimes dismissed, or if a member of the family, he or she was sent to another relative. Occasionally the family as a whole or some member would move. The phenomena at times followed the family or the focal person to the new location, but sometimes they ceased. (pp. 178 – 179)

How frequent might the latter outcome be? Roll (1978a) initially found that in 35 (30%) of his 116 cases, the disturbances had ceased following departure. When analyzed according to temporal period (left side of Table 8), he found that the frequency during the first period was significantly lower than the other periods (χ^2 [3] = 9.69, p = .021). Within the extended database, disturbances ceased with departure in 41 (19.3%) of the 212 cases, with a significant difference among the periods continuing to be present (χ^2 [4] = 11.8, p = .019; right side of Table 8).

Table 8: Comparison of Termination Efforts by Departure in Roll's Original & Expanded Databases (# Cases)

Temporal Period	Original Database (1977)	Extended Database (2023)
1612 – 1849	1	2
1850 – 1899	13	8
1900 – 1949	10	14
1950 – 1974	11	12
1975 – 2021	-	5
Total	**35**	**41**

Termination has also been tried through exorcism or other religious or spiritual rites. Roll (1978a) initially found that of the 30 cases (25%) in his original database where such rites had been tried, the disturbances ceased afterward in five (17%) and continued afterward in 25 (83%). Of the latter, the disturbances reportedly intensified during the rites in five cases, and in four cases, only temporary relief was achieved before the disturbances resumed again later.

A similar kind of pattern was observed in the extended database: Of the 43 cases (20.3%) in which rites were tried, the disturbances ceased afterward in seven (16.3%) and continued in 36 (83.7%). There were 12 cases of the latter in which temporary relief was achieved, while the disturbances intensified in

eight cases. This continues to be in line with Roll's (1978a) observation that: "In general, exorcism seems ineffective as a means to deal with RSPK" (p. 178).

Discussion

Our present effort to conceptually replicate Roll's work by digitally reconstructing and extending his original database of 116 "poltergeist"/RSPK-type cases appears to have been relatively successful: We were able to exceed the case totals for each of the four temporal periods he examined, and we extended his database by nearly 100 cases. Our preliminary survey analysis of this extended 212-case database yielded results that remained closely consistent with Roll's original survey (even after being expanded with additional cases), and they were in line with some of the findings reported in other case surveys by Gauld and Cornell (1979); Huesmann and Schriever (1989/2022); and Dullin (2024). Despite the fact that these surveys are not fully independent of each other, there does appear to be some persisting hints of similar patterns, features, and characteristics occurring across their databases, suggesting that spontaneous cases of the "poltergeist"/RSPK-type remain to be, as Roll (1977a, p. 409) initially pointed out, "an excellent prospect for research," and that deeper study into their physical and psychosocial aspects using a more systematic approach would be a worthwhile effort. This is one of the aims of the AECKO approach that is currently being developed, with more work along these lines to be reported in due course.

Perhaps the one notable exception in terms of consistency, as mentioned, has to do with the relatively lower percentages reported by Gauld and Cornell (1979) and Dullin (2024) with regards to their survey findings for two common characteristics of "poltergeist"/RSPK-type cases – namely, spontaneous object movement/displacement and percussive noises (Table 4), as well as the noticeably lower values they found for RSPK focal persons. While this difference could be due to any number of factors, one might notice that the close similarity in their findings for some of the other variables listed in Table 4 (e.g., imitative noises, apparitions) would seem to hint at a shared commonality between them. And indeed, a commonality that they do seem to share is the inclusion of "haunt"-type cases within their respective case samples (Gauld and Cornell, 1979, p. 224; Dullin, 2024, p. 430). This is important to recognize because in contrast to the physicality of "*poltergeist*" and *RSPK* (as noted in their current general parapsychological definitions; e.g., Edge et al., 1986, p. 43; Thalbourne et al., 2003, pp. 89 & 106), "haunt"-type phenomena tend to be *non-physical* in nature, often being comprised of hallucinatory or illusory subjective sensory experiences that do not seem to have an overt physical source nor leave any kind of physical trace behind; Dullin (2024) cites the following examples of the latter:

> ...a great noise as if a piano had fallen by crashing into the next room was heard, while when entering the room in question witnesses did not see anything in particular [disturbed], or noises sounding as if something heavy such as furniture was being dragged upstairs above while in fact the room was empty. (p. 432)

Mixing "poltergeist"/RSPK-type and "haunt"-type cases together within the same sample has the potential of introducing a confound in making distinctions between the physical and non-physical aspects of their reported phenomenal variables, as well as potentially distorting (by either inflating or underestimating) the quantitative frequencies of those variables. Effort was made to minimize this issue in the

survey reported here by adopting a physicality criterion for case inclusion (see the "case selection criteria" sub-section).

The preliminary survey presented here also contributed a few novel aspects by exploring certain frequency variables which either have not yet been previously described, or have not often been quantitatively assessed in other case surveys. These variables included object destruction, percussive vibrations, photographic effects, skillful throwing of objects (Table 4), and the "family group" variables (Table 1). A more in-depth analytical survey of the other variables identified and tallied within the extended database will follow in due course, as well.

Though it is extensive, we realize that the extended database we have produced cannot be considered exhaustive in covering all of the known "poltergeist"/RSPK-type cases known to exist, and it remains quite possible that there could be a number of other cases (particularly ones reported in languages other than English) which we may have overlooked. In an effort to address this issue over time, we intend to continually update this database with additional cases as they come to our attention and report any significant changes to the preliminary survey findings that occur as a result of this in future publications. We would thus be grateful if researchers who may know of any other cases for potential inclusion would kindly inform us of the details.

Notes

It should be mentioned from the outset that, owing largely to their common use within parapsychology, we intend to use the terms *poltergeist* and *RSPK* here simply as convenient labels, and not as descriptives implying any kind of presumed mechanism or theory.

As might be noticed from the tables that follow, comparisons were not made across all of the surveys for each and every result because these other previous surveys did not all examine the same variables, and thus, did not always report comparative data. Also, comparisons with another case survey by Carvalho (1992) were not made here for two reasons: 1.) The Carvalho case database is comprised of a relatively small sample (13 cases), leaving the possibility that some of his reported percentages may be inflated; and 2.) other potential issues have been raised by Machado and Zangari (2000) regarding Carvalho's survey.

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Una Replicación Conceptual y Extensión de la Base de Datos de William G. Roll sobre Casos Reportados del Tipo "Poltergeist"/RSPK: Estudio Preliminar

Resumen: A finales de la década de 1970, William G. Roll compiló y realizó un estudio sobre una base de datos de 116 casos del tipo "poltergeist" / RSPK (psicoquinesia recurrente espontánea) que abarcaban el período de 1612 a 1974. Aquí reportamos nuestros esfuerzos por replicar conceptualmente esta base de datos reconstruyéndola en formato digital prácticamente desde cero, y luego ampliando su cobertura hasta finales de 2021. También se presenta un estudio analítico preliminar de esta base de datos extendida de 212 casos, que arrojó varios hallazgos consistentes con el estudio original de Roll, así como en línea con los resultados de otros dos estudios de casos posteriores. Esta consistencia relativa entre estudios sugiere el valor de llevar a cabo un estudio más profundo de los casos espontáneos del tipo "poltergeist"/RSPK utilizando un enfoque más sistemático.

Palabras clave: *experiencia anómala, poltergeist, psicoquinesia recurrente espontánea (RSPK), investigación de casos espontáneos, ocurrencia cinética comunal episódica anómala (AECKO)*

Eine konzeptionelle Replikation und Erweiterung der Datenbank von William G. Roll über gemeldete Fälle des „Poltergeist"-/RSPK-Typs: Eine vorläufige Bestandsaufnahme

Zusammenfassung: Ende der 1970er Jahre hatte William G. Roll eine Datenbank mit 116 Fällen des „Poltergeist"/RSPK-Typs aus dem Zeitraum von 1612 bis 1974 zusammengestellt und ausgewertet. In diesem Artikel berichten wir über unsere Bestrebungen, diese Datenbank konzeptionell zu replizieren, indem wir

sie fast vollständig von Grund auf in digitaler Form rekonstruiert und ihren Erfassungszeitraum bis Ende 2021 erweitert haben. Außerdem wird eine vorläufige Analyse dieser erweiterten Datenbank mit 212 Fällen vorgestellt; sie lieferte mehrere Ergebnisse, die mit Rolls ursprünglicher Untersuchung übereinstimmen und auch mit den Ergebnissen zweier späterer Fallstudien im Einklang stehen. Diese relative Übereinstimmung zwischen den Studien legt nahe, dass eine eingehendere Untersuchung spontaner Fälle des „Poltergeist"/RSPK-Typs unter Verwendung eines systematischeren Ansatzes lohnenswert wäre.

Schlüsselbegriffe: *anomale Erfahrung, Poltergeist, Recurrent Spontaneous Psychokinesis (RSPK), Spontanfallforschung, anomalous episodic communal kinetic occurrence (AECKO)*

Une réplication conceptuelle et une extension de la base de données de William G. Roll sur les cas de « poltergeist » / PCRS : étude préliminaire

Résumé : À la fin des années 1970, William G. Roll avait compilé et analysé une base de données regroupant 116 cas de phénomènes de type « poltergeist » / PCSR couvrant la période allant de 1612 à 1974. Nous rendons compte ici de nos efforts visant à reproduire conceptuellement cette base de données en la reconstruisant sous forme numérique presque entièrement à partir de zéro, puis en étendant sa couverture jusqu'à la fin de l'année 2021. Une étude analytique préliminaire de cette base de données étendue, comprenant 212 cas, est également présentée. Elle a permis de mettre en évidence plusieurs résultats concordants avec l'étude originale de Roll, ainsi qu'avec les résultats de deux autres enquêtes ultérieures sur des cas similaires. Cette relative cohérence entre les enquêtes suggère qu'il serait utile de mener une étude plus approfondie des cas spontanés de type « poltergeist » / PCSR en utilisant une approche plus systématique.

Mots-clés *: expérience anomale, poltergeist, psychocinèse spontanée récurrente (PCSR), recherche sur les cas spontanés, phénomène cinétique communautaire épisodique anomal (AECKO)*

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A Speculative Hypothesis on the Mechanisms of Deformation of Metal by Intention: A Modern Re-examination of the Work of Jack Houck

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Abstract: Here, we re-examine Jack Houck's work on the deformation of metal by intention (termed "warm forming") and present a speculative hypothesis to explain the phenomenon motivated by recent advances in materials science and parapsychology. We hypothesize that when a metal object deforms during warm forming, this is due to micro-PK influences affecting the movement of the specific crystalline defects in the metal object whose behavior and movement must be viewed quantum mechanically. The method used to derive this hypothesis is stated and likely has applications to other complex parapsychological phenomena. Ideal metal crystals are easy to theorize about because of their periodic nature, and an understanding of micro-PK gained from studying the warm forming phenomenon could be applied to better understand the effect of consciousness on biological systems.

Keywords: *human intention, theoretical parapsychology, micro-PK, macro-PK, consciousness*

Many phenomena relegated to the realms of parapsychology and alternative medicine would imply by their very existence that consciousness can directly interact with matter. Some modern conceptions of energy medicine are built on the idea that consciousness can directly impact living tissue (Jonas & Crawford, 2004). Veridical near-death experiences (Kelly et al., 2007, Chapter 6) and cases of apparent reincarnation (Tucker, 2008) seem, at face value, to imply that mind-matter interaction occurs constantly in the brains of healthy, awake humans. If consciousness can exist separately from the brain, then it must somehow act on the brain to influence neuronal processes in some way. While work on microscopic psychokinesis (micro-PK) has improved our understanding of the nature of potential mind-matter interactions (Varvoglis & Bancel, 2015), there remains no widely accepted theory to explain complex mind-matter interactions with biological tissue in terms of simpler mind-matter interactions similar to those historically studied in micro-PK experiments. It is, perhaps, desirable, in order to better understand the potential effect of consciousness on biological tissue, to search for and study simpler macroscopic systems that seem to be overtly responsive to conscious intent.

In this paper, we will examine the possibility that small metal objects with a large number of dislocations in their microstructure meet this criterion. Solid metal is easy to theorize about, as the symmetry of the atomic lattice of an idealized flawless metal crystal can be exploited to generate powerful mathematical results. This is the case in the proofs of Bloch′s theorem, which gives the wave functions of electrons in crystalline solids (Ashcroft & Mermin, 1976, p. 134). From 1981, continuing through 2003, parapsycholo-

gist Jack Houck studied the effects of intention on metal extensively (Houck, 2003). Here, we will examine his empirical findings and anecdotal observations concerning the deformation of metal by intention– a form of macroscopic psychokinesis (macro-PK). We will then survey relevant parapsychology and materials science results, state a speculative hypothesis to partially explain Houck's observations, and enumerate some experimental techniques that could eventually test refinements of the stated hypothesis. We hypothesize that when a metal object deforms due to intention, it is due to micro-PK influences affecting the movement of the specific crystalline defects in the metal object whose behavior and movement must be viewed quantum mechanically. Such defects have been demonstrated to exist, and we survey the literature on the subject. Our entire hypothesis is framed in the context of Lucadou's work, which paints micro-PK not as a force that directly influences the outcome of probabilistic quantum events but as a more subtle force that induces correlations between the probabilistic outcomes of quantum events and meaningful events taking place at the macroscopic scale (Walach et al., 2020).

Evidence On the Deformation of Metal by Intention Gathered by Jack Houck

Historical Background

Jack Houck is known in the parapsychology community for his work investigating the effects of alleged macro-psychokinesis on metal objects. Houck was an aerospace engineer by training and managed a research group at McDonnell Douglas from 1970 until 1990. James McDonnell, a founder of McDonnell Douglas, had a keen interest in parapsychology and, in 1980, allowed Houck to participate in the implementation of a remote viewing experiment in which remote viewers attempted to perceive remote locations (unknown to them during the experiment) through extrasensory perception. Houck recounted that remote viewers in the experiment were often able to acquire details about target locations accurately. However, the details they acquired were often from emotionally charged events that occurred at the target locations in the past and did not accurately describe the locations in their present state. There appeared to be a "time-shift" effect in the data produced by remote viewers. At this point in his life, Houck was spending much of his free time reading parapsychology literature and had already begun actively participating in the parapsychology research community. In a talk given by Houck, he hypothesized that (1) the "time-shift" effect he was seeing in his remote viewing experiments could be mitigated by creating a "peak emotional event" at the target location in the present and (2) that "peak emotional events" would make psychokinesis easier to perform.

To test his hypothesis, Houck, in collaboration with metallurgist Severin Dahlen, set out to create a "peak emotional event" of his own in his home in the form of a party. Dahlen claimed to have had previous experience teaching people to use psychokinesis to act on metal objects. In 1981, Houck hosted the first "PK party" in his home in Huntington Beach, California. All 21 attendees were promised that they would learn how to "bend metal with [their] minds" (Houck, 2003, p. 56). Roughly half of the attendees were invited to the party specifically to participate in remote viewing experiments. Houck provided partygoers with his grandparents' sterling silverware collection and some zinc-coated steel rods to attempt to bend. Under the instruction of Dahlen, many party attendees could perform what they believed to be psychokinesis on the provided metal objects after concentrating on them in the upbeat group setting. Participants described metal objects as "getting warm or sticky, with the metal becoming very soft, like

rubber, for five to 30 seconds" (Houck, 2003, p. 56), in which time they could easily bend them. Cases of "spontaneous bending," in which pieces of silverware would purportedly bend by themselves while being held, were also reported (Houck, 2003). Experiences and observations similar to these were commonplace at subsequent PK parties (Houck; Houck, 1983). The phenomenon was so common that Houck coined a name for the process of bending metal objects in the warm, malleable state: "warm forming" (Houck, 1984). Between 1981 and 2003, Houck would go on to conduct over 361 PK parties attended by over 17,000 people (Houck, 2003). In 2010, Jack Houck was given the Dinsdale Award by the Society for Scientific Exploration in recognition of his contributions to the field of parapsychology and efforts to put psi phenomena in the hands of the general public.

The precise instructions that Houck gave his party guests to convince them that they could use psychokinesis to bend metal objects varied slightly over the years. However, the core of his methodology can be summarized succinctly. Firstly, party guests were led through a visualization exercise to get them to concentrate on the metal object that they were attempting to bend. Secondly, they were instructed to shout "Bend! Bend! Bend!" at their metal objects while making a conscious effort to focus intensely on them. Then, they were instructed to sit back, forget about "the bending objective," and continuously feel their metal objects to detect the short time window in which they were warm, sticky, and malleable. Houck would sometimes go around to guests and purposely break their concentration. This method would lead to over 85% of party attendees successfully doing warm forming (Houck, 1982). Houck would attempt to lead partygoers through three stages of successively harder warm forming tasks to slowly get them acquainted with the feeling and idea of warm forming (Houck, 1988).

Empirical Evidence

Analysis of the Surface of a Warm Formed Steel Rod: During a PK party in April of 1981, a 30.5 cm long and 0.63 cm thick segment of a rod made of zinc-coated 1018 steel was warm formed over the course of 15 minutes. The rod segment and a control segment cut from the same original rod were analyzed at a metallurgical laboratory by Victor Kerlins. Before being cut up for use at a PK party, the original rod was cleaned with gasoline and polished with 0000 steel wool. For safety reasons, the sharp edges of the rod segments used in the party were filed down. The party attendee who warm formed the rod reported that, according to Houck, "when the rod became warm and was easily malleable, a permanent color change occurred over the entire surface of the rod (not just where the bend occurred)." Houck stated in his report on the rod that he was, at the time, in possession of nine other rods that underwent similar color changes during warm forming. Both of the rod segments (see Figure 1) were examined with optical and scanning electron microscopes as well as with energy-dispersive X-ray diffraction analysis (to determine what chemical compounds were directly responsible for the color change) and an X-ray map examination (to determine if any zinc from the zinc coating penetrated into the steel).

The energy-dispersive X-ray diffraction analysis determined that the black color on the surface of the warm formed rod was due to the presence of chlorine, likely in the form of zinc chloride. Houck suspected that the source of the chlorine was either salt or hydrochloric acid from the hands of the party attendee who warm formed the rod. He noted, however, that human hands regularly handled both the control rod and warm formed rod segments, so routine handling can be ruled out as the source of the dark color on the surface of the warm formed rod segment. Due to the presence of zinc on the rod segment, the test

could not detect the presence or absence of sodium. The surface color changes were uniform across the entire surface of the rod and did not vary between the straight and bent portions. An X-ray map examination on cross sections of both rod segments indicated that zinc from the rod's coating did not penetrate into the underlying steel. No direct pictures of the grain structure of either rod segment were taken during the analysis (Houck, 1984).

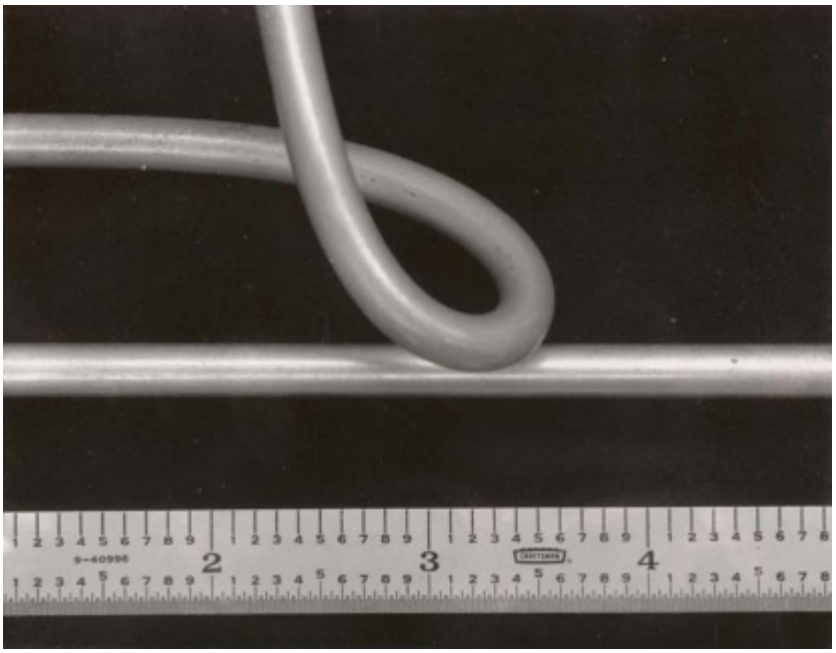

Figure 1. Warm formed steel rod segment (top) with control steel rod segment (bottom). Image reprinted with permission (Houck, 1984).

Analysis of the Microstructure of a Warm Formed Aluminum Rod: In May of 1981, a warm formed ⅜ inch-diameter aluminum rod bent into a loop (similar to the loop in Figure 1), together with a ⅜ inch-diameter "manually formed" aluminum rod (also bent into a loop), was analyzed in a McDonnell Douglas laboratory by Victor Kerlins. He found that grain boundary cracking occurred at the outside diameter of the bends in both rods, but not in the inner diameter of the bends. Examination with optical and scanning electron microscopes with magnification up to 11kx found "no significant differences in microstructure" between the two rods. This analysis included the use of "polarized light and Nomarski phase interference contrast techniques." Kerlins noted that the inside of the warm formed rod contained many deformation bands, but these are common inside plastically deformed metals. The hardness of cross sections of both rods taken from their bent portions was measured to be the same using Rockwell microhardness testing with a 100g load. Figure 2 shows two images from Kerlins' analysis (Kerlins, 1981).

Figure 2a

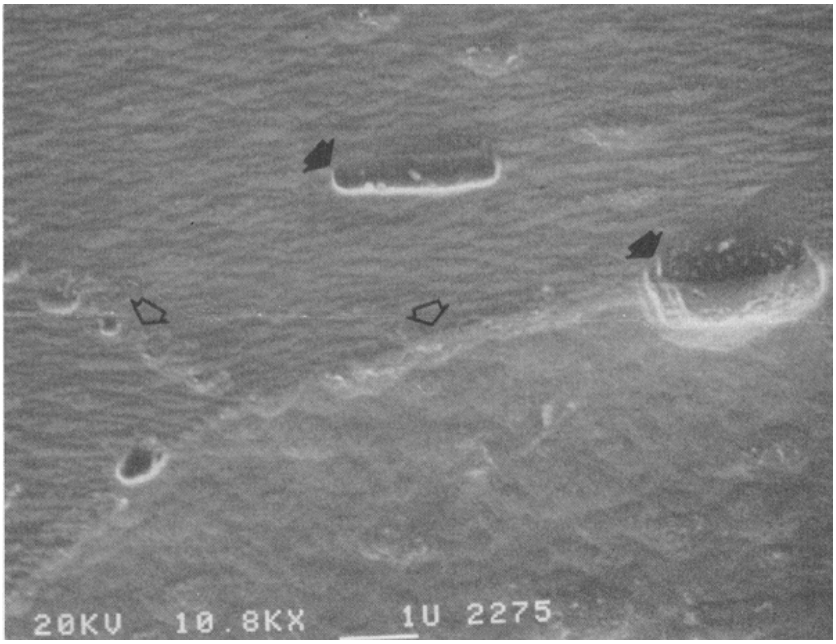

Figure 2b

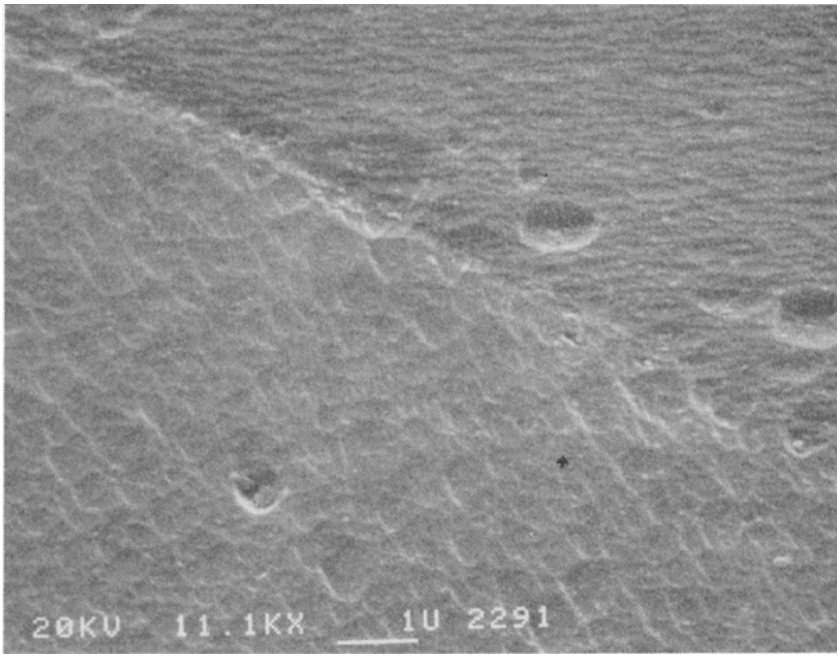

Figure 2. (a) Polished cross-section of a warm formed aluminum rod treated with Keller's reagent at 10.8kx magnification. Open arrows denote grain boundaries, and solid arrows denote pits created during polishing. (b) Polished cross-section of a manually formed aluminum rod treated with Keller's reagent at 11.1kx magnification. Images reprinted with permission (Kerlins, 1981).

The Hardness of Hacksaw Blades Repeatedly Exposed to PK Parties Decreases: Severin Dahlen conducted an experiment to examine the effects of indirect macro-PK influence on the hardness of metals. Four hacksaw blades made of high-carbon steel were acquired. Each blade had its surface inspected for irregularities prior to the experiment. One blade was set aside as a control sample at a location where no PK parties took place. The other three were exposed to a PK party environment repeatedly, but party participants were not made aware of this (Dahlen, 1985). The three experimental blades were kept in a brown paper bag at the center of various PK parties (Houck, 1993). Overall, the experimental blades were exposed to four PK parties spaced out over three months.

At the beginning of the experiment and throughout the three-month interval, all four hacksaw blades' hardnesses were measured using a Rockwell Superficial Scale 15N equipped with a 15KG load and a diamond indenter. Hardness was measured at six points on each of the four blades (three places on each side of the blades). The values of the six measurements were averaged together after each set of measurements. Figure 3 shows a graph of the measurements annotated with a timeline of events. It was found that the hardness of the experimental blades decreased significantly throughout the experiment, while the hardness of the control blade remained roughly the same. The experimenters interpreted this as evidence of annealing taking place after exposure to an unknown force termed "remote annealing radiation" (Dahlen, 1985).

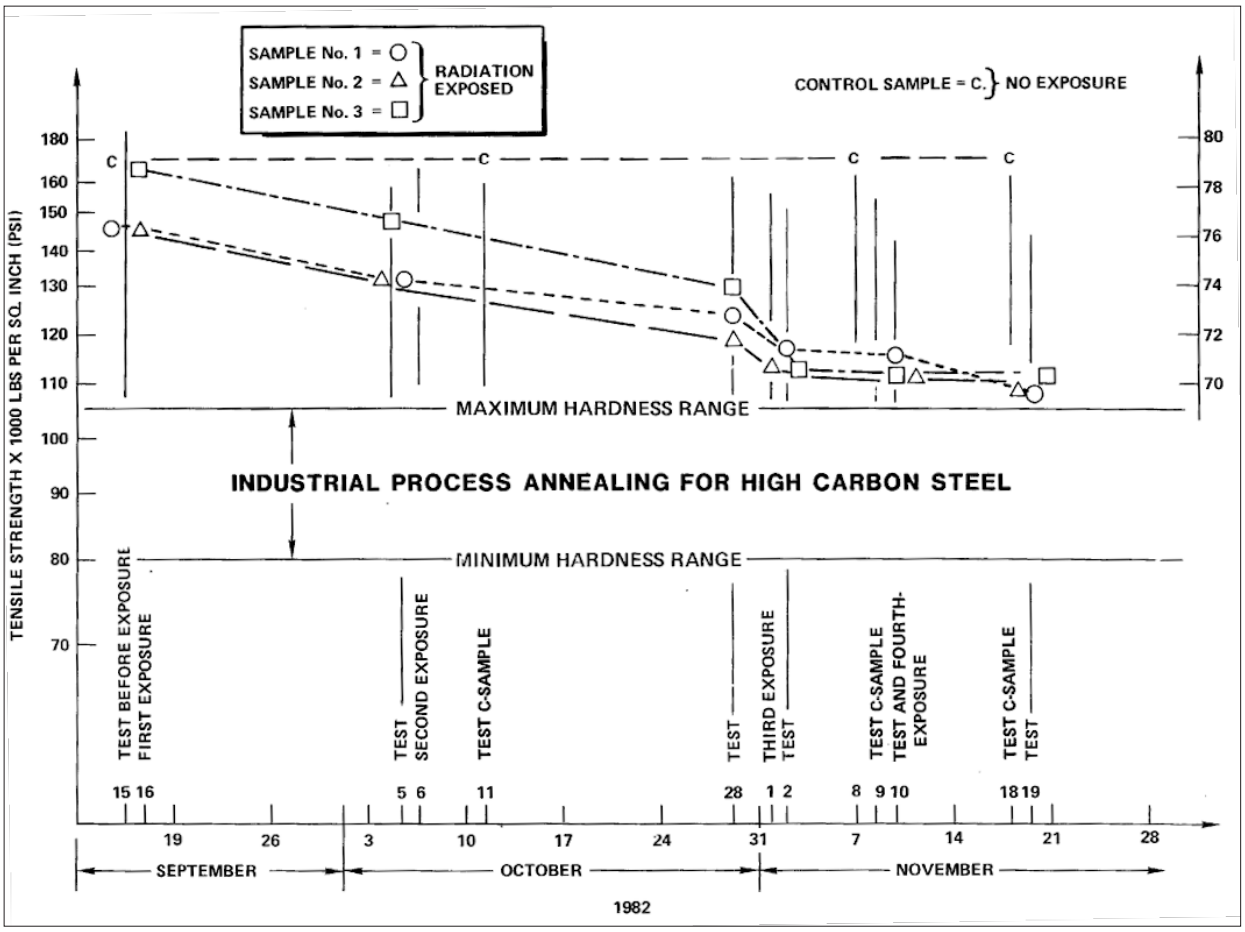

Figure 3. A reproduction of Figure 2 of Dahlen's paper summarizing the result of his hacksaw blade experiment (Dahlen, 1985).

Number of People for a Successful PK Party: Houck kept meticulous records concerning the PK parties he hosted and retained information regarding party attendance and warm forming attempt success rate. He noted that the ideal PK party size was between 15 and 40 people. Any more or fewer party attendees would cause participants' warm forming success rate to decrease. He speculated that at bigger parties of more than 40 people, this was due to individual attendees not getting enough personalized instruction from party hosts. Houck noted that even at large parties, one host per 20 people still produced a high warm forming attempt success rate. He also notes that most unsuccessful smaller parties occurred early in his psychokinesis work, but wanted to go so far as to define a PK party as "a group of 15 or more people who meet to bend metal using psychokinesis" (Houck, 1983).

Anecdotal Evidence

Over the course of running PK parties for decades, Houck made some unquantified anecdotal observations that could be useful in gently guiding theory development. According to Houck, two factors determine if a specific piece of metal is susceptible to PK influence: the number of dislocations in the metal and the thermal conductivity of the metal. The more dislocations a piece of metal has, the easier it is to warm form. Pieces of metal with lower thermal conductivity are easier to warm form solely because it is easier for people performing warm forming to recognize the short time window in which these specimens feel warm and malleable (Houck, 1983). Metals with high thermal conductivity, such as copper and silver, become hot to the touch during warm forming attempts, and partygoers would sometimes have to drop specimens with high thermal conductivity to avoid getting burned (Houck, 1988). Houck believed that everyone is capable of warm forming and reported that roughly half of the people who successfully warm formed during his parties could later warm form on their own (Houck, 2003).

Even though PK allows people to bend strong metal objects with significantly reduced force, the phenomenon has limits. According to Houck, it is generally impossible to bend objects "too far beyond human physical bending capability" with PK (Houck, 1982). It is also difficult to warm form cast metals (Houck, 2003) and metals that have been annealed (Houck, 1983). Warm forming is not necessarily a permanent process. Objects do not always maintain their shape after being warm formed. Metal that has been warm formed often continues to bend by itself (sometimes for several days) after all warm forming attempts have ceased (Houck, 2003). Houck suspected that spontaneous bending during the PK process, which was often observed, was due to preexisting internal stresses in the metal being PKed, similar to the well-understood metallurgical process of "creep" (Houck, 1988).

Analysis of Jack Houck's Evidence

While Houck's position at McDonnell Douglas gave him access to some of the best available scientific equipment to analyze warm formed pieces of metal, the fact remains that much of Houck's empirical evidence lacks adequate, standard, scientific controls. This is not due to negligence on his part. It is simply the nature of the phenomena he studied, which tends to, per his account, only occur sporadically in a chaotic social setting (Houck, 1982). We have no way of being sure that any of Houck's specimens were genuinely warm formed, and not bent with mechanical force alone. Presumably, Houck and his associates made every effort to collect and analyze only the best, least suspect specimens possible. Even so, we must

view all empirical evidence resulting from the analysis of warm formed specimens gathered at PK parties as tentative. We will proceed in our analysis of Houck's evidence with this in mind.

Houck's rod analyses demonstrated that warm forming does not affect the larger features of metals' microstructure. By his tests, both of the rods that Houck had examined were indistinguishable from metal rods bent by conventional mechanical means. The only potential anomaly observed during the rod tests was the presence of chlorine deposits on the surface of the warm formed steel rod. Perhaps the chemical reaction that caused their formation was catalyzed by the mysterious process that causes metal to feel soft, warm, and malleable for brief periods of time during warm forming. In this case, it is impossible to rule out simple friction as the catalyst, especially since "gentle rubbing" was sometimes part of the warm forming process (Houck, 1982).

Dahlen's hacksaw blade experiment seemingly demonstrates that something unusual was going on at Houck's PK parties. Per the presented results, it is clear that prolonged exposure to the PK party environment altered the microstructure of the experimental saw blades somehow, ultimately decreasing their hardness. It is worth reiterating, however, that the saw blades were never the subject of warm forming attempts and were only exposed to an environment where warm forming was occurring. Dahlen's results, demonstrating an easily observable change in microstructure, do not contradict the results of the analyses showing that the microstructure of objects directly subjected to warm forming does not appear abnormal for plastically deformed metal objects. While Dahlen pointed out that the process that the experimental hacksaw blades underwent is similar to annealing, his evidence only established that the experimental hacksaw blades decreased in hardness. He never established that an annealing process occurred. Presumably, the effects observed by Dahlen were not the result of one individual acting upon the experimental blades (none of the party attendees were aware of the blades' presence) but the cumulative result of being acted upon by all PK party attendees (likely numbering over 15) during multiple parties.

It is impossible to draw any authoritative conclusions from Dahlen's experiment, however, without at least one independent replication of the effects that he observed. While the presence of a control sample with unchanging hardness constitutes evidence that the hardness scale remained calibrated correctly throughout the duration of the experiment, there were no controls around the handling of the three experimental hacksaw blades. It is a well-known fact that corrosion can weaken the tensile strength of metal, and it is unknown if any corrosion occurred on any of the blades over the three-month period in which they were being tested. A replication of the experiment should control for the humidity exposure and temperature of the blades involved throughout the duration of the experiment. Furthermore, Dahlen's results are presented crudely without a proper statistical analysis. A replication should be more rigorous in its analytical approach.

It should also be noted that there are empirical grounds to view any testimony originating from PK party participants with a degree of suspicion. In a 2005 psychology study, researchers were able to lead participants to report that a key allegedly bent via what Houck would call warm forming was "still bending" when it objectively was not by using verbal suggestion (Wiseman & Greening, 2005). The type of verbal suggestion the participants were subjected to was not unlike the type of suggestion that would almost certainly be present in a PK party environment. Historically, it has been very difficult, if not impossible,

for well-intentioned scientists to observe warm forming *outside of* a PK party (Pamplin & Collins, 1975). Claimed successes certainly exist (Hasted, 1981), but they are not without controversy (Randi, 1978).

The Classical and Quantum Physics of the Plastic Deformation of Metals

To form a hypothesis on what might be occurring inside a piece of metal undergoing warm forming, it is useful to survey some relevant facts from physics and materials science. In crystalline solids such as metals, the mechanism responsible for plastic deformation (permanent shape change due to applied force) is dislocation motion, which occurs in a process called *slip*. In this context, dislocations are small misalignments and mismatches in the normally periodically repeating sheets of atoms that comprise metal crystals. Dislocation motion allows planes of atoms to slide over each other incrementally (along *slip planes*) as the mismatches are pushed through the atomic lattice instead of requiring that every bond between the moving planes be broken simultaneously. This significantly reduces the average amount of force necessary to make planes of atoms in metal slide over each other (Callister & Rethwisch, 2018).

It follows logically from this that anything that hinders dislocation motion will make a piece of metal harder to plastically deform. Point defects in crystal lattices, such as interstitial impurities (foreign atoms wedged into the crystal lattice), interact with moving dislocations. More energy is required for a dislocation to move past an interstitial impurity than through a flawless section of atomic lattice (Hull & Bacon, 2011, Section 10.4). An overabundance of dislocations can impede dislocation movement by making it more likely that dislocations run into each other. This dislocation interaction is the basis for "work hardening" (Black & Kohser, 2008, Section 3.11). In some cases, the dynamics of dislocation and interstitial impurity movement can only be understood by treating the dislocations and interstitial impurities, which are on the scale of atoms, quantum mechanically.

For example, accurately computing the diffusivity of hydrogen atoms trapped in a steel crystal (an example of interstitial impurities) requires treating individual atoms (which here are best viewed as free protons floating through a soup of electrons) as though they are spread out across multiple crystal lattice cells. Such a treatment is necessary to explain the diffusion activation energy of hydrogen in steel at room temperature. Formally, a diffusing hydrogen atom is treated as a quantum mechanical harmonic oscillator confined to a tetrahedral lattice cell. The periodicity of the underlying lattice is taken into consideration by specifying a tight-binding model hopping integral (Paxton, 2014). The value of the hopping integral specifies entries in the Hamiltonian matrix that would be used to model the wandering of the hydrogen atom from one lattice cell to neighboring cells. Tight-binding models are fundamentally approximations that simplify calculations without giving up too much predictive power. In this case, the model takes into consideration the possibility of hydrogen atoms hopping to neighboring lattice cells but not further (so most elements of the Hamiltonian matrix are zero). There is certainly a possibility that hydrogen atoms hop further than this, potentially skipping over some lattice cells. However, the probability of this occurring is so small that it is generally regarded as negligible. For a good introduction to tight-binding models, which were originally applied to electrons moving between atoms and not atoms moving between lattice cells, see Chapter 11 of "The Oxford Solid State Basics" by Simon (2013).

Like interstitial impurities, the dynamics of dislocation movement have a pronounced quantum mechanical aspect. In solid copper, dislocation kinks (small step-like bends in dislocations that reside in the

slip plane) in screw dislocations can quantumly tunnel through the atomic lattice that contains them. At first glance, this is quite peculiar, given that these kinks are structures composed of hundreds of atoms. It is exceptionally abnormal for such large structures to quantumly tunnel. There is a good explanation for this behavior, justified by atomic simulations based on interatomic potentials.

A dislocation kink is an arrangement of metal atoms in the same way that a ripple in a pond is an arrangement of water molecules. As a kink moves, it becomes composed of new atoms. It is not by itself a collection of specific atoms. When a kink in a screw dislocation in copper moves by one atomic length, each individual atom that shifts as a result of the movement only shifts a small fraction of a lattice cell width– no more than approximately 0.1Å at most. As a result of this, the energy required to make a dislocation kink move is estimated to be on the order of 0.1μeV, which is 10^5 times smaller than the energy required to move a dislocation jog (a small step-like bend in a dislocation that bends out of the slip plane). This "kink-migration barrier" is small enough that heat and quantum fluctuations can both reasonably be expected to cause these kinks to move (Vegge et al., 2001).

What Processes Can Micro-PK Affect?

It is crucial to understand micro-PK not as a force that bends the behavior of quantum systems outside of the probabilistic laws of quantum mechanics, but rather as a force that induces meaningful correlations between the random outcomes of quantum events and events occurring at macroscopic, human-sized scales. This concept is illustrated well by Lucadou's fractal experiment, which appears to be easily reproducible. In the experiment, volunteers are individually placed in front of a computer screen with a fractal on it. A portion of the fractal is colored, and when the volunteers hit the left or right "shift" keys, the portion of the fractal that is colored changes by moving in some direction in a continuous manner based on data obtained from a quantum random number generator. They are shown on-screen instructions telling them which way the colored portion of the fractal should be moved (to the left, right, or middle of the screen) and instructed to use their intention to make the motion of the colored portion conform to these instructions after every "shift" key press. The volunteers are allowed to press the shift key(s) of their choice a large but predetermined number of times. During the experiment, many "physical" quantities pertaining to the output of the quantum random number generator are recorded, and many "psychological" quantities pertaining to the behavior of the volunteers during the experiment are recorded. Immediately after each volunteer participates in the experiment, a new set of "physical" quantities is recorded from the quantum random number generator without a human operator attempting to influence them, and the results are set aside as a control dataset.

Some examples of "physical" quantities recorded in these experiments are the number of times the motion of the fractal conformed to the movement direction instructions, the mean voltage output of the quantum random number generator, and the standard deviation of the voltage output of the quantum random number generator. Some examples of "psychological" quantities include the number of left "shift" key presses, the number of right "shift" key presses, and the mean time between key presses. After the experiment, a table is created with every "physical" quantity observed during the experiment assigned to a row and every "psychological" quantity observed during the experiment assigned to a column. The Spearman's correlations between the quantities assigned to the rows and columns are computed, and the table is populated. The number of correlations in the table meeting an arbitrary predeter-

mined significance threshold is counted for each volunteer participating in the experiment, and this count is set aside. The same correlation count statistic is computed for each volunteer using their control dataset, and this count, too, is set aside. The difference between the experimental and control correlation count is then computed for each volunteer, and these difference values are used as input to the next stage of statistical analysis.

In the next stage of statistical analysis, a nonparametric permutation test is conducted with the experimental and control datasets to determine the likelihood that the differences calculated in the previous stage occurred by chance (the null hypothesis). A 2019 replication of this experiment rejected the null hypothesis with a p-value of 0.0177. Lucadou and his colleagues view the results of this experiment and its replications as evidence that micro-PK does not exert a direct causal effect on the outcome of random quantum events. Instead, it induces an "entanglement-like" correlation between the outcomes of quantum events and meaningful events occurring at macroscopic scales (Walach et al., 2020). An experiment examining the effect of concentration on an array of quantum random number generators has demonstrated that concentration can induce a correlation between the outputs of individual random number generators in the array (Carpenter et al., 2021), giving further support to Lucadou and his coauthors' interpretation of their results. So, what sorts of microscopic effects should we look for when analyzing a macroscopic system that we expect to be influenced by micro-PK?

Theoreticians cannot invoke micro-PK as a trump card to postulate that arbitrary microscopic phenomena are occurring. We should not expect micro-PK to haphazardly snap chemical bonds en masse or directly bias the outcome of individual quantum events beyond their probability distributions determined by quantum mechanics. At best, micro-PK can affect a macroscopic system by inducing correlations between conscious intent and the individual probabilistic quantum mechanical events inside of it, but only if the system's macroscopic behavior is determined in some way by the outcome of these probabilistic quantum events. The correlation here is posited to be strictly between intention and the outcome of individual quantum events, not between pairs of quantum events. In order for a macroscopic PK effect to be realized, it must be possible to realize the effect as a plausible outcome of the normal time-evolution of the system's Hamiltonian. The macroscopic system itself must be treated as an open quantum system. This view echoes the sentiment of Jean Burns, who theorized that PK interactions work by "ordering" quantum fluctuations "within the limits of the uncertainty principle" (Burns, 2006). The challenge of realizing a macroscopic PK effect is akin, in a way, to solving a Sudoku puzzle, as nature must realize the effect, if possible, by selecting from a number of allowed, plausible time evolutions. This is done automatically in a law-like way, almost as if an action integral of some sort is being implicitly minimized (Hendel, 2025).

Hypothesis

The central hypothesis of this paper is that when a metal object being warm formed briefly becomes significantly more malleable than usual, this is due to micro-PK influences affecting the movement of specific crystalline defects in the metal object whose behavior and movement must be viewed quantum mechanically. Given Houck's anecdotal observation that metals with more dislocations are easier to warm form, it is likely that dislocations (or at least some specific types of dislocations, perhaps with additional properties) play a pivotal role in this process. Under normal circumstances, one would expect metals with more dislocations to be harder to plastically deform due to dislocations running into each other, but for

some reason, during warm forming, the opposite is true. Based on our current understanding of micro-PK, we should expect that the malleable state occurs when the random motions of various crystalline defects become harmonized in some way, but do not flippantly disobey their probability distributions specified by the laws of quantum mechanics. In reported cases of deformation of metal by intention, there is, generally, still force being applied to the metal object as it is being bent. It is only necessary for this posited harmonization to prevent the crystalline defects, which are being moved by mechanical force, from getting tangled with or bumping into each other to some degree.

In its current form, this hypothesis is not directly falsifiable because it is not specific enough to be. It does not specify what defect interactions are influenced to give rise to the warm forming phenomenon or how specifically they are being influenced. It will likely not be possible to amend this hypothesis to be falsifiable without more empirical observations of the microstructure of warm formed metal objects. Houck and his contemporaries never examined warm formed metals closely enough to spot potential abnormalities in the interactions and motion of lattice imperfections with widths on the atomic scale. However, some of his observations could pave the way towards theory development. Houck's anecdotal observation that warm formed metal sometimes continues to bend by itself for up to several days is extremely valuable. If empirically true, this fact would imply that warm forming leaves metal in a fundamentally unstable state, likely involving unevenly distributed internal stresses. This unstable, final state (which presumably deterio-rates entirely within a few days after warm forming) could be the target of future observations.

Regardless of the process involved in the state decay, it appears that the decay process itself either induces or releases residual stresses in metal objects, which can be easily measured using standard techniques such as X-ray diffraction. Modern X-ray diffraction techniques can be made to have very high spatial resolution on the order of 5-10μm (Winiarski et al., 2016), but these techniques can only measure residual stresses a small distance below exposed metal surfaces (Fitzpatrick et al., 2005). It should be possible to construct an experiment in which a number of warm formed objects have residual stress measurements taken in many locations repeatedly at fixed time intervals immediately after warm forming and continu-ing for several days. Observations about time-varying residual stresses should be easy to make and could prove helpful to theory development. Many commercially available X-ray diffraction devices are small and portable and could be used on-site at a PK party. Any experiment done on warm formed objects will have to take into account the possibility that any single warm formed object in any specific experiment might not have been warm formed to begin with. In all experiments involving warm forming, there is always a possibility that volunteer warm formers have deluded themselves into genuinely believing that they have done warm forming when, in reality, they have just used mechanical force.

Based on Houck's anecdotal observations, it should be easy to blindly distinguish between a group of metal objects that has been bent via mechanical action and a group of metal objects that has been bent via warm forming. For each metal object in both groups, pick some number of equidistantly spaced points on the object (thirty, say) and measure the residual stresses at the thirty points on every object every few hours for a few days. The stresses at the individual points in the warm forming group should change more over time than the stresses at the individual points in the mechanical action group. A linear mixed-effects model with random intercepts and random slopes could be used to rigorously quantify the changes and determine if they are significant. The residual stress data here is structured in four levels: (1) time, (2) measurement locations, (3) metal objects, and (4) group (mechanical action vs. warm forming). Such an

experimental setup would allow an effect to be recognized even if some portion of the warm forming group was only bent via mechanical action. The mechanical action specimens in the warm forming group would themselves be indistinguishable from the specimens of the mechanical action group, but a small number of genuinely warm formed specimens in the warm forming group would make the warm forming group in its entirety statistically different from the mechanical action group.

Given Houck's anecdotal observations on the role of dislocations in warm forming, throwing every trick in the book at warm formed objects on this front might be productive. Standard dislocation observation techniques such as transmission electron microscopy, decoration methods, and field ion microscopy can be used to gather more information on any atomic-scale anomalies in the microstructure of warm formed metal objects. Field ion microscopy can additionally be used to observe the position of lattice vacancies (Hull & Bacon, 2011, Chapter 2). Here again, the potential existence of some decay process following warm forming should be taken into account. Observations concerning warm formed objects should be made repeatedly at fixed time intervals in the days following warm forming, ideally starting immediately after warm forming has been completed.

Historical Context of Hypothesis

The hypothesis presented here is original but not entirely unprecedented. Before Houck discovered a method that allows average members of the general public to perform warm forming, research on "paranormal metal-bending" focused on gifted experiment participants. A detailed bibliography of pre-Houck work on the deformation of metal by intention is included in David Robertson's paper "Material Deformation," presented at the 2003 "Science and Whole Person Healing" conference. In 1977, four years prior to Houck's first PK party, J. B. Hasted and David Robertson speculated that "the formation of loop and other dislocations" is a "primary" mechanism in psychic metal bending and went on to conjecture that this mechanism "may well be connected with the role of the observer in quantum mechanics." This hypothesis is based on empirical observations made by Crussard and Bouvaist while working with experiment participant Jean-Pierre Girard. Hasted and Robertson even went so far as to suggest that the mechanism be referred to as "mentally induced tunnel effects" despite lacking a modern understanding of the role of quantum mechanical processes in the plastic deformation of metal. The pair subscribed to the hypothesis that a quasi-viscous-creep-like process occurs during paranormal metal-bending that is allowed to occur due to thin layers of atoms on grain boundaries temporarily melting (Hasted & Robertson, 1977). This idea seeped into Houck's theoretical work, as he postulated an identical hypothesis to explain warm forming (Houck, 2003).

Conclusion

We have reexamined the work of Jack Houck from a modern perspective. Significant progress has been made in materials science and parapsychology since the 1980s, when Houck produced the bulk of his work. The recent development of new, innovative, and replicable micro-PK experiments, coupled with a modern understanding of the role of probabilistic processes in the plastic deformation of metal, offers contemporary observers a perspective on warm forming that was not available to Houck and his colleagues. Further experimentation on the deformation of metal by intention has the potential to lead to the development of a general theory of macro-PK that treats macro-PK events as collections of distinct

micro-PK events. A better understanding of the mechanisms underpinning warm forming can likely be acquired using standard experimental techniques.

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Una Hipótesis Especulativa sobre los Mecanismos de Deformación del Metal por Intención: Una Reexaminación Moderna del Trabajo de Jack Houck

Resumen: Aquí reexaminamos el trabajo de Jack Houck sobre la deformación del metal por intención (denominado "conformado en tibio" o warm forming) y presentamos una hipótesis especulativa para explicar el fenómeno, motivada por avances recientes en ciencia de materiales y parapsicología. Hipotetizamos que cuando un objeto metálico se deforma durante el conformado en tibio, esto se debe a influencias de micro-PQ que afectan el movimiento de defectos cristalinos específicos en el objeto metálico, cuyo comportamiento y movimiento deben ser interpretados desde la mecánica cuántica. Se expone el método utilizado para derivar esta hipótesis, el cual probablemente tenga aplicaciones a otros fenómenos parapsicológicos complejos. Los cristales metálicos ideales son fáciles de teorizar debido a su naturaleza periódica, y la comprensión de la micro-PQ obtenida del estudio del fenómeno de conformado en tibio podría aplicarse para entender mejor el efecto de la consciencia sobre los sistemas biológicos.

Palabras clave: *intención humana, parapsicología teórica, micro-PQ, macro-PQ, consciencia*

Eine spekulative Hypothese zu den Mechanismen der Verformung von Metall durch Intention: Eine moderne Neubetrachtung der Arbeiten von Jack Houck

Zusammenfassung: Wir überprüfen Jack Houcks Arbeiten zur Verformung von Metall durch Willenskraft (als „Warmformung" bezeichnet) und stellen eine spekulative Hypothese zur Erklärung dieses Phänomens vor, die durch aktuelle Fortschritte in der Materialwissenschaft und Parapsychologie angeregt ist. Wir stellen die Hypothese auf, dass die Verformung eines Metallobjekts während des Warmformens auf Mikro-PK-Einflüsse zurückzuführen ist, die die Bewegung spezifischer Kristallfehlstellen im Metallobjekt beeinflussen, deren Verhalten und Bewegung quantenmechanisch betrachtet werden müssen. Die zur Herleitung dieser Hypothese verwendete Methode wird dargelegt und lässt sich vermutlich auch auf andere komplexe parapsychologische Phänomene anwenden. Ideale Metallkristalle lassen sich aufgrund ihrer periodischen Struktur leicht theoretisch beschreiben, und ein durch die Untersuchung des Warmformungsphänomens gewonnenes Verständnis von Mikro-PK könnte genutzt werden, um die Wirkung des Bewusstseins auf biologische Systeme besser zu verstehen.

Schlüsselbegriffe: *menschliche Intention, theoretische Parapsychologie, Mikro-PK, Makro-PK, Bewusstsein*

Une hypothèse spéculative sur les mécanismes de déformation de métaux par l'intention : un ré-examen moderne du travail de Jack Houck

Résumé : Nous réexaminons ici les travaux de Jack Houck sur la déformation du métal par l'intention (appelée « formage à chaud ») et présentons une hypothèse spéculative visant à expliquer ce phénomène, inspirée par les avancées récentes en science des matériaux et en parapsychologie. Nous émettons l'hypothèse que lorsqu'un objet métallique se déforme lors du formage à chaud, cela est dû à des influences micro-PK affectant le mouvement de défauts cristallins spécifiques dans l'objet métallique, dont le comportement et le mouvement doivent être considérés sous l'angle de la mécanique quantique. La méthode utilisée pour déduire cette hypothèse est exposée et pourrait trouver des applications à d'autres phénomènes parapsychologiques complexes. Les cristaux métalliques idéaux sont faciles à théoriser en raison de leur nature périodique, et la compréhension de la micro-PK acquise grâce à l'étude du phénomène de formage à chaud pourrait être appliquée pour mieux comprendre l'effet de la conscience sur les systèmes biologiques.

Mots-clés : *intention humaine, parapsychologie théorique, micro-PK, macro-PK, conscience*

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Effect of Electromagnetic Field Strength on Psi Performance: A Randomized Controlled Trial

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Abstract: A replication experiment tested the possible influence of electromagnetic fields (EMFs) on psi performance. Previous research suggested psi was enhanced inside a structure with attenuated EMFs, and reduced when that structure was ungrounded.

Method: A within-subjects, triple-blind, randomized controlled study invited a convenience sample of 45 participants to perform a psi test under four EMF conditions. The test paired two participants, one acting as "sender" and one as "receiver." The sender attempted to "transmit" eight photographs arranged in a circular pattern; the receiver attempted to recreate the arrangement. Scoring was based on the number of photographs placed in the same positions. The receiver did these tests in four EMF conditions, with a Faraday tent used to modulate EMFs. Condition 1 was outside the tent. The other conditions were inside the tent, with condition 2 in attenuated EMF, tent grounded; condition 3 in attenuated EMF, tent ungrounded; and condition 4 with environmental EMF, tent grounded.

Results: No differences in psi performance were found between the conditions (Friedman ANOVA Chi Square (N = 144, df = 3) = .561, p = 0.905), and results did not vary from chance.

Conclusion: These results do not support previous suggestions of an EMF-psi relationship.

Keywords: *parapsychology; electromagnetic fields; Faraday cage; psi; psychic; telepathy*

Objective

The existence of psychic (psi) phenomena has been well established through multiple meta-analytical studies (Cardeña et al., 2015; Storm & Tressoldi, 2023). However, two persistent challenges faced by researchers in parapsychology and many other areas of inquiry involve small effect sizes and inconsistent results in replication attempts (Cardeña, 2018; Reber & Alcock, 2020). The Anomalous Cognition

with Electromagnetic Shielding (ACES) study tested an approach for potentially enhancing performance in psi experiments. This study attempted to replicate previous research by Andreja Puharich (A. Puharich, 1962; H. K. Puharich, 1957, 1966; Puharich also used the name H. K. Puharich) and Charles Tart (1988). Their studies suggested reducing exposure to environmental electromagnetic (EM) fields through use of a grounded Faraday cage could increase the accuracy and consistency of psi performance. They also suggested psi accuracy would decrease if the Faraday cage were not grounded. The ACES study sought to replicate the Tart study using a more rigorous design with more participants.

Some early researchers suggested psi communication occurred through the mechanism of EM fields (Persinger, 1974; Raudive, 1971; Stewart & Tait, 1875). This hypothesis was not supported by later research, and EM fields were eventually discarded as a likely medium for information transfer in psi phenomena (Schwartz, 1978; Taylor & Balanovski, 1979). The idea of EM fields being the medium of information transfer would also not likely explain precognition (Bem et al., 2016; Bem, 2011; Kremer, 2022) or retrocognition (Dean, 1974; Shafer, 2023). However, both anomalously transferred information and EM fields can affect human psychophysiology. Therefore, it is possible that EM fields affect the reception or interpretation of psi signals, and thus influence psi performance. In this way, investigation into the relationship between EM fields and psi performance remains relevant.

Physiological responses to anomalous information transfer have been noted previously in psi research (Radin, 2015). For example, a study at Bastyr University (Standish et al., 2004) recorded EEGs for pairs of people who had experience meditating together. The pairs were seated in separate rooms and one person was randomly shown a visual image known to evoke a particular pattern of electrical activity in the brain. The same evoked response was found in the partner′ s brainwaves at those same times. A study at the Institute of Noetic Science (Radin & Schlitz, 2005) placed romantic partners in separate buildings. Emotionally charged or emotionally neutral visual stimuli were randomly shown to one partner. The other partner, who was in an electrically-shielded enclosure, showed changes in gastric system electrical activity when the first person was shown emotionally charged images but not neutral images. This suggests that psi information directly affects human physiology.

It is possible that EM fields enhance or impede "psi signal" responses in the body, or the processing of that information. Thousands of studies in psychophysiology and bioelectromagnetics have documented the influence of EM fields on mental and physiological processes, both positive and negative (Markov, 2015). EM fields are widely used in medicine to support healing (Barnes & Greenebaum, 2018), and have also been used to support mental health (Cosmo et al., 2021). On the other hand, EM fields may increase the risk of or cause disease (Bortkiewicz, 2019; Loomis et al., 2018; Pareja-Peña et al., 2022) and impair cognitive functions (Calvente et al., 2016; Ishihara et al., 2020). Radiofrequency EM fields have been found to interfere with nerve signal transmission (Bertagna et al., 2021; Fragopoulou et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2017) and change patterns of brain activity (Hinrikus et al., 2021; Wallace & Selmaoui, 2019).

Though EM fields do not appear to be the medium of information transmission in psi, it is possible they can influence psi performance indirectly by influencing human physiology. A review of decades of psi research that retroactively compared results with records of geomagnetic activity found strong correlation between the two variables (Berger, 1991). When geomagnetic activity was measured contemporaneously

with psi performance, the association became even more pronounced (Haraldsson & Gissurarson, 1987; Krippner & Persinger, 1996; Ryan, 2008; Ryan & Spottiswoode, 2015).

In controlled conditions, Puharich's research (1957) suggested psi performance of psychically-talented individuals could be enhanced in an electrically-grounded, electromagnetically-shielded chamber (Faraday cage), or inhibited in an electrically-floating shielded chamber. Tart (1988) tested this assumption in a study with thirteen volunteers whose psi abilities were not known prior to the study. Participants alternated the roles of sender and receiver in a circular matching abacus test (card-matching exercise). Each percipient, isolated in a Faraday cage, was asked to intuitively match the order of ten cards, arranged and telepathically communicated to them by an agent located in a distant room. Significant above-chance hits were measured in the grounded-cage condition, while chance scoring occurred in the floating-cage configuration, apparently confirming Puharich's results.

Some limitations of Tart's study (1988) included that the researchers had knowledge of whether the shielded chamber was in an electrically grounded or ungrounded condition, that participants were given immediate feedback on their psi performance, and that they were given positive acknowledgment for scores reflecting successful reception of psi information. Any of these factors might have influenced participant performance. In a condition where anomalous access to telepathically transmitted information is being tested, participants with psi ability might just as easily have accessed the researcher's knowledge of the experimental conditions, and may have produced results congruent with the researcher's expectations (Parker & Millar, 2014; Rosenthal, 1971; Wiseman & Schlitz, 2017). There is also evidence that prompt performance feedback and positive acknowledgment for successful psi performance can enhance performance (Tart et al., 1979; Vitulli, 1982).

The ACES study sought to replicate the Tart (1988) study using a more rigorous design with more participants in order to identify a set of EM factors that might enhance or inhibit psi effect size and reliability for possible use in future research on psi phenomena. In order to correct for limitations in Tart's design, the current study used a triple-blind protocol and participants were not given feedback on their performance until several months after the completion of their participation. The ACES study hypotheses were that psi performance would be enhanced when the percipients were inside a grounded Faraday structure that reduced exposure to environmental EMFs, and that psi performance would be reduced when the percipients were inside an ungrounded Faraday structure.

Method

This study used a triple-blind (researchers, participants, and statistician) protocol under four electromagnetic conditions. The psi test asked people acting as receivers to arrange a set of 8 cards in the same pattern as a set of cards being viewed by the person acting as a sender. The within-subjects design randomized conditions for receivers rather than randomizing participants to conditions.

Using the *Journal of Parapsychology*'s scale for rating researchers' *a priori* beliefs that the hypotheses would be supported (5 = strong belief, 4 = moderate belief, 3 = neutral, 2 = moderate non-belief, 1 = strong non-belief; Journal of Parapsychology), the research team on average had a moderate belief (4).

Participants

A convenience sample of participants was recruited through email solicitation of student groups at two universities, selected Meetup groups, and targeted special interest groups. All participants signed and submitted complete informed consent documents, which also included the California Bill of Rights for Participants in Psychological Research. The informed consent offered a $100 gift certificate to people who completed at least three sessions. It contained the following self-reported inclusion criteria: participants must be at least 18 years old; be able to speak, read, and write English; not have been diagnosed with major depression, bipolar disorder, psychotic episodes, or schizophrenia within the past five years; not currently taking any medications for depression, anxiety, or other mood disorders; not experience claustrophobia (fear of being in enclosed spaces); and must live in the San Francisco Bay Area.

Table 1: Sample Demographics (n = 45)

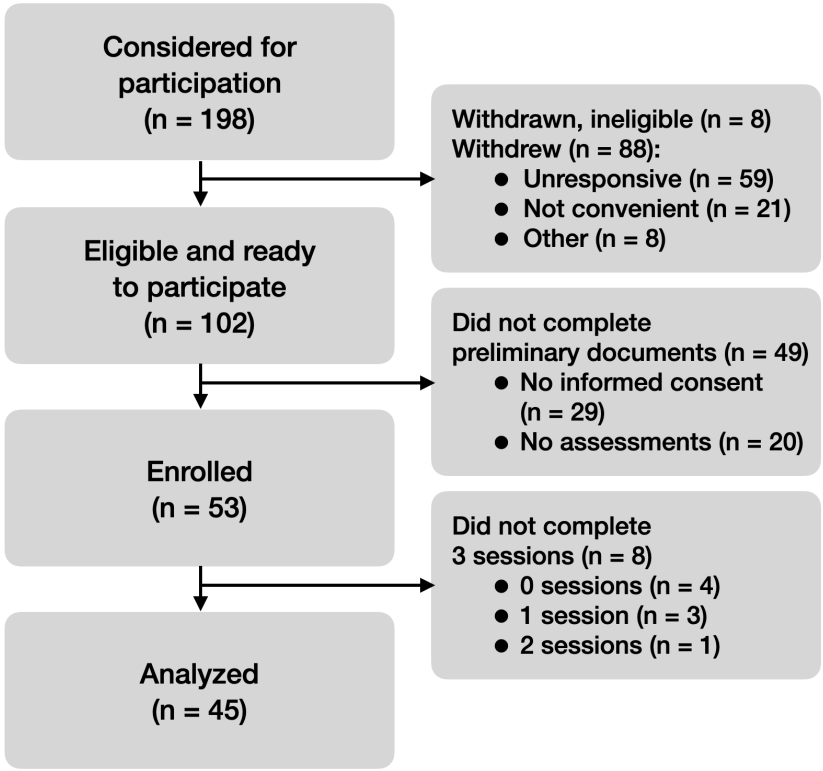
Gender	
Female	28
Male	17
Age	
Range	24-72
Mean (SD)	42.9 (14.8)
Ethnicity (Multiple selections allowed)	
American Indian	1
Asian	4
African American	0
Hispanic	5
White	40
Other	1
No answer	1
Education	
Some college	2
Undergraduate degree	21
Graduate degree	21
Prefer not to answer	1

Participant recruitment efforts yielded responses from 198 people. Of these, 53 people were eligible and enrolled in the study after completing the informed consent and required questionnaires. Participants were paired with each other based on availability, and were paired with a different partner for each of their three sessions. Participants needed to complete three sessions in which both pairs of people in the session completed study participation for their data to be included in the analysis.

Data from participants who did not complete the required three visits were not included in the final dataset. Four people who were enrolled completed no sessions. Anyone who had completed a session with a person who later dropped out was asked to perform an additional session with a different person.

Four participants completed only one or two sessions, so four other participants made up for deleted sessions by completing a fourth session. Data from the previous, unmatched sessions were removed from the dataset. The final dataset included an equal number of sessions from all participants. Forty-five people completed the necessary three sessions with qualifying partners.

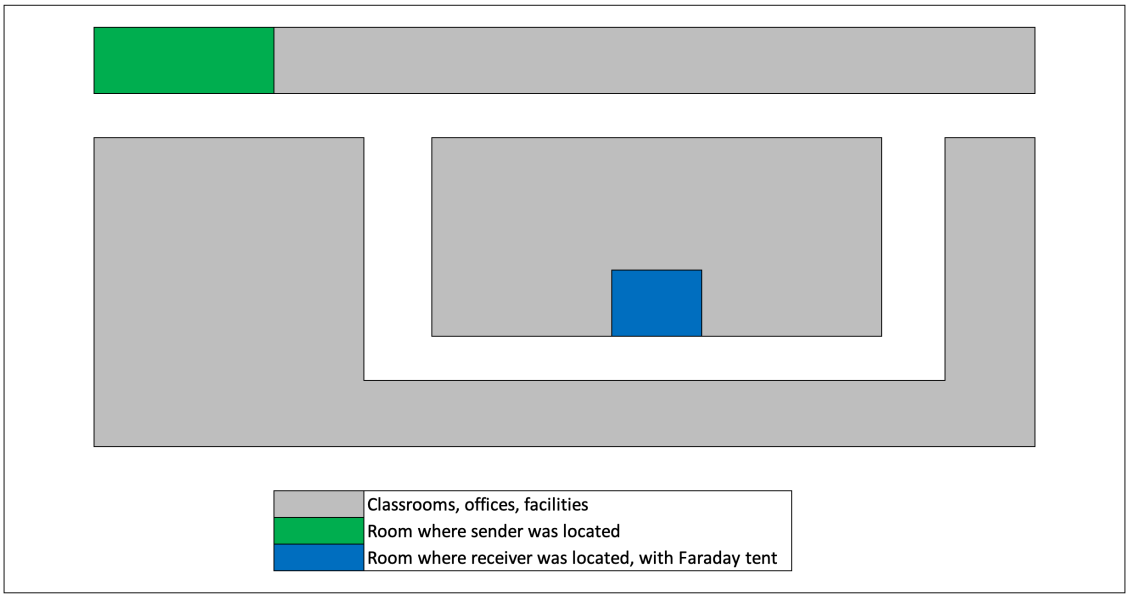
Figure 1: Participant Flow Diagram



Measures

The test of psi performance used a card matching exercise called the Circular Matching Abacus Test, as was used in both the Tart (1988) and Puharich (1957) studies. In this test, eight unique cards were placed on an upright board in random order in a circular arrangement. The "sender" focused on the arrangement of cards in front of them and the "receiver" in a separate room attempted to place a matching set of eight cards into the same positions. Cards in the same position on both sender and receiver boards were labeled as "hits." The number of hits was used as the measure of psi performance.

Figure 2: Experiment Room Locations



The cards were printed with an emotionally-evocative image on one side and had a plain back on the other. Emotionally-charged images were chosen as they have been shown to increase psychic communication (Radin & Schlitz, 2005). There were a total of 16 unique images selected from the International Affective Picture System collection, which is commonly used in psychological experiments (Lang et al., 2008). The images were selected to present a range of strong emotional responses, with unique characteristics of color, content, and contrast to enhance differentiation. The images and a sample card arrangement can be found in Appendix A.

This test design allows for assessment of overall psi performance, called general extra-sensory perception (McVaugh & Mauskopf, 1976). Participants could gain access to card placement information through a variety of means outside the usual five senses (Tart, 2009). They might be able to see the target cards psychically through clairvoyance or remote viewing (Tressoldi & Katz, 2023). Telepathy, which is the communication of information between people's minds outside of known physical means (Sheldrake et al., 2025), could potentially be used to access knowledge of the card positions through connecting with either the other participant or the research assistant. A third possible mechanism could be precognition, which is the knowledge of future conditions that could not be predicted from current conditions (Mossbridge, 2023; Utts, 2018). In this case, the participant could combine precognition with either telepathy or remote viewing to read the future card positions.

Equipment

A Faraday cage (Faraday, 1849) was used to modulate participant exposure to electromagnetic fields. A cage of this kind works by electrostatic induction: environmental electric fields induce charges on the conductors' outer surfaces, which in turn cancel the electric field within the enclosure. Solid steel cages are designed to attenuate external EM fields at frequencies above about 10 kHz. They do not reduce or only minimally reduce lower frequency EM fields, including the 60 Hz fields produced in North America by

electrical transmission wires, appliances, or any wires with alternating current flowing through them. Wire mesh Faraday cages share similar EM field attenuation in the low frequency, radio frequency, and microwave bands, with differences in the higher frequency bands. Wire mesh cages do not reduce exposure to EM fields in the visible light, ultraviolet, X-ray, and Gamma ray ranges, although a properly sealed Faraday structure made with solid sheets of conductive metal will reduce EM fields up through the X-ray range. Faraday cages do not block magnetic fields unless they are specifically designed to include magnetic shielding.

The ACES study used a double walled Faraday tent (i.e., not a solid steel cage) constructed by Holland Shielding (Dordrecht, The Netherlands). This construction's specifications reportedly reduced ambient EM fields in the 10 MHz to 3 GHz range by 70-90 dB. The tent's polyester fabric was coated with electroconductive nickel and copper. It included a shielded air ventilation system, and was placed on top of an insulating mat to isolate it from possible electric charge in the room's carpet. The tent was equipped inside with a small table and chair, lamps, and the test equipment. Grounding was accomplished with a braided metal strap connecting the tent through a switching relay to the building's conductive plumbing pipes which then connected to earth.

A custom USB-controlled 8-port relay box was constructed by computer science professor Shannon Bailey to control the three within-tent EM field conditions. One was with environmental EM fields reduced, with the tent grounded; another was with environmental EM fields reduced, with the tent ungrounded; and a third was with the environmental EM fields replicated inside the tent, with the tent grounded. This last condition was added to control for any confounds introduced by the receiver being inside a tent rather than outside, through exposure to EM fields nearly identical to those in the outside environment.

Software engineer Ahsan Z. Zahid wrote custom software in C# language to run on MS Windows and manage the relays that determined the Faraday cage's operating conditions. The software was installed on a computer outside the tent, which connected by wire to the relay box. When a research team member told the program to begin an experimental trial, it selected one of the six possible block randomization orders of the three within-tent conditions. The selection and block randomization used a spreadsheet of 2,600 condition orders created on the Research Randomizer website (www.randomizer.org). Once that trial was complete, the team member would tell the program to switch to the next trial condition. The conditions were not shown on the computer screen. After all three conditions had been completed, the program would log the times and orders. The log was downloaded at the end of each day of testing to a cloud-based file only accessible by the principal investigator.

A pair of receiving antennas outside the tent gathered the environmental EM fields across the radio frequency (RF) spectrum. A Skyscan Desktop Scanner Antenna made by Moonraker (www.moonrakeronline.com) captured signals from 25 Hz to 2000 MHz and an Omni Antenna Indoor Outdoor Mobile made by MP Antenna (https://www.mpantenna.com) captured signals from 2000 MHz to 6 GHz. The antenna's signals were carried by wire to the EM condition relay box, which then connected through an amplifier to a matching pair of antennas inside the tent. Passive signal transmission was not sufficient to replicate the outside EM signal strengths. Two ZX60-6013E-S+ linear gain block amplifiers made by Mini-Circuits (https://www.minicircuits.com) and rated for 20 MHz to 6 GHz provided a slight 50-ohm boost to compensate for transmission loss. One was connected in line for each of the matching antennas.

The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, in IEEE-299, recommends EM attenuation achieved by EM shielded enclosures be reported in decibels (dB; Krieger, n.d.). Independent certified testing by National Technical Systems (reports available on request) indicated the radiofrequency EM fields inside the tent were reduced from ambient levels by an average of 94% (range of -10 to -20 dB, mean of -12.1 dB) across the lower RF spectrum (30-1000 MHz) and by an average of 95% (range of -10 to -25 dB, mean of -12.9 dB) across the ultrahigh and microwave RF spectrum (1-6 GHz). No significant EM field differences were found inside the tent between the grounded and ungrounded conditions, as expected for a conductive enclosure, since grounding primarily affects static charge dissipation and has minimal impact on low-frequency magnetic or radiofrequency field transmission. There was no formal testing of the AM radiofrequency band (540-1700 kHz), but informal testing with an ICOM IC-R20 radio receiver indicated substantial attenuation.

Formal testing of the within-tent replication of the outside-the-tent EM fields found that the mirrored field strengths were somewhat variable by location inside the tent, with higher field strength in the structure's inside corners. The fields in the central space where participants were seated closely approximated the outside-the-tent fields in frequency and strength. The replicated signals were consistently shifted upward in frequency by about 15 MHz across the full range tested (30 MHz to 6 GHz).

Procedures

Each pair of participants completed two sets of four card-matching exercises during the session, one set as sender and one as receiver. The first set of four exercises used one paired deck of eight cards, with images labeled 1-8, in all four trial conditions. The second set of four exercises used a second paired deck of eight cards, labeled 9-16 (see Appendix A). There was no change in the sender's environment during the set of four exercises. The first exercise for the receiver was always done in the outside-the-tent condition and the next three were done inside the tent. A set of four exercises usually took 30 minutes. With the welcoming procedures, one set of exercises, exchanging roles, another set of exercises, and the instructions and expressions of gratitude at the end, a full session would last approximately 90 minutes.

Preparation. The team of research assistants (RAs) arrived early to set up and test the study equipment before the participants arrived. Once the equipment was ready, RAs performed a "blue egg" exercise as described in Appendix B. This was a consciousness-based exercise to ground themselves and create an intentional space, protecting both testing rooms from outside conscious influence.

Next was a reminder for RAs to hold an unbiased yet warm mental attitude toward participants (Rogers, 1951; Standal, 1954) during the instruction and conversation period before the exercises. RAs were also asked to hold their attention during the experimental trials on an internal sense of calm to avoid influencing results through experimenter effects (Palmer & Millar, 2015). RAs were explicitly asked to not hold any intention to help or hinder the psi communication process between the participants.

Formal Trials. When the two participants arrived for their session, they met with two or three RAs in the room with the Faraday tent. Together they sat down and talked casually for 5 to 15 minutes with the goal of helping the participants get to know each other and perhaps build a degree of relationship, which has been shown to improve telepathic performance (Sheldrake et al., 2025). The conversational time was

also used to address and reduce any anxiety the participants may have had about being involved in the experiment.

The RAs then explained the equipment and procedures, gave participants a tour of the two rooms used in the experiments, and asked for questions. The welcoming period ended with RAs and participants standing in a circle while listening to a guided meditation. The recording focused on breathing, relaxation, and connection with self and others. The audio file is available on request.

Each RA observed and coordinated activities exclusively in either the sending room or the receiving room, communicating with each other through text messages. After the welcome procedures, the sender's RA walked with them to the other room and waited for the "Ready" signal from the receiver's RA. They then repeatedly shuffled the deck of eight cards and asked the participant to place the cards on an upright board in the randomized order. This formed the target arrangement. The sender's RA stood on the other side of the board and could not see the cards. The participant was asked to focus on the cards, and were invited to either attempt to "send" those images to the person acting as a receiver if they wished, or simply remain focused on the cards and their arrangement.

The sender's RA texted "Begin" to the receiver's RA and removed themselves to the furthest part of the room, where they then practiced an extension of the blue egg exercise (see Appendix B) and waited for the receiver's RA to text "Done." When the trial was done, the participant wrote down the image numbers on a record sheet, which the RA verified for accuracy. The RA also photographed the cards and record sheet for later verification of accuracy. They then shuffled the cards for the next trial. This process repeated through the four exercises, after which the RA placed all four record sheets in an envelope and sealed it. The RA walked the participant back to the room with the Faraday tent, waited for entry, and took the other participant back to the sender's room to begin the next set of four exercises.

The first exercise in the series was always completed at a table set up outside the Faraday tent. When the sender's RA texted "begin," the receiver was told to start placing their cards on the board in the same arrangement as the cards on the sender's board. The receiver's RA would start the timer and move to a place on the other side of the room, not visible to the participant. The receiver had up to 5 minutes to complete the arrangement. They could signal the RA if they finished early. When done, the participant wrote the card positions on a record sheet, which the RA would then verify and photograph.

The participant would then enter the Faraday tent and sit quietly for 2 minutes to acclimate to the novel environment. Then the receiver's RA coordinated with the sender's RA via text messaging to begin the next exercise. When ready, the receiver's RA used the computer program to begin the first of the three within-tent EM conditions. The communications and exercises were the same for the next three of the series. The RA would enter the tent at the end of each exercise to photograph and collect the record sheet and provide a new record sheet. At the end of the series of four exercises, the RA placed the record sheets in an envelope and seal it before allowing the sender and their RA to enter the room to help the participants exchange roles and rooms.

At the end of both sets of four exercises, participants and RAs would meet in the receiver's room. RAs debriefed the participants and responded to any questions. They were asked to not disclose their

partner's name to others, and to not try to figure out how well they performed on the exercises. They were told their results would be sent to them at the end of the study. After the participants left, the RAs checked in with each other about the process, and recorded any events in the research log document.

Blinding and Data Security. Neither participants nor researchers could see both boards or record sheets of the sender/receiver pairs either during or after the exercises. Researchers would also not see the card arrangements until after the exercise had finished. Card position record sheets were placed inside labeled envelopes and sealed after each set of four exercises. Researchers were instructed to not compare notes about the card positions they observed, and participants were asked to not discuss their memory of card positions after the exercises.

The computer software used to select the within-tent EM conditions and trigger the relays to create those conditions did not indicate the selected conditions on screen. This ensured that researchers were blind to conditions. In a review (Sheldrake, 1998), researcher blinding was used in only 0.8% of studies in biology, 5.9% of studies in medicine, and 4.9% of studies in psychology and animal studies. By contrast, researcher blinding was used in 85.2% of studies in parapsychology.

To ensure accuracy of data entry, two separate teams of researchers entered the raw data from the senders' exercise record sheets into two separate spreadsheets. These sheets were then electronically compared for discrepancies. Conflicting entries were resolved through referencing the original documents and photographs, resulting in an accurate dataset. This same duplication process was then used to enter data for the receivers' record sheets.

The cleaned datasets of participant records were then placed in a new spreadsheet with numerical codes used to identify participants, sessions, and exercises. The EM conditions for each trial were also numerically coded so the statistician would be blinded as to condition.

Data Analysis Plan

Based on previous research (Puharich, 1957; Tart, 1988) the ACES study's primary hypothesis was that there would be a statistically significant difference in psi performance among the four experimental conditions. The four conditions were 1) receiving participant outside the Faraday tent, exposed to regular environmental EM fields, 2) inside the tent, with the outside EM fields replicated, 3) inside the tent with reduced exposure to EM fields, tent grounded, and 4) inside the tent with reduced exposure to EM fields, tent ungrounded.

The secondary hypotheses named in the grant proposal were that A) psi performance in condition 1 will be higher than chance expectations, B) psi performance in condition 2 will equal performance in condition 1, C) psi performance in condition 3 will be higher than in condition 1, and D) that psi performance in condition 4 will be lower than in condition 1. These were based on the original plan to enroll only participants who had demonstrated psi abilities during initial group screening exercises.

When not enough people qualified under those standards, the BIAL Foundation, who funded this study, agreed to change recruitment to allow recruitment of a convenience sample. With a convenience sample, psi performance was hypothesized to be at chance levels in both the outside the tent condition

and the inside the tent with outside EM fields replicated condition. The other two secondary hypotheses remained the same.

Power Analysis. A Monte Carlo simulation of card arrangements was run for both a 10-card deck as used in the Tart study and the 8-card deck used in the ACES study. The simulation ran 1,000 repetitions of 10,000 trials each. The mean and standard deviation for the 10-card deck were both 0.9998 +/- 0.01, and for the 8-card deck the mean and standard deviation were both 0.9997 +/- 0.01. The simulation findings are consistent with the expected distribution of M = 1 and SD = 1 for both decks.

The power analyses for this study were conducted using G*Power, version 3.1.9.2 (Faul et al., 2007). The Tart (1988) experiment on which this study was based reported a mean of 1.22 hits per exercise in the shielded and grounded condition, yielding a Cohen's d effect size of 0.22. If this effect size were repeated in the ACES study, it would require 130 trials in the shielded and grounded condition to produce statistically significant results (α = .05, one tailed) with a power of .8 (1 - β of .2).

Statistical Analysis. The dependent variable for EM performance was the number of cards placed in matching positions (hits) on the sender's and receiver's boards in each exercise. With 45 participants doing 3 sessions each, data were collected on hit rates for a total of 135 exercises in each the four conditions. The receiver's record sheet for one exercise showed one card number in two positions, so data from that exercise was removed from the dataset, leaving the study with data for 539 instead of 540 exercises overall.

The number of hits in each exercise is a discrete variable with a highly-skewed Poisson distribution rather than a normal distribution, requiring the use of non-parametric tests. Statistical significance was set at the p = .05 level, two-tailed.

The primary hypothesis was tested using a nonparametric Friedman ANOVA to determine whether there were significant differences between the four experimental conditions (using Statistica version 13.5.0.17, TIBCO Software Inc.). If that test showed statistical significance, then testing the secondary hypotheses would use the Wilcoxon signed-rank test to compare the median hit rates.

If the Friedman test for the primary hypothesis did not show statistical significance at the p = .05 level, it would still be possible that psi performance in some or all of the four experimental conditions would be higher than chance expectations while simultaneously not differing significantly from each other. Because of this possibility, we would then do an exploratory analysis comparing each of the four experimental conditions against chance expectation.

Results

The Friedman test showed no significant differences in psi performance among the four study conditions, p = .905 (see Table 2). Thus, the ACES study found no evidence that psi performance differed with receivers in high versus low electromagnetic field strength under controlled conditions, nor any evidence that grounding or ungrounding the Faraday tent in the EM shielded condition affected psi performance.

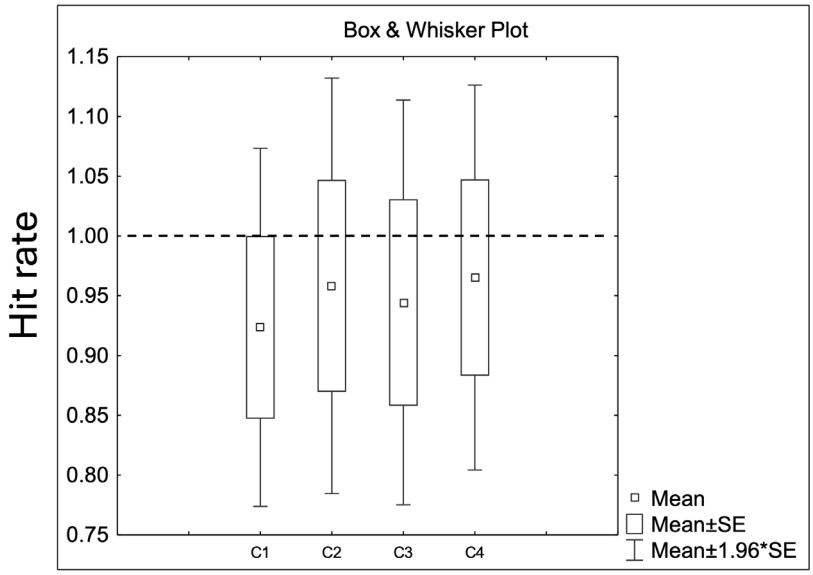
Table 2: Friedman ANOVA

Friedman ANOVA Chi Square (N = 144, df = 3) = .561; *p* = .905

Condition	Average Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mean Number of hits	Std. Dev.
Outside tent	2.559	368.5	0.965	0.985
Inside tent, reduced EM, grounded	2.472	356.0	0.924	0.917
Inside tent, reduced EM, ungrounded	2.476	356.5	0.958	1.064
Inside tent, replicated EM	2.493	359.0	0.944	1.036

As the Friedman ANOVA showed no significant differences between conditions, the observed results were then compared against chance. Chance expectation would be to have one card match (hit) per trial. Figure 3 is a box-and-whisker plot, showing the hit rate for each condition was within one standard error from chance.

Figure 3: ACES Hit Rate by Condition



Note. SE = Standard Error of the mean. C1 = Inside tent, reduced EM, grounded; C2 = Inside tent, reduced EM, ungrounded; C3 = Inside tent, replicated EM; C4 = Outside tent

The mean hit rates in the ACES study might reasonably be compared with results from the earlier

study by Tart (1988). That study included 13 participants, each of whom completed between 1 and 14 trials in a random distribution of the two trial conditions.

Table 3: Tart Hit Rate by Condition

Condition	Number of trials	Total hits	Mean hits per trial
Inside Faraday cage, grounded	76	93	1.22
Inside Faraday cage, ungrounded	74	67	0.905

Tart's significant results (1988) may have benefitted from the good luck of having 3 of the 13 participants (23%) in his convenience sample demonstrate high levels of performance. Tart had conducted an earlier study screening 1,500 people for psi ability, of whom only 10 consistently performed above the p = 0.05 level, one tailed (Tart, 1975, 1976). That ratio makes the odds of having three high performers in his 1988 sample approximately 1 in 80,000. Using Tart's operational definition, only 1 of the 45 participants (2%) in the ACES study showed that level of performance. That may have been enough of a difference to make a difference in in the studies' results.

Discussion

The ACES study found that exposure to different ambient EM field strengths did not influence psi performance. As such, it failed to reproduce the findings of the Tart (1988) study on which it was based, or the earlier Puharich research (1957). It may be that the more rigorous design and larger sample size yielded a more accurate null result, or that several other factors may have contributed to this outcome.

Regarding the latter possibilities, the first is the quality of the EM conditions themselves. The double-walled Faraday tent used in this study reduced the strength of higher frequency EM field exposure by about 95% in the EM shielded versus unshielded condition. The Tart (1988) and Puharich (1957) studies, which both used a Faraday cage with solid copper sheeting, did not accurately measure the resulting EM field reduction, so it is not possible to know with certainty what attenuation those tests provided. Properly sealed, that type of structure would typically reduce radiofrequency EM field strength by 99.98% or more. Tart (1988) reported most AM and FM radio broadcasts could not be detected by a portable radio inside the shielded structure, but noted that one nearby high-powered FM broadcast could still be clearly heard, suggesting that shielding may not have been optimal.

Unfortunately, comprehensive and reliable data on environmental EM fields are not available for the locations of either previous study at the time they were undertaken (Puharich, 1957; Tart, 1988). This makes it difficult to directly compare environmental EM fields between the ACES study and earlier research. The rapid and substantial increase in use of radio frequency and microwave frequency EM fields over the past few decades due to increases in public and private broadcast networks, cellular phone com-

munications, and WiFi signals means the environmental EM fields in the city where this study's data were collected (San Francisco) are possibly orders of magnitude higher than they were during the 1988 Tart study in Sacramento, which were themselves probably much higher than during the Puharich studies in remote Maine in the 1950s and 1960s.

While the magnitude of signal attenuation between outside EM environments and the shielded environments may be similar enough between the three studies for a fair comparison, the field strength inside the Faraday tent today would likely still be substantially higher than the field strength outside the Faraday cages in the previous studies. This means the overall EM levels present inside the shielded spaces for the ACES study may have been much higher than levels in the shielded spaces for the other studies, possibly reducing their potential benefits for psi performance.

Another consideration is that Puharich (1957) reportedly worked only with high-performing participants in his research. Tart's study (1988) found 3 of the 13 participants in his convenience sample were high performers. The ACES study used a convenience sample of participants who were not pre-screened for psi ability, and only 1 of the 45 participants demonstrated high performance.

Another factor that may have affected the outcome in the earlier studies is that the researchers were not blinded to the EM conditions, and the participants were either not blind or only partially blind to the EM conditions. In addition, the lead researchers in those studies also performed the statistical analyses. The ACES study used a triple-blind design, in which researchers, participants, and the statistician were all blind to conditions.

The experimenter effect and the impact of performance feedback may have also contributed to the difference between our results and those of earlier studies. Both Puharich (1957) and Tart (1988) provided immediate feedback to participants on the accuracy of their predictions, which has been shown to improve psi performance (Tart et al., 1979; Vitulli, 1982). Both Puharich and Tart informed participants that they wanted to demonstrate differences between conditions. Tart and his team members explicitly acted as cheerleaders for his student participants, some of whom were also involved in the research. Participants would receive their results immediately and celebrate any high scores.

The ACES study, by contrast, took an intentionally agnostic approach, wanting the only influence on results to be the presence or absence of the different EM fields. Participants were not informed of the results from previous EM studies and were not provided with performance feedback during the course of the study. ACES participants did receive summaries of their performance several months after data collection concluded. The researchers were all trained in holding non-directive emotional states during the experiments. Any or all of these changes may well have contributed to a flattening of the measured performance.

In conclusion, we regard the ACES study results as challenging the previous researchers' findings rather than conclusively refuting them. It is possible that differences in EM fields influence psi performance for individuals with high psi talent, especially in conditions with optimal EM shielding. Additional future research might also compare performance between groups in which one arm has active experimenter support and immediate participant feedback, and another arm does not.

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Efecto de la Intensidad del Campo Electromagnético sobre el Desempeño Psi: Un Ensayo Controlado Aleatorizado

Resumen: Un experimento de replicación evaluó la posible influencia de los campos electromagnéticos (EMF) sobre el desempeño psi. Investigaciones previas sugirieron que el psi se incrementaba dentro de una estructura con EMF atenuados, y se reducía cuando dicha estructura se encontraba sin conexión a tierra.

Método: Un estudio intra-sujetos, triple ciego, controlado y aleatorizado convocó una muestra por conveniencia de 45 participantes a realizar una prueba psi bajo cuatro condiciones de EMF. La prueba emparejaba a dos participantes, uno actuando como "emisor" y otro como "receptor." El emisor intentaba "transmitir" ocho fotografías dispuestas en un patrón circular; el receptor intentaba recrear la disposición. La puntuación se basó en el número de fotografías colocadas en las mismas posiciones. El receptor realizó estas pruebas en cuatro condiciones de EMF, utilizando una carpa de Faraday para modular los EMF. La condición 1 fue fuera de la carpa. Las otras condiciones fueron dentro de la carpa, con la condición 2 en EMF atenuados, carpa con conexión a tierra; la condición 3 en EMF atenuados, carpa sin conexión a tierra; y la condición 4 con EMF ambientales, carpa con conexión a tierra.

Resultados: No se encontraron diferencias en el desempeño psi entre las condiciones (Friedman ANOVA Chi-cuadrado (N = 144, df = 3) = .561, p = 0.905), y los resultados no difirieron del azar.

*Conclusión***:** Estos resultados no respaldan las sugerencias previas sobre una relación EMF-psi.

Palabras clave: *parapsicología; campos electromagnéticos; jaula de Faraday; psi; psíquico; telepatía*

Einfluss der elektromagnetischen Feldstärke auf die Psi-Leistung: Eine randomisierte kontrollierte Studie

Zusammenfassung: In einem Replikationsexperiment wurde der mögliche Einfluss elektromagnetischer Felder (EMF) auf die Psi-Leistung untersucht. Frühere Forschungsergebnisse deuteten darauf hin, dass die Psi-Leistung in einem Gebäude mit abgeschwächten EMF verstärkt und bei einem nicht geerdeten Gebäude reduziert war.

Methode: In einer randomisierten, kontrollierten Dreifachblindstudie mit wiederholten Messungen wurden 45 Probanden (Gelegenheitsstichprobe) eingeladen, einen Psi-Test unter vier verschiedenen EMF-Bedingungen durchzuführen. Bei dem Test wurden jeweils zwei Teilnehmer zu Paaren zusammengestellt, wobei einer als „Sender" und einer als „Empfänger" fungierte. Der Sender versuchte, acht kreisförmig angeordnete Fotos zu „übertragen"; der Empfänger versuchte, diese Anordnung nachzubilden. Die Bewertung erfolgte anhand der Anzahl der Fotos, die an denselben Positionen platziert wurden. Der Empfänger führte diese Tests unter vier verschiedenen EMF-Bedingungen durch, wobei ein Faraday-Zelt zur Modulation der EMFs verwendet wurde. Bei Bedingung 1 war der Empfänger außerhalb des Zeltes. Die anderen Bedin-

gungen wurden innerhalb des Zeltes durchgeführt: Bedingung 2 bei abgeschwächten EMFs und geerdetem Zelt; Bedingung 3 bei abgeschwächten EMFs, jedoch ohne Erdung des Zeltes; und Bedingung 4 bei Umgebungs-EMFs und geerdetem Zelt.

Ergebnisse: Es wurden keine Unterschiede in der Psi-Leistung zwischen den Bedingungen festgestellt (Friedman-ANOVA-Chi-Quadrat (N = 144, df = 3) = 0,561, p = 0,905), und die Ergebnisse wichen nicht von der Zufallserwartung ab.

Schlussfolgerung: Diese Ergebnisse stützen frühere Annahmen über einen Zusammenhang zwischen EMF und Psi nicht.

Schlüsselbegriffe: *Parapsychologie; elektromagnetische Felder; Faradayscher Käfig; Psi; paranormal; Telepathie*

Effet de la force du champ électromagnétique sur la performance psi : un essai randomisé contrôlé

Résumé : Une réplication expérimentale a permis d'évaluer l'influence potentielle des champs électromagnétiques (CEM) sur les performances psi. Des recherches antérieures suggéraient que les performances psi étaient améliorées à l'intérieur d'une structure où les CEM étaient atténués, et réduites lorsque cette structure n'était pas mise à la terre.

Méthode : Une étude contrôlée randomisée en triple aveugle, menée sur un même groupe de sujets, a invité un échantillon de commodité de 45 participants à effectuer un test psi dans quatre conditions de CEM. Le test associait deux participants, l'un jouant le rôle d'« émetteur » et l›autre celui de « récepteur ». L›émetteur tentait de « transmettre » huit photographies disposées en cercle ; le récepteur tentait de recréer cette disposition. La notation était basée sur le nombre de photographies placées aux mêmes positions. Le récepteur a effectué ces tests dans quatre conditions de CEM, une tente de Faraday étant utilisée pour moduler les CEM. La condition 1 se déroulait à l›extérieur de la tente. Les autres conditions se déroulaient à l›intérieur de la tente : la condition 2 dans un environnement de CEM atténués, la tente mise à la terre ; la condition 3 dans un environnement de CEM atténués, la tente non mise à la terre ; et la condition 4 dans un environnement de CEM ambiants, la tente mise à la terre.

Résultats : Aucune différence de performance psi n'a été constatée entre les conditions (ANOVA de Friedman, chi carré (N = 144, df = 3) = 0,561, p = 0,905), et les résultats ne s'écartaient pas du hasard.

Conclusion : Ces résultats ne corroborent pas les hypothèses antérieures suggérant une relation entre les CEM et le psi.

Mots-clés : *parapsychologie ; champs électromagnétiques ; cage de Faraday ; psi ; paranormal ; télépathie*

Appendix A
Card Images

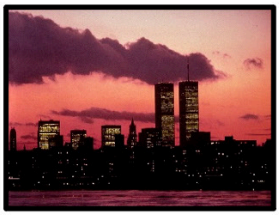
Images for first run; Exercises 1-4


1


2


3


4


5

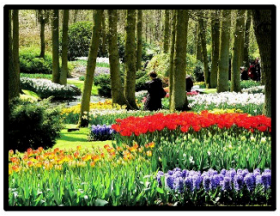

6

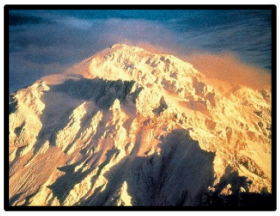

7


8

Images for second run; Exercises 5-8


9


10


11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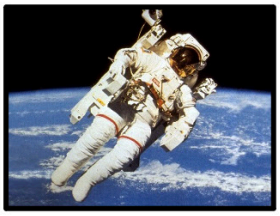
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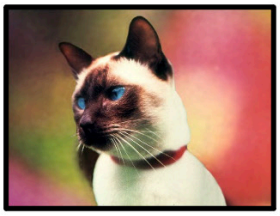
14


15


16

Sample card arrangement on upright board



Appendix B
Blue Egg Exercise

Each research assistant would do the blue egg exercise while preparing for the day's experiments. One would do it in the room used for sending, and another would do it in the room used for receiving.

- Stand with arms outstretched. Spin clockwise until you feel your energy field spinning with you. Then stand still and feel the edges of the energy spinning around you.
- Three breaths blue
    - Hands down to start
    - On inhale raise hands, palms up, to high overhead
    - On exhale, hands spread out to sides and down, while visualizing a blue egg shell forming at the edge of your perceived energy field

  - Slightly shift angle with second and third breaths to completely surround yourself within a blue shell

  - This blue egg provides the filter allowing all information to pass through while also blocking and transforming any negative energies. By itself the blue egg typically lasts 3-4 hours.

- Three breaths gold

  - Do another three breaths in the same way, forming a thin gold veneer on the outside of the blue shell. The gold egg veneer gives integrity and longevity to the blue egg. Combined, these eggs will last a full 24 hours. You can do the exercise once each morning and be set for the day.

- Do a final breath lifting arms up high, then slowly exhale while bring arms down to sides, picturing water pouring down from heaven, cascading down the outside of the shell, and collecting beneath your feet pouring down into the earth.

- Now use your awareness and intention to expand the gold-coated blue egg so it completely surrounds and contains the room.

For the research assistant working with the participant acting as sender:

When not interacting directly with the participant, visualize a bridge creating a connected field of consciousness between the two blue eggs surrounding the two rooms. Hold this image of the two rooms as a single, connected space. Fill this space with a warm attitude of gratitude, acceptance, and loving-kindness. Do not focus on the participant or try to influence their performance in any way. Think of this time as a loving kindness meditation for yourself and the space. You holding the field of consciousness in this way is an integral part of the study design.

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Examining Exceptional Human Experiences Through Thematic Analysis in A Group Context

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Abstract. Qualitative researchers may consider the psychological, social, and cultural significance of paranormal occurrences and their impact on the individual. Thematic Analysis is a method for identifying, examining, and reporting themes/configurations within datasets, providing an accessible, systematic, and rigorous approach to coding and theme development. The main aim of the present study was to analyze narrative accounts of paranormal experiences, with particular emphasis on exploring whether individual experiences share common themes and patterns. Through in-depth interviews, sixty participants recruited by an announcement placed on the internet, along with seven groups, shared one-hundred-eight narratives in a group context. Thematic Analysis produced six themes: Hearing Voices, Apparitions, Sense of Presence, Premonitions, Out-of-Body and Near-Death Experiences, and Mediumship. In addition, we found a trend of more positive than negative reactions. Only a little more than one-third of the experiences were confirmed (especially, premonitions), with most of them occurring in adults. In the context of specific experiences, future research might do well to focus on prevalent paranormal experiences in order to determine the extent to which identified themes can be generalized.

Keywords: *Thematic analysis; Apparitions; Hearing voices, Premonitions, Sense of presence; Qualitative research.*

Paranormal experiences may be explored from several epistemological perspectives. Although quantitative methods are used to count, categorize, and explain paranormal phenomena with the intention of assessing the validity and authenticity of the experiences, qualitative researchers consider the psychological, social, and cultural significance of paranormal occurrences and their impact on individuals (Irwin, 1987; Kruth, 2014; Murray & Wooffitt, 2010). In fact, psychological qualitative research refers to methodical scientific practices aimed at producing knowledge about the nature of experience and/or action, including social processes (e.g., Parker, 2004; Wertz et al., 2005.

Qualitative research tends to centralize an iterative process in which data are analyzed and meanings generated in a fruitful, recursive manner, yielding results that gradually produce original knowledge of psychological life (e.g., Osbeck, 2014; Rennie, 2012). In the qualitative context, the perception of paranormal experience is a complex process involving personal rationalization of perceptions via subjective

interpretation. For example, Drinkwater, Dagnall, and Bate (2013) have noted the value in the quantitative approaches that have, until recently, dominated the study of exceptional experiences. Paranormal experiences are a subset of exceptional (or anomalous) experiences, with the key difference being interpretation: "exceptional" is the neutral academic term for unusual events (like vivid dreams, déjà vu, deep insights) that challenge normal reality, while "paranormal" implies supernatural or psychic causes (ghosts, ESP, telepathy), often involving belief in forces beyond science, though both terms describe experiences outside the mundane, triggering strong emotions and meaning. (Rabeyron, 2021). Nomothetic methods often lump exceptional experiences together into one category, when in reality exceptional experiences may be as unique (and complex) as the individuals experiencing them; indeed, they are heterogeneous even within the same form. The paranormal experiences described here are subjective experiences; it is not possible to determine evidence regarding ontology from qualitative research.

Wilde and Murray (2009) considered that a phenomenological approach is better aligned with the nonunitary nature of exceptional experiences. When interviewees identified a paranormal event, they engaged in two distinct processes, namely: noting an inexplicable episode and labelling it as paranormal (see also Irwin, Dagnall & Drinkwater, 2013), When Drinkwater, Dagnall, and Bate (2013) applied an IPA on four interviews with those reporting paranormal experiences, they identified themes including a distortion of reality, a sense that the interviewee was not alone, and personal growth. In addition, Heath (2000) applied a modified descriptive phenomenological analysis to a series of in-depth interviews with eight people who had experienced mind-matter interactions, and Simmonds-Moore (2016) applied an IPA exploring synesthesia (an involuntary sensory or conceptual response to an inducing stimulus) as an exceptional experience. Other authors also had examined spontaneous mind-matter interactions using a phenomenological approach (Glazier, Beck & Simmonds-Moore, 2015), out-of-body experiences (Wilde & Murray, 2009), and spiritual-channeling experiences reflecting childhood experiences (Roxburgh & Roe, 2014).

Due qualitative methods are a large family tree including different assumptions about reality and about knowledge and the particular epistemological approach/orientation, one of them, the Thematic Analysis approach (TA; see Braun, Clarke, & Hayfield, 2015), is a method for identifying, examining, and reporting themes/configurations within data sets. TA is useful because it provides an accessible, systematic, and rigorous approach to coding and theme development (Howitt, 2010). Firstly, the main reasons for using TA here are its accessibility and its flexibility for interviewers new to qualitative research, which provides entry into a way of doing research that otherwise can seem vague, mystifying, conceptually challenging, and overly complex. It also offers a way into qualitative research that teaches the mechanics of coding and analyzing qualitative data systematically. Secondly, TA is a qualitative methodological approach employed to uncover participants' subjective realities, particularly their personal interpretation of lived experiences in relation to social, cultural, and theoretical contexts (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2013; Braun, Clarke, & Hayfield, 2015). Thirdly, TA also emphasizes modelling or patterning of meaning across interviewees, rather than act as a dual-focus methodology derived from the unique characteristics of individual interviewees (the idiographic focus: see Braun & Clarke, 2006; Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009). The Thematic Analysis (TA) method was used here to investigate the comprehension of exceptional human (or paranormal) experiences, focusing on three experiences in the context of the recruiting announcement: Hearing voices, Spiritual encounter experiences, and Premonitions.

Hearing Voices. Auditive paranormal experiences (or *clariaudience*, in the parlance of spiritualist communities as opposed to *clairvoyance*, which entails visions), involve receiving auditory messages from other sources (i.e., spirits, angels, God, or entities who inspired artists; for a recent review, see Powers, Kelley, & Corlett, 2017). Some people believe that everyone who hears voices has a mental health problem, although van Os (2003) estimated that around 10% of people have had an experience of hearing voices at some point in their lives. Hearing voices can be upsetting or distressing, or the voices may even say hurtful things that can be frightening (c.f. Verdoux & van Os, 2002). However, not everyone experiences this, and for some people the voices may be neutral or more positive. Moreover, people may have different feelings about their voices at different times in their lives. Some people find that understanding how their voices relate to their lives can help them feel more in control and more able to manage their voices (for a phenomenological, non-pathological approach, c.f. Romme & Escher, 1989).

However, Daalman (2011a; 2011b) have highlighted important differences in the emotional valence and content of voice experiences, as well as in the explanatory schema evoked. For example, people with a diagnosed psychotic illness tend to be significantly more distressed by their atypical experiences than those who are not, despite similar, convictions, and preoccupations. In fact, some individuals featured in these earlier studies would, undoubtedly, refer to themselves as mediums (Peters, Williams, Cooke, & Kuipers, 2012; Powers, Kelley, & Corlett, 2017).

Spiritual Encounter Experiences (SEE). These experiences refer to times when individuals believe that they have communicated with, or have been under the control of, a deceased person or other nonmaterial being, or are believed by others to have done so (Evans, 2001; Houran, 2000; Parra, 2006, 2018). Sometimes SEE may include other experiences that can be considered pre-mediumship or "seminal", such as seeing and feeling the presence of ghosts (Parra, 2006), having a sense of presence (Cheyne, Newby-Clark, & Rueffer, 1999), and spontaneous spirit possession or a sense of being controlled by entities (Cohen & Barrett, 2008; Krippner & Friedman, 2010).Although these experiences shared common characteristics, experients interpreted them differently. For example, while déjà vu and apparitional experiences contained homogenous content, the narratives themselves were varied and diverse (Schmied-Knittel & Schetsche, 2005).

In practice, the distinctions among apparition, hallucination, and vision experiences are blurred. Such anomalous experiences as hallucinations and delusions may arise when reliability weighting of information sources goes awry, causing perceptions and beliefs to diverge from objective reality (Jardri & Denève, 2013). Delusions, which may be considered internal models that misrepresent statistical regularities in the environment, might arise through inappropriate learning from unreliable prediction errors (Kapur, 2003; Drinkwater, Dagnall, & Bate, 2013; Parra, 2006, 2018).

Premonitions. These are feelings or impressions that something is about to happen, especially something ominous or dire, about which no normal information is available; in contrast, *precognition* is considered a form of extrasensory perception in which the target is some future event that cannot be deduced from normally known data in the present (Dossey, 2009; Thalbourne, 2003). Most of the precognitive dreams were realistic – that is, the events therein were represented in a fairly realistic way.

A questionnaire was used to collect information on spontaneous premonition experiences in order to determine the proportion of people in Argentina claiming to have had such experiences. The study also was designed to uncover correlations between these experiences and other variables such as content, topics, symbols, clarity, emotions, and sensory modalities, and determine whether people could distinguish normal from paranormal explanations for their premonitions. The majority of premonitory dreamers reported that their premonitions were vivid, clear, and emotionally intense. Premonitory dreams were also described as clearer than usual dreams (Gómez Montanelli & Parra, 2004, 2008; Parra, 2013). Given these findings, there is clearly scope for further research into premonitions and their emotional impact, especially in dreams (Irwin &Watt, 2007).

Deductive Thematic Analysis is a theory-driven, top-down approach to finding patterns in qualitative data, where researchers start with pre-defined themes or codes from existing theories, literature, or hypotheses, and then apply them to data (like interviews or surveys) to see *how* the data supports or challenges those established ideas, unlike inductive analysis where themes emerge from the data itself. It's ideal for testing theories, validating models, and focusing analysis on specific areas of interest, using a structured codebook to quantify or categorize data based on these predetermined concepts. Its accessibility as a method also suits multi-methods research being conducted by research teams, where not everyone is a qualitative 'expert'. TA also has the potential for use within participatory research projects –such as participatory action research or memory work (Bauer, 2000; Smith, 2000)– where many involved in 'analysis' are not trained researchers.

Deductive thematic analysis is a systematic approach to analyzing qualitative data that starts with predetermined themes or concepts. This analytic approach can be particularly beneficial when the research objectives are clear and the theoretical framework is well-established. To ground our discussion in practical terms, we use a study conducted by Naeem and Ozuem (2022a) as an exemplar to provide concrete examples for each of the six steps of the proposed thematic analysis process. These steps include the selection of keywords and quotations, coding, theming, interpretation, and the development of a conceptual model. We argue for the merit of observing specific phenomena during data collection and refining them into potential codes and themes. The subsequent identification of keywords, codes, and themes helps to form preliminary assertions that can be further interpreted to develop the final conceptual model. Indeed, we posit that the thematic analysis process we have constructed exhibits considerable adaptability and potential for utilization in relation to grounded theory (GT), ethnographic approaches, and narrative approaches and, with some adaptation, more descriptive positivist-based methodologies would benefit.

The patterns of meaning that TA allows the researcher to identify need to be important in relation to the particular topic and research question being explored, and to the ability to straddle three main continua along which qualitative research approaches can be located (inductive versus deductive or theory-driven data coding and analysis). TA also permits an experiential versus critical orientation to data, and an essentialist versus constructionist theoretical perspective (Willig, 2013). For these reasons, it is argued that paranormal narratives are an important part of human phenomenological experience. The principles of the thematic analysis technique, such as coding of data, searching for themes, refining the themes, and reporting the findings, are relatable to other qualitative methods, such as discourse analysis (Flick, 2022).

Thematic analysis is a method to analyze qualitative data. It involves the identification and reporting of patterns in a data set, which are then interpreted for their inherent meaning (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Liebenberg et al., 2020; Xu & Zammit, 2020); these patterns can be found on the basis of understanding the meaning of keywords used by participants. The main aim of the present study, therefore, was to examine narrative accounts of subjective paranormal or exceptional human experiences, with particular emphasis on exploring whether the individual experiences shared common theme and patterns.

Method

Participants

Adults who had had anomalous or paranormal experiences were recruited by an announcement placed on the internet, under the title *Signals: Encounters with the Unknown*. Interviews were held at the Institute of Paranormal Psychology in Buenos Aires, Argentina, in the context of a research project based on auditive, apparitional, and premonitory experiences. The sample also was recruited from a wide variety of institutes, centers, and foundations specializing in New Age activities, meditation and wellness centers, Yoga centers, and alternative/integrative therapies or practices. In addition, participants were found through advertisements on the web (via such social networks as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram) and in online newsletters specializing in spiritual practices. They were balanced in terms of ages and genders. His variety of contacts allowed us to recruit a sufficiently representative sample of a wide diversity of people actively interested on paranormal/spiritual issues. The interviewees received information about the general aims of the study and were invited to participate anonymously and voluntarily. The participants' identities protected with pseudonyms.

There were sixty interviewees, 44 females (73%) and 16 males (27%), with an age range of 22 to 71 years (*Mean* = 45.65; *SD* = 12.52), who shared one hundred eight narratives in a group context. Sixty percent named high school as their highest educational level, while the remainder had earned bachelor's degrees or higher. The narratives were audio-recorded. The participants, who shared one to three experiences each, were mostly people who were seeking information about their anomalous-paranormal experiences.

All were interviewed in-depth allowing freedom for both the interviewer and the interviewee to explore additional points and change direction, if called for. The participants are listed below in the Results section by first name, gender (M or F), and age. As it turned out, while people were recruited based on prior identification with certain language terms relating to the paranormal, they were also influenced by the themes that emerged within the analysis.

An appropriate informed consent form, which was signed by all the interviewees, included provisions that the person (1) had the capacity to consent, (2) had been informed of all significant information concerning the procedure, and (3) had freely and without undue influence expressed consent (Barden, 2001). The study was also reviewed by an institutional review board (UAI-IRB #23-24465-654). The exclusion criteria were as follows: (1) any recreational drug or alcohol use that met the standards for at-risk drinking; (2) self-reported abnormal hearing, vision, or delusional ideation; or (3) having a diagnosable psychotic disorder.

Procedure

Seven separate groups were formed between March and December 2019. They met on a Saturday afternoon (averaging one per month) in unique sessions that lasted four hours each (as a workshop). Participants were interviewed in a setting that averaged 5-12 interviewees per group. The rationale here was to create a group setting to discuss the paranormal/anomalous experiences that was akin to a focus group, which could yield interesting data based on social interactions, while sharing narratives as we did in previous studies conducted in Argentina (Gómez Montanelli & Parra, 2004; Parra & Corbetta, 2014). Each group began with a short presentation given by both interviewers before the verbal participation (20 to 30 minutes, including Q & A held by the interviewers).

The interviewers also prepared an interview schedule. Once one of them asked interviewees to outline their subjective paranormal experience(s), they were labeled by the interviewers in terms of Type of Experience; the mental state perceived subjectively at the time of the experience (State of Consciousness); negative/positive emotional reactions (Emotional Reactions); if the experience was shared (as a witness) or other people were involved (Associated Persons); the site where the experience occurred or the specific environment (Location); whether the experience involved psi or psi-related phenomena that is, confirmed or not confirmed information/events (Verifiability); and specific stage of life at the point the experience occurred (Developmental state).

Then the interviewer explained the purpose of the group activity. Each interviewee in the focus groups allowed us to interact with the narratives, collecting details of each one to the extent that the interviewee felt confident to share them. Once the narratives were audio-recorded, they were later transcribed literally for further analysis. Several personality and perceptual questionnaires, which were also completed by the interviewees, will be published elsewhere.

Results

Analysis

These steps provide a roadmap for the careful processing of qualitative data, enhancing the rigor and depth of the research process and findings. The six steps of systematic thematic analysis are described in detail in the following six subsections. These subsections provide a comprehensive breakdown of each step's methodology, elucidating its function within the overarching systematic thematic analysis process and substantiating it with scholarly references and practical examples from the exemplar study.

The thematic analysis process described in this paper is termed 'systematic' because it involves interpreting research data in a structured and sequential manner. Each stage builds on the previous one, resulting in a comprehensive understanding of the data. This organized method enhances the consistency and replicability of the findings and enables clear connections to be made between the data, the interpretation and the final conclusions. This systematic, structured approach ensures thoroughness and limits potential bias.

Step 1: *Transcription, familiarization with the data and selection of quotations*. This is the first stage of the thematic analysis process. It involves transcribing the data and familiarizing oneself with it. Researchers

analyze the content in depth to identify initial themes and significant sections. They then select quotations that bring the data to life and accurately represent the various viewpoints and patterns relevant to the research objectives.

Step 2: *Selection of Keywords*. This phase involves a close examination of data from interviews, focus groups or visual content. Researchers identify and designate recurring patterns, terms or visual elements as keywords. These keywords encapsulate the experiences and perceptions of the participants and are derived directly from the data.

Step 3: *Coding.* The third step is coding, where short phrases or words (known as codes) are assigned to data segments to capture their core message, significance or theme. This step simplifies complex textual data by transforming it into a theoretical form, which assists in identifying elements related to the research questions. Keywords are essential for coding as they form the basis of the analysis and convert raw data into meaningful, manageable units.

Step 4: *Theme Development***.** Theme development involves organizing codes into meaningful groups in order to identify patterns and relationships, thereby offering insights into the research question. At this stage, the researcher moves from a detailed analysis of codes and categories to a more abstract interpretation by creating themes. These themes are more than just recurring elements because they embody meaningful patterns that link the research questions and data.

Step 5: *Conceptualization Through Interpretation of Keywords, Codes, and Themes.* This step, known as conceptualization, involves understanding and defining the concepts that emerge from the data. Researchers identify social patterns and refine them into definitions that align with their research. They use tools such as diagrams and models to understand the relationships between these concepts. These definitions are then assessed based on their clarity, accuracy, reliability, applicability, and contribution to theory and practice.

Step 6: *Development of Conceptual Model***.** The final step in thematic analysis is to develop a conceptual model. This involves creating a unique representation of the data, often guided by existing theories. The model is used to answer the research questions and highlight the study's contribution to knowledge. This step marks the end of the analysis, summarizing all the findings and insights derived from the data.

Figure 1: Type Of Experience, State of Consciousness, Emotional Reactions, Associated Persons, Location, Verifiability, And Developmental State

1. *Type of Experience*: Exceptional human experiences identified by the interviewees and labeled by the interviewers, i.e., Apparitions (*n*= 34), Hearing voices (*n*= 29), Premonitions (*n*= 21), Sense of presence (*n*= 9), Out-of-Body/Near Death Experiences (*n*= 5), and Mediumship (*n*= 3).
2. State of consciousness. The mental state perceived subjectively at the time of the experience, i.e., Awake (n = 56), Dreaming (n = 23), Only Hypnopompic (HP, *n*= 8), Meditation (*n*= 7), Only Hypnagogic (HG; *n*= 3), HG/HP (both or unspecified, *n*= 3), and Unspecified state (*n*= 7).
3. *Emotional reactions.* For example, negative emotions (fear, anxiety, etc., *n*= 48) and positive emotions (happiness, relief, comfort, etc., *n*= 55).

4. *Associated Persons*. If the experience was shared (as a witness), or other people were involved (e.g., apparitions of deceased grandparents, children, parents, or siblings).
5. Location. The site where it occurred or the specific environment (a bedroom, the house, a street).
6. *Verifiability*. Whether the experience involved psi or psi-related phenomena, such as the apparition of a remote loved one at the moment of death, or a validated premonition [i.e. Confirmed (*n*= 36) and Not confirmed (*n*= 72)].
7. *Developmental state*. A specific stage of life at the time the experience occurred (e.g., in childhood, adolescence, or adult life): i.e., Only in adult life (*n*= 87), Only in childhood (*n*= 12), Recurring throughout life (*n*= 6), and only in adolescence (*n*= 3).

Themes

The TA yielded six themes: Hearing Voices, Apparitions, Sense of Presence, Premonitions, and Out-of-Body/Near-Death Experiences, and Mediumship. The predominant states of consciousness were dream state, hypnopompic or hypnagogic experiences (or both), and other (indeterminate) states of consciousness or a normal one (non-altered state of consciousness). Emotional reactions were classified as negative or very negative, and positive or very positive, with confirmation (or not) of their likelihood of accuracy and at what evolutionary stage the experience occurred.

Interviewee narratives were examined using TA and adopting a realistic perspective (non-pathological; see Willig, 2013) to enable us to identify shared experiences in the accounts. To ensure that themes possessed authenticity, validity, and reliability, our goal here was a deductive TA approach, identifying predetermined codes or categories with designation of common emergent categories within the data.

Hearing Voices

The phenomenological range of the experience of hearing voices among our interviewees typically extended equally from male or female voices (sometimes attributed to deceased loved ones) to voices unidentifiable by gender and often unintelligible; however, unlike in the case of psychotic voices, the interviewees always took control of their actions and reasonably sought the source of such voices. Moreover, no episodes of dialogue were found between two or more voices, nor were there any children's voices or voices hurling insults or recriminations.

The content of the voices was variable in terms of its emotional intensity, sharpness, and distance from the source from which they came (e.g., from another room to whispering in the ear). Some even were shared by one or more witnesses. But, almost inexorably, the voices that had a negative tone (e.g., warnings of danger) were rated as negative – in contrast to those with an emotional tone rated as positive, which contained words of courage or encouragement, relief, or comfort. Some voices were more creative or even gave advice. For example, when she was at the point of committing suicide, Alejandra (F., age 34) heard the voice of her brother, who had died of leukemia only days before, warning her, "*Don't do it!*" Camila (F., age 45) recalled hearing the voice of an unknown "*laughing babe*," because she knew that she was alone in her house. Jonathan (M., age 21) shared that a voice (with a diabolical tone) warned him, *"You will not beat me,"* on the return from a religious ritual of spiritual liberation. Other voices rated as negative contained only single concepts, such as "Face it," or "Help me," or called interviewees by name with the cer-

tainty that the voice was asking for help, or, on the contrary, was trying to annoy or hurt them. In addition, some hearing experiences were not limited to human voices, but also featured groans, whispers, laughter, guffaws, screams (of children), heartbeats, buzzing, or pounding (in response to questions).

Fourteen narratives of negative or frightening voices lacked verifiability (that is, they were not confirmed by actual events). They occurred in adult life, when people were alone in a state of consciousness (presumably) or wakefulness, usually at home. For example, Adolfo (M., age 64) experienced his mother's voice waking him up in the early morning with the phrase, *Baby, you're going to be late!* Guadalupe (F., age 35) heard an impersonal voice repeat several times the phrase, "*Love and the old refrain are always nearby*," while Alejandra (F., age 34) heard the voice of her deceased mother say, *"I know everything, I see everything. Stay calm, and everything will be fine."* Jacqueline (F., age 37), while cooking at home, told how her deceased grandmother had dictated the ingredients and proportions for making a cake. These accounts show that positive hearing experiences may reveal considerable creative and productive content, as well as bring relief to those having suffered a loss.

Interviewees confirmed five events of hearing voices when the emotional valence turned positive, even if the anticipated event was negative. For example, María Margarita (F., age 71) recounted that an unknown female voice warned her, *"Go to your mother's house!"* When she did so, she found her mother passed out at her home. On another occasion, she and her friend Anna were planning a vacation together in a summer house. One night she heard a voice say, *"You must go to Anna."* When she did, Maria Margarita found her deceased friend on the floor. Gabriela (F., age 26) was about to get into a taxi to star in a dance performance, when she heard an unknown voice warn, "*Lost your dress!"* She realized then that she did not have her dress with her, ran back to her house, and found it on the sidewalk. Another childhood experience occurred to Analía (F., age 45), who recalled that an unknown voice had said to her," *Tomorrow your father will die"* (a prediction that was confirmed the next day when her father died of a heart attack).

Voices can have consoling content if they come from a recognizable source. For example, Liliana (F., age 62) heard her brother's voice calling her by her childhood nickname, and Maria Eugenia (F., age 30) heard her mother's voice saying, *"Stay calm. There's a reason for why it's going to happen!"* advising her regarding a specific concern. Emma (F., age 41) heard her deceased grandmother's voice clearly saying, "*Stay calm, he's on his way,"* when she was anxious about her son's returning home.

In almost all cases, positive voices – in contrast to the quasi-psychotic tone of some narratives – showed that they were interpreted as coming from some *disembodied entity,* a deceased loved one, or a third-person warning. But it is interesting that none of the interviewees attributed them to a psychogenic trait, to their imagination, or to their expectations and desires. At the same time, only five of the 22 hearing experiences were confirmed, demonstrating that the presumably true component of the experiences is a minority; two experiences occurred under an HG/HP state of mind, and only one happened while the interviewee was practicing meditation.

Almost analogous to the apparition experiences, in terms of the purpose or meaning of their hearing experiences, two interviewees explained that hearing positive voices was a *gift* if it was accompanied by more than one experience – that is, never in isolation. For some interviewees, this was like *putting together a puzzle* – for example, when combined with other paranormal experiences such as feelings of presence,

premonitions, or abilities as a healer. Two others considered their negative hearing experiences to be more problematic, even inexorably associated with bizarre ideas such as external control or a certain *sensitivity* that they should learn to neutralize.

Spiritual Encounter Experiences

The apparition experiences typically ranged from a sense of presence to a sense of the apparitions needing to "be controlled," or to *drop-in* experiences of the subjectively perceived entity. These were experienced by 26 females and seven males. The sensory attributes varied between visions of fleeting and impersonal shadows (not associated with deceased loved ones) and other visions that were often accompanied by negative emotions, such as fear.

For example, Yesica (F., age 34) described an experience in the form of a "dark body" characterized by "body paralysis during sleep" and a state of hypnagogic consciousness in her bedroom. In her teens, Fernanda (F., age 30) recalled "nine black shadows standing around her in her bed that called her by name," waking her up. Other negative apparition experiences occurred in times of wakefulness, such as a "vision of unknown children," the apparition of "a woman in a white nightgown," or a "man in a dark suit who climbed into my bed and paralyzed me" (Camila, F., age 25). Three negative apparitional experiences were shared by close witnesses, spouses, or children.

With an emotionally positive tone, other experiences narrated involved deceased loved ones, who appeared in dreams, wakefulness, and even years following bereavement. For Diana (F., age 40), her experience consisted of a "white light" that she identified as her father. Other interviewees mentioned dialogues with a loved one in dreams; olfactory experiences associated with a deceased friend; the vision of colored lights or spheres of light; and the feeling of being touched or caressed by an invisible hand. Thirteen of the apparition experiences that occurred in wakefulness had a positive connotation, associated with a sense of relief from loss, feeling protected, reactions of wonder or perplexity, or surprise at the unexpectedness of the vision. Although some experiences were undefined (such as "shadows"), others were clearly described as known people, with vivid attributes of size, color, shape, volume, distance, or lighting, as well as people who had been emotionally close to the interviewee, such as parents, grandparents, siblings, and dear friends.

Although seven of these experiences were reported as occurring in childhood – three in adolescence, specifically – three interviewees described recurrent experiences throughout their lives, beginning in childhood but increasing in adult life, even after they became parents. All of the children´s apparition experiences involved grandparents (one or more), with a tendency to be positive, while the teenagers "invoked" using mirrors or an Ouija board. For adults, almost all of their experiences helped overcome grief over the loss of relatives or friends (as in, "My deceased brother was dressed elegantly and appeared cheerful. He was standing at the foot of the bed. He appeared in order to show me that he was fine"– Jorge, M., age 50).

Regarding verifiability, only three experiences were confirmed by the same interviewee or by other witnesses. For example, during a very vivid dream, Romina (F., age 24) saw her father dressed as a Franciscan priest, who directed her to find a lost buckle that she then found under the bed. Pablo (M., age 27) described having seen "a young man who said aloud, *Tell my father that I'm fine!* He turned out to be the

deceased son of a couple who lived near my cousin, who also died the same day, whom I recognized when I saw a photograph." However, most experiences fell into the category of non-confirmed, i.e., shadows, lights, fleeting visions, body contacts, and silhouettes that could not be identified as people known to the interviewee.

Fourteen experiences were emotionally negative, dealing predominantly with fear, anxiety, feeling chills, or behaviors such as running away or screaming; four of these occurred at the time of awakening (HP), and two of them when falling asleep (HG). For example, Fernanda (F., age 38) narrated her experience of "a girl dressed in white praying at the foot of my bed." Twenty of the 34 apparitional experiences occurred in a state of wakefulness, all in a domestic setting (the house of the interviewee), in particular the bedroom, and only three in other areas: one in a car, and two in the workplace (i.e., a public building and a hospital), but never in outdoor places. Although the 25 apparition experiences were predominantly visual, with five tactile and only two olfactory, the hearing experiences (hearing voices) were grouped into a separate category.

Some apparitions were presented in the form of an "asensorial" hallucination or sense of presence (Cheyne, Newby-Clark, & Rueffer, 1999; Parra, 2006), one that can represent symbolic experiences of an ominous or frightening character. The groups furnished nine experiences of the feeling of presence, although other cases occurred in combination with premonitions, which maybe indistinguishable from each other, such as apparitional experiences and mediumship.

Six females and three males described five experiences with a negative emotional tone and four with a positive tone. Negative experiences were associated with various emotional reactions: anguish, (pre-sleep) paralysis, chills, fear (e.g., of dying, of being damaged by *something*, of the unknown, etc.), a feeling of being threatened, tremors, and the need to flee. In contrast, positive experiences were associated with comfort for one's loss, a feeling of spiritual sighting and protection, or tactile sensations (such as caresses and the feelings of being called or guided by "another force"). In all cases, even when the interviewees were unable to see or hear the presence, the unequivocal interpretation was the symbolic representation of the deceased loved one (e.g., father, mother, grandparent, friend, or sibling) who was present there, proving that he or she continued to accompany the interviewees.

For example, Alfredo (M., age 60) specified a detail of the "intentional" nature of his experience, when he narrated "the feeling that I crashed into *someone,* not *something*" in his house (italics added). In another case, Alberto (M., age 55), awaiting the death of his mother in an Intensive Care Unit (ICU), vividly experienced "the gentle caress of my mother" at the very moment of her death. All the interviewees were clearly able to distinguish a "malevolent" or undesirable presence from one that served to comfort or give relief, as happens during a pustule period: in such cases, the experiences occurred in their homes (except for Alberto), particularly in their bedrooms, four of them when waking up and the other five during a pre-sleeping (hypnagogic) stage.

Regarding verifiability, Alexander (M., age 77) described the sense of presence he experienced at eight years of age: "being alone in my room one night, I clearly felt like two hands were tucking me in. I was terrified! I knew I was alone, and no one was with me in the room. But that night, at that same moment, my dear grandmother had died." This is an example of how Alexander changed a negative valence to a

positive one, when he subsequently learned about his grandmother's death. Due to the ineffable nature of the "presence," some interviewees had difficulty recounting their experiences, but they were able to use metaphors to describe them, employing analogies such as "a spark that comes suddenly" (Natalia, F., age 24); "the entity was as attached to the wall" (Claudia, F, age 41); "a gentle and cold breeze that pierced my body" (Alberto, M., age 60), among others.

Premonitions

Premonitions refer to the extrasensory experiences most commonly reported by the group members, even more often than telepathic experiences. In fact, they achieved a high confirmation ratio in contrast to other narrated experiences, such as hearing voices. Women were in the majority (n = 20) (with only one male), of whom thirteen had premonitions with negative emotional connotations and eight with positive ones. Twelve of these premonitions occurred in dreams, in contrast to experiences of foreboding, with only two happening while the interviewees were practicing meditation.

Its phenomenology varied substantially. All the negative experiences narrated involved the death of a loved one, a friend, or a family member; seven of these appeared in dreams and four in wakefulness. For example, Romina (F., age 33) reported: "A dog that my friend had given me died from a tumor, and a few weeks later my friend – not my dog – died from that same type of tumor. I had been unaware of his illness." Other dreams involved symbols, which were rarely realistic (according to the classification of [L.E.] Rhine, 1961; *cf.* Schouten, 1982); future pregnancies that were later confirmed; unexpected deaths of friends or family members; and even "mixed" experiences where the appearance of a loved one in a dream predated an accident or a sudden terminal illness. Regarding such premonition experiences, Sandra (F., age 35) recounted that, at the age of eight, "a dead sparrow fell at my feet, and then I *knew* that my grandmother had passed away. When my aunt and I returned to my house after a walk, my mom was crying, with a telegram in her hand reporting my grandmother's death." Cecilia (F., age 45) recounted a sequence of numerous experiences of the deaths of friends and family members, with reference to which she nicknamed herself the *angel of death.*

Another combination is the foreboding experience in the form of hearing voices warning of a danger, which happened in at least three cases. Often, such experiences can be indistinguishable from certain significant coincidences, attributed to "paranormal" causes but not truly foreboding. For example, Liliana (F., age 64) saw "a light in the night sky and within a few minutes I was informed of my brother's death." One problem with these attributions is that the interviewees give a singular meaning to certain coincidences, which are a common source of error in the interpretation of some foreboding experiences having a potential emotional significance for the interviewees (Parra & Corbetta, 2013).

The sensory modalities of premonition experiences also may vary. For example, the dreamlike ones were predominantly visual, vivid, emotionally intense, and distinguishable from other, non-foreboding dreams, in contrast to the premonitions in wakefulness, which tended to be fleeting; were fulfilled in a short time; and included sensory elements such as smells, voices; or music, and emotional discomfort (e.g., distress). For example, while in her art class, Cynthia (F., age 27) experienced "anguish, stomach pain, and spontaneous discomfort... with the need to run away from class, but not knowing why. Within a few minutes, the existence of a fire was declared, and the school building had to be evacuated." Other expe-

riences interpreted as *signs,* such as pictures, stopwatches, shadows, or other amorphous visions, also may occur minutes or hours before a negative event associated with a family member or friend (e.g., accident or death). In one group, Laura (F., age 33) narrated, "That day I heard, more than once, a voice yelling at me the word *Accident!* Then I saw (in my mind) a white car on fire." The next morning, her father took her (spontaneously) to a car race, where a famous sportsman died while driving his white sports car. Finally, none of the premonitions showed "happy events," except for some pregnancies; however, most interviewees insisted that such experiences demonstrated their ability to predict the future or the meaning of an "inexorable destiny," feelings of guilt, or discomfort, rather than an ability to change or alter events.

Near-Death and Out-of-Body Experiences and Other Connected Experiences

Near-death experiences (NDEs) and out-of-body experiences (OBEs), differ from each other, although the first can include the second. In the groups under study, we found only five such experiences: three OBEs and two NDEs. The two near-death experiences were rated as emotionally negative, but experiences outside the body were rated as positive, by three males and two females. Two NDEs occurred in the context of a car accident, including autoscopic perception (seeing oneself), feelings of peace and beatitude, and life review. In contrast, OBEs occurred during a state of hypnagogic consciousness (before falling asleep) concurrent with experiences of "takeoff," "a feeling of floating," "a panoramic view of the room," and "seeing oneself lying in bed." Two of them involved the fear of dying, or not being able to "return to the body," which occurred immediately after praying. Except for the two NDEs, the three OBEs occurred in the interviewees' bedrooms. One of the NDEs involved the vision of loved ones. The negative component of experiences outside the body, in all three cases, was the spontaneous, sudden, and unexpected nature of "seeing oneself out of the body." For example, Yesica (F., age 28) narrated, "I was in my bedroom. ... I just felt the soul of my body take off. [I felt] intense pain, like needles sticking into my body. I see my father holding my hand, and then I see my grandmother and my mother having passed away."

Forms of channeling or mediumship rated as emotionally positive were presented as occurring in wakefulness to three women. In two cases, the experience was intentional (i.e., the interviewee claimed to have moved into contact with the entity), and, in all three cases, the interviewee received information that she could confirm with her spiritual advisor or consultant. For example, Cristina (F., age 60), member of a spiritualist society, said she received two words: *Beautiful mom* (originally in English), which only the mother and daughter knew. All three cases also served to provide comfort to their experiencers.

Two experiences, which involved forms of communication with their animals (i.e., dogs and horses), were interpreted as signs of empathy and attachment to their pets (namely "interspecies communication"). They also provide done experience of diagnosing disease and, through the practice of laying-on of hands, an experience of *retrocognition* felt in an emotionally negative way ("I felt a great explosion, landslides, children screaming"–Jaqueline, F., age 37) near a building that had been (twenty-five years earlier) devastated by a terrorist attack, of which she had been unaware. In some of these experiences, the interviewees were able to determine the verifiability of the data they had, in some cases through witnesses who confirmed the events. These experiences also occurred in their adult lives (except for two cases), apparently in a normal state of consciousness. But in all cases, these experiences were secondary– that is, there were other, more intense, or relevant experiences that took priority.

Discussion

This investigation using TA did, in fact, identify coherent and meaningful patterns in the narratives. This process ensured that the concluding analysis emerged from procedures that were transparent, credible, and coherent. Indeed, Braun and Clarke (2006) have recommended that future studies implement similar rigorous techniques (cf. Levitt, Motulsky, Wertz, Morrow, & Ponterotto, 2017). The six-step guideline presented in this paper aims to enhance the trustworthiness of qualitative research through thematic analysis. This aligns with the objective of Braun and Clarke's (2006) six steps of thematic analysis. However, this paper's revised six steps build on Braun and Clarke's approach, providing additional structure and clarity, particularly in the latter stages of the process. These stages include theme development, conceptualization through interpretation, and the development of conceptual frameworks.

Qualitative research can offer useful insights into key psychological areas, such as the nature of consciousness, the self, and personal wellbeing, and it can also identify general features of paranormal experience. As Schouten (1982) has observed, coherence within cases lessens the likelihood of interpretative or analytical error. In fact, our TA advocated the use of an organic approach to coding and theme development, one that is informed by the unique standpoint of the researcher and is fluid, flexible, and responsive to the researchers' evolving engagement with their data.

In line with the requirements of Thematic Analysis (TA), which can be deployed within a wide range of theoretical frameworks, the in-depth interviews with people willing to discuss their paranormal experiences produced a rich and meaningful dataset. There was no consideration of the ways that these narratives, and our content, might have been shaped by the interview context; however, the fluency of the accounts and the degree of disclosure suggested that the interviewers were successful in creating a secure context, wherein interviewees felt able to discuss their experiences safely. TA's status as a method means that its hallmark is flexibility; thus, it can be used to address most types of research questions and to analyze most types of qualitative data from interviews (e.g., Hayfield & Clarke, 2012) and focus groups (e.g., Braun & Clarke, 2011) to qualitative surveys (e.g., Moller, Timms, & Alilovic, 2009) and diaries (e.g., Malinen, Rönkä, & Sevón, 2010).

Although these approaches might be of benefit to a naïve interviewer, rigorous procedure-based evaluations tend not to invite doubts about integrity with specific reference to investigators' research goals, approaches to inquiry, or study characteristics, which may require creative procedural innovation. Also, versions of an approach by the same name might use different procedures and terminology (cf. Braun & Clarke, 2006; Krippendorff, 2019). For instance, what leading researchers (Bryant & Charmaz, 2010; Rennie, 2012) and originators of the method (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) all called grounded theory differs in terms of procedures, language, and philosophical frameworks, even though there are commonalities among the approaches under that rubric.

Roxburgh and Roe's (2013) research focuses on understanding voice-hearing experiences, particularly in relation to spiritual mediumship. Their aim is to develop non-pathologizing strategies for individuals who are distressed by voices. They emphasize control, meaning-making (e.g. symbols and memory) and the development of coping strategies outside of traditional clinical frameworks. They suggest that spiritual frameworks can provide a more direct means of controlling voices than pathologizing ones. This approach promotes acceptance and the development of personalized strategies. They investigate how

individuals perceive and manage voices, often linking them to spiritual communication, memory and symbols (e.g. seeing flowers to represent the changing seasons). Their research highlights that voice-hearers, whether spiritual or clinical, develop various direct and indirect methods of control over their experiences, with spiritual interpretations often fostering greater agency. The authors also found that standard assessments often overlook the nuances, positive emotions and complexities (such as uncertainty) of non-clinical voice-hearing, suggesting the need for broader questioning.

Drinkwater, Dagnall, and Bate (2013) have noted that grounded theory has resulted in a loss of valuable experiential data, instead arguing for the necessity of a qualitative perspective that enables an understanding of wider aspects of the experience as interpreted by each individual, since these experiences are more nuanced and complex than they might superficially appear. In that context, Ironside (2017) examined the verbal and multimodal practices used to define the status of these events (as either paranormal or normal) through interactional practices whereby individuals render certain events in the local milieu noticeable, while the negotiation of the features and location of an event in empty space implies transgressive qualities towards them.

Although there is an apparent alignment with Braun and Clarke's (2006) reflexive thematic analysis in the initial stages, our model introduces additional parameters at each step to enhance the thoroughness of the analysis. The concepts of the 6Rs (for keywords and codes) and the 4Rs (for themes) are introduced at various stages to inform the selection of quotations, keywords, codes and themes, thereby bringing rigor and relevance to the process. The Systematic Thematic Analysis Process Model also includes a unique conceptualization step through interpretation. This encourages researchers to delve deeper into their data, recognizing underlying themes and patterns and thus transcending the conventional descriptive approach. The framework culminates in the development of a robust conceptual model that is well supported by empirical evidence. Ultimately, the unique contribution of this paper lies in its rigorous, well-structured approach to thematic analysis. This method enhances the depth of the analysis and bolsters the trustworthiness of the findings, fostering robust, evidence-based research.

Future studies should extend the present work by continuing to focus on general paranormal experiences, following Wilde and Murray´s work (2010), which focused on out-of-body and near-death experiences, or Lange and Houran's (1997, 2001), which examined hauntings and poltergeists. Such follow-up studies would further illuminate the interpreting processes associated with the labelling of events as paranormal, anomalous, or exceptional (Simmonds-Moore, 2016). Although the results seem to render either a list of the kinds of experiences being reported, or a cursory summary of some interesting features from the interview accounts, in the context of specific experiences, such research might concentrate on prevalent paranormal experiences such as spiritual encounters, in order to determine the extent to which identified themes can be generalized across specific experiences.

Finally, many interviewees expressed that the group activity contributed to their finding a new meaning in their anomalous/paranormal or spiritual experiences. One of the advantages of group as compared with individual in-depth interviews is that the members have the opportunity to learn about interpersonal relationships by actually experiencing these relationships with one another in the group for instance, in the form of reaction patterns among individuals seeking help as a result of a paranormal experience.

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Examen de Experiencias Humanas Excepcionales mediante Análisis Temático en un Contexto Grupal

Resumen: Los investigadores cualitativos pueden considerar la importancia psicológica, social y cultural de las ocurrencias paranormales y su impacto en el individuo. El Análisis Temático es un método para identificar, examinar y reportar temas/configuraciones dentro de conjuntos de datos, que proporciona un enfoque accesible, sistemático y riguroso para la codificación y el desarrollo de temas. El objetivo principal del presente estudio fue analizar relatos narrativos de experiencias paranormales, con particular énfasis en explorar si las experiencias individuales comparten temas y patrones comunes. A través de entrevistas en profundidad, sesenta participantes reclutados mediante un anuncio publicado en internet, junto con siete grupos, compartieron ciento ocho narrativas en un contexto grupal. El Análisis Temático produjo seis temas: Audición de Voces, Apariciones, Sensación de Presencia, Premoniciones, Experiencias Extracorporales y Cercanas a la Muerte, y Mediumnidad. Adicionalmente, encontramos una tendencia hacia más reacciones positivas que negativas. Solo poco más de un tercio de las experiencias fueron confirmadas (especialmente, las premoniciones), con la mayoría de ellas ocurriendo en adultos. En el contexto de experiencias específicas, futuras investigaciones podrían enfocarse en experiencias paranormales prevalentes para determinar en qué medida los temas identificados pueden generalizarse.

Palabras clave: *Análisis temático; Apariciones; Audición de voces, Premoniciones, Sensación de presencia; Investigación cualitativa.*

Untersuchung außergewöhnlicher menschlicher Erfahrungen mittels thematischer Analyse im Gruppenkontext

Zusammenfassung: Qualitative Forscher können die psychologische, soziale und kulturelle Bedeutung paranormaler Ereignisse und deren Auswirkungen auf den Einzelnen untersuchen. Die thematische Analyse ist eine Methode zur Identifizierung, Untersuchung und Darstellung von Themen und Mustern in Datensätzen und bietet einen leicht zugänglichen, systematischen und stringenten Ansatz zur Kodierung und Themenentwicklung. Das Hauptziel der vorliegenden Studie bestand in der Analyse von narrativen Berichten über paranormale Erfahrungen, wobei ein besonderer Schwerpunkt darauf lag, zu untersuchen, ob individuelle Erfahrungen gemeinsame Themen und Muster aufweisen. In ausführlichen Interviews teilten 60 Teilnehmer, die über eine Online-Anzeige rekrutiert wurden, sowie sieben Gruppen insgesamt 108 Erzählungen in einem Gruppenkontext mit. Die thematische Analyse ergab sechs Themen: Stimmenhören, Erscheinungen, Empfinden einer fremden Präsenz, Vorahnungen, außerkörperliche Erfahrungen, Nahtoderfahrungen und Medialität. Darüber hinaus stellten wir fest, dass die Reaktionen eher positiv als

negativ waren. Nur etwas mehr als ein Drittel der Erfahrungen wurde bestätigt (insbesondere Vorahnungen), wobei die meisten davon bei Erwachsenen auftraten. Im Zusammenhang mit spezifischen Erfahrungen könnte es für zukünftige Forschungen sinnvoll sein, sich auf weit verbreitete paranormale Erfahrungen zu konzentrieren, um festzustellen, inwieweit die identifizierten Themen verallgemeinert werden können.

Schlüsselbegriffe: *thematische Analyse; Erscheinungen; Stimmenhören, Vorahnungen, Empfinden einer fremden Präsenz; qualitative Forschung.*

Examiner les expériences humaines exceptionnelles à travers l'analyse thématique dans un contexte groupal

Résumé : Les chercheurs en sciences qualitatives peuvent s'intéresser à la signification psychologique, sociale et culturelle des phénomènes paranormaux ainsi qu'à leur impact sur l'individu. L'analyse thématique est une méthode permettant d'identifier, d'examiner et de rendre compte des thèmes et des configurations au sein d'ensembles de données, offrant ainsi une approche accessible, systématique et rigoureuse du codage et du développement thématique. L'objectif principal de la présente étude était d'analyser des récits d'expériences paranormales, en s'attachant particulièrement à déterminer si ces expériences individuelles partagent des thèmes et des schémas communs. Au moyen d'entretiens approfondis, soixante participants recrutés via une annonce publiée sur Internet, ainsi que sept groupes, ont partagé cent huit récits dans un contexte de groupe. L'analyse thématique a permis de dégager six thèmes : l'entente de voix, les apparitions, le sentiment de présence, les prémonitions, les expériences extracorporelles et de mort imminente, et la médiumnité. De plus, nous avons constaté une tendance à des réactions plus positives que négatives. Seulement un peu plus d'un tiers des expériences ont été confirmées (en particulier les prémonitions), la plupart d'entre elles survenant chez des adultes. Dans le contexte d'expériences spécifiques, les recherches futures auraient tout intérêt à se concentrer sur les expériences paranormales courantes afin de déterminer dans quelle mesure les thèmes identifiés peuvent être généralisés.

Mots-clés : *Analyse thématique ; Apparitions ; Entente de voix ; Prémonitions ; Sens de la présence ; Recherche qualitative.*

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Book Review

The 12 Principles of Remote Viewing: A Clear Guide to the Foundations of The Remote Viewing Method

Angela Thompson Smith

The 12 Principles of Remote Viewing: A Clear Guide to the Foundations of The Remote Viewing Method, by Jana Rogge, Center Lane Project, John P. Stahler, Lily Fowler, Jon Noble, Hakim Isler. Center Lane Books, 2025, Paper, 58 pages. ISBN-10: 391115108X, ISBN-13: 978-3911151085. $6.95.

Remote Viewing (RV) has both evolved and devolved over the past fifty plus years. The Center Lane Project recently (2025) published a small handbook authored by Jana Rogge and co-authored by John P. Stahler, Lily Fowler, Jon Noble and Hakim Isler. It is described as "A Clear Guide to the Foundations of the Remote Viewing Method".

The Center Lane Project is a non-profit organization that was founded in 2023 and named after one of the military remote viewing programs. Some of the original members of the original Stargate military program, Tom McNear, Bill Ray, and Paul H. Smith, are listed as members of The Center Lane Project.

Center Lane's justification for this current volume is that "the term 'remote viewing' has gradually evolved into a catch-all buzzword for a wide array of Psi phenomena, regardless of their actual connection to the original protocols and methodology?

Interestingly, this justification is like one that prompted the founding of an earlier organization, the International Remote Viewing Association (IRVA). IRVA was founded in 1999 and some of the original IRVA founders and directors are now leading members of The Center Lane Project. Have we learned nothing in 25 years that these same sentiments are now coming up again? Or is Center Lane, like IRVA, ignoring some of the early justification for naming and describing what we now call Remote Viewing (RV)?

Center Lane qualifies the audience this booklet is intended for. They write:

"Unlike our general work that focuses exclusively on Controlled Remote Viewing (CRV), this booklet deliberately addresses Remote Viewing (RV) in its broadest sense, independent of any particular school or methodology."

Do Center Lane's Principles resonate with what was originally intended by Ingo Swann and others? There is a lot to consider here and to keep this review short, I have limited my review to just a few of the principles. I agree with some of them, such as:

Principle 1: Remote Viewing is a trainable skill, based on an innate human ability. Also, I agree that

Principle 3: Control of the process of mentally accessing a remote viewing target belongs to the viewer.

Where I differ is their assumption that the process of Bilocation (that they call balanced perception in Principle 4) is essential to the Remote Viewing process. Bilocation is a slippery concept depending on which Remote Viewing trainer/teacher/researcher you ask. In the Parapsychology literature Bilocation has numerous definitions, perhaps as many as the concept of Remote Viewing? Having experienced a lifetime of bilocation (OBEs), both spontaneous and managed, I believe it has a place in Remote Viewing but is it an essential component?

To answer this, we need to take a quick review of what the term Bilocation has meant in the Psi literature. Bilocation has been widely researched and written about, notably by Dr. Susan Blackmore of the University of Bristol, UK. Her view (and of others) states that nothing actually leaves the body/mind. However, this does not account for subjects at the American Society for Psychical Research (ASPR), having been detected in the Out-of-the-Body state by both individuals and instrumentation.

Also, the early work of Dr. Karlis Osis and Janet Mitchell with Ingo Swann showed that "something", separate from the physical body, was able to view a complex experimental set-up. This apparatus could only be viewed in its entirety from a certain vantage point, quite separate from the viewer. When Ingo Swann was the subject, he was able to describe what he was perceiving while simultaneously accessing the device.

In its modern interpretation, several remote viewing teachers, including Dr. Paul Smith, have run Random Event Generators (REG) during student sessions, and found that the REG has run non-random during these sessions. Indicating that "something" external to the human mind had affected the process.

Principle 5, the Viewer (and everyone else) being "blind" to the target has become a much-debated concept over the years. Particularly in the CRV communities. In my own decades of experience, I have worked on everything from double-blind projects to fully front-loaded targets. Ingo Swann justified "operational frontloading" in that the experienced viewer is not interested in what is known but what is currently unknown.

Center Lane restricts Remote Viewing to scientific principles rather than to psychic abilities and their interpretation of Bilocation. Remote Viewing, they say, is not Psychic but essential Perception: "Remote Viewing is neither a novel psi ability, nor a convenient replacement for psi, clairvoyance, or ESP."

Both Ingo and Hal Puthoff (as well as the Princeton Engineering Anomalous Research (PEAR) Laboratory at Princeton University) realized that taking the words psi or psychic out of the description of Remote Viewing and retaining the word "perception" was less problematic and moved the concept forward within orthodox research fields. This reorientation of the definition of psi to a scientific category, although well-documented and understood by many scientists, ignored its original roots and definitions.

Unfortunately, taking the psi element out of the RV picture allowed skeptics and critics to label *any* remote viewing done under any other methodology other than CRV as "just being psychic" and devalued these methodologies. Also, because of this, anything (other than CRV) has demoted RV to less than scientific in the public's eyes!

It should be remembered that Ingo was not *originally* a *Remote Viewer*, although he helped coin the term, along with Janet Mitchell and Karlis Osis at the ASPR. Ingo was a natural intuitive and was being studied as such when he took the term remote viewing to SRI. It was explained, in one of Puthoff and Targ's (1976) early papers, how the term remote viewing was used *instead* of psychic or intuitive.

"As observed in the laboratory, the basic phenomenon appears to cover a range of subjective experiences variously referred to in the literature as autoscopy (in the medical literature); exteriorization or dissociation (psychological literature); simple clairvoyance; traveling clairvoyance or out-of-body experience (parapsychology literature); or astral projection (occult literature). We choose the term 'remote viewing' as a neutral descriptive term, free from prior associations and bias as to mechanism."

In the end, it all comes down to terminology. What do we call the ability to mentally access information - psychic, psi, perception or something else? I quote here an unpublished sentiment from a Remote Viewing colleague Wendy Garrett (with her permission): "Call it remote viewing or psychic ability, language is the issue. Words carry bias. But the experience itself is universal. Many of us know things without knowing how. The ability exists."

The Center Lane Project is naturally invested in Controlled Remote Viewing (CRV), its training and applications, and this is understandable. However, this booklet, while having good intentions, comes across as condescending, controlling and not very convincing. You can take try and take Psi out of the equation but the result is that Remote Viewing and its history are demeaned in the process.

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Book Review

Review of Chasing the Dark: The Society for Psychical Research's 140-Year Investigation of Paranormal Activity

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Chasing the Dark: The Society for Psychical Research's 140-Year Investigation of Paranormal Activity. By Ben Machell. Abacus Books, 2025. 320 pages. $30.00 hardcover; $14.99 e-book.

There is no shortage of books devoted to real-life experiences of "ghosts and poltergeists," and the same could be said for purported "serious or scientific" treatises of these anomalies. But sometimes a text comes along at the intersection of these two perspectives. Ben Machell's *Chasing the Dark* (2025) reflects this more hybrid approach, which is both admirable and frustrating depending on your motivation as a reader. Here we have an emotionally textured and richly atmospheric investigation into supernatural claims that straddle folklore, psychical research, and psychological disturbance. At the heart of the book is the archive and legacy of Tony Cornell—a stalwart of the foundational Society for Psychical Research (SPR), whose detailed investigations into haunted houses and poltergeist phenomena form the spine of Machell's storytelling. While the book succeeds as an engrossing cultural history and a sensitive human drama, its critical lens falters in places, especially when evaluated through the emerging empirical literature in this domain.

Machell's narrative power is undeniable. The *Prologue* alone masterfully immerses readers into three haunting vignettes: a grief-stricken séance, a violent "Black Dog" manifestation, and a classic poltergeist case involving the unexplained manifestation of water. These are not simply campfire tales—they are complex psychological portraits that are often as moving as they are disturbing. The writing is clean, cinematic, and intimate, as well as balances documentary detail with literary flourish. In later chapters, Machell's recounting of the SPR's historical evolution and Cornell's painstaking casework (e.g., the 1991 "Rupert" haunting involving Ouija board use, auditory hallucinations, and psychokinetic events) is detailed and often reverential. The author clearly admires Cornell's mix of rigor and open-mindedness, and this admiration fuels the book's best passages.

But *Chasing the Dark* offers a rich archive of qualitative—but one that Machell does not fully recognize as such. Many of the reported experiences, especially those involving teenagers, family conflict, or grief, bear striking resemblance to the prevailing "agent-centered" model of ghostly episodes: patterns of subjective distress, interpersonal tension, and percept-perpetuating belief systems. The 13-year-old girl "Jenny," for example, may exemplify how unconscious psi-related processes (or recurrent spontaneous psychokinesis: RSPK, cf. Roll, 1977) externalizes emotional trauma or brings psychological equilibrium to

subclinical dis-ease states (see e.g., Ventola et al., 2019). Yet, Machell avoids deeper psychological analysis, perhaps preferring ambiguity over explanation.

This narrative ambiguity certainly benefits the book's emotional and philosophical depth, but it sacrifices academic and clinical insights. For example, there is no engagement with contemporary constructs like paranormal belief profiles, nocturnal dissociation, or meaning-making under high arousal—despite their relevance to the phenomena described. Cornell's meticulous interviews (transcribed throughout the book) already contain rich material suitable for content analysis, but the data are treated anecdotally rather than critically or diagnostically. Then again, *Chasing the Dark* may not be intended as that kind of presentation—the title clearly indicates that readers will engage with an overview of past experiences and efforts, not a contextualization of that record with present knowledge.

While Machell attempts to find a delicate balance between belief and skepticism, his book ultimately leans toward a romanticized ambiguity. Cornell is depicted as a rational, comforting presence—a secular priest of the strange, so to speak—but little attention is paid to the potential iatrogenic effects of field investigations, such as fostering certain group conformity effects, reinforcing emotion-based or maladaptive belief systems, or possibly exacerbating underlying clinical issues (see e.g., Dagnall et al., 2025; Drinkwater et al., 2019; Houran & Laythe, 2022). The absence of any discussion of suggestion effects, psychological contagion, and contemporary research on the perceptual and attitudinal correlates of thin boundary functioning (such as with paranormal belief or transliminality) weakens the book's scientific usefulness, if not credibility. Also underdeveloped is any critical reflection on class, gender, or psychological tensions in relation to the experiencers. Many of the cases involve vulnerable individuals in constrained circumstances, such as single mothers, teenagers in conflict, or working-class families. These types of psychosocial factors could be crucial aggravators or modulators of ghostly episodes (see e.g., Hess, 1988; Laythe et al., 2021; Rogo, 1982) but remain largely unexamined here.

Chasing the Dark is a beautifully written and often profoundly affecting book. Machell reanimates the legacy of psychical research for a new generation, grounding it in human experience rather than mere cataloguing of anomalies. That is a worthy accomplishment. But from the standpoints of clinical parapsychology (i.e., the study and therapeutic support of individuals experiencing paranormal or anomalous phenomena) and anomalistic psychology (i.e., the study of unusual experiences using standard explanations first rather than presuming parapsychological forces), the book represents a missed opportunity. Instead of using the SPR archive to test or refine current models of ghosts and poltergeists, Machell opted for a humanistic mystery tale. This preserves the poetry of the unexplained but does so at the cost of clinical insight and scientific rigor. That is an understandable and fair narrative angle to take, though the field is not in desperate need of such literature.

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Letter of comment on Collesso, Forrester & Baruss (2021)

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Whether the many benefits of meditation extend to the realm of psychokinesis is a question well worth pursuing, one with great practical implications for the healing arts in particular. One recent paper, intriguing but flawed, that addresses the matter is Collesso, Forrester & Baruss, 2021, published in *Journal of Scientific Exploration.*

The paper describes two separate experiments done in Professor Imants Baruss's laboratory at King's University College in Ontario, each involving 29 participants who were tasked with mentally affecting the results of a random number generator (RNG). The Experiment 2 group did the same tasks as the Experiment 1 control group, but in addition was prepped beforehand via guided meditation and visualization exercises. Whereas Experiment 1 showed no significant deviation from chance, Experiment 2 did show significant deviation. The researchers reach a careful conclusion, a suggestion of a possibility:

These analyses *suggest* that the use of meditation and visualization techniques in experiments that study direct mental influence *may* be beneficial for finding anomalous effects. (Collesso, Forrester & Baruss, 2021, p. 311; emphases mine)

This is promising work on an important topic that merits further study. A close reading of the paper, however, indicates several ways the work could be improved during any replication attempt.

Ideally, the methodologies of Experiment 1 and Experiment 2 should have been identical other than the addition, in Experiment 2, of the element under investigation. In fact, as the paper acknowledges at several points, this was not the case. I count two crucial differences between the two experiments, plus a third inconsistency within the second experiment.

Software. The computer used in both experiments had three different Psyleron REG softwares loaded: FieldREG, which collects "data without any intention" on the participant's part; PEAR Classic REG, which collects data "with such intention"; and PseudoREG, which "mimics the output of an REG by using the random number generator on a computer rather than on the REG." The researchers were interested

in averaging only the results of the FieldREG and PEAR Classic REG; however, "The PseudoREG, instead of the REG, was inadvertently used with the PEAR Classic REG software in Experiment 1" (Collesso, Forrester & Baruss, 2021, pp. 320-321). This alone seems to mandate one of two options: re-running Experiment 1 with the proper software combination before reaching any conclusions; or using the participants in Experiment 1 as a control group, as their results had no impact on the actual Psyleron software.

Participants. Participants for both experiments were "volunteers recruited from Western University, King's University College consciousness-related courses, the Psychology 1,000 [sic] participant pool, and the community" (Collesso, Forrester & Baruss, 2021, p. 320). I believe "Psychology 1,000" to be a typo for Psychology 1000, Introduction to Psychology, a course offering at Western (Western Social Science, n.d.). Experiment 2, however, added a very specific category of "community" participant: "An unsystematic effort was made to recruit participants, such as natural healers, who believed that they had some ability to directly manipulate physical reality" (Collesso, Forrester & Baruss, 2021, p. 331). The participation of self-professed adepts, specifically recruited, in Experiment 2 but not Experiment 1 is startling information to introduce on the 21st page of a 28-page paper (not counting appendices and sources). A skeptic might well accuse the researchers of having stacked the deck of Experiment 2. At a minimum, recruited adepts should have been included in Experiment 1, too; their comparable presence in both experiments may have eliminated the discrepancy between the outcomes. As conducted, Experiment 2 unsurprisingly "included a larger proportion of participants who expressed interest in consciousness or belief in anomalous abilities" (Collesso, Forrester & Baruss, 2021, p. 338).

Instruction. A further discrepancy worth noting is that Experiment 2 itself included two different methodologies. After "half of the data had been collected," the researchers realized that the participants had not been given specific instruction on how to fill out one of the standard forms, Pekala's Phenomenology of Consciousness Inventory (Pekala, 1982, 1991b). While this was corrected for the second half of participants, "statistical power may have been lost" (Collesso, Forrester & Baruss, 2021, p. 336).

The citations above demonstrate that rather than summarizing all these inconsistencies in one place, the researchers scatter them throughout their paper. This is not necessarily purposeful, but had it been, the result would have been the same. Certainly, none of these inconsistencies is mentioned in the paper's abstract (Collesso, Forrester & Baruss, 2021, p. 311) or its one-paragraph summary in the *Psi Encyclopedia* (Duggan, 2026; see the header "Meditation and Psychokinesis").

The Acknowledgments at the end of the paper state that the two experiments described therein were conducted by two different undergraduate researchers. We are told, "Experiment 1 was the first author's undergraduate honors thesis in psychology," the first author being Collesso; we are told, also, "Experiment 2 was the second author's undergraduate independent study project," the second author being Forrester. In each case, the thesis was "supervised by the third author," namely Baruss (Collesso, Forrester & Baruss, 2021, p. 339). Elsewhere, Baruss describes his approach to such supervisions:

My philosophy is that a thesis is a student's independent research project from conceptualization, through design, data-gathering, data-analyses, presentation of results, and writing. My job is to intervene as necessary for pedagogical purposes. (Baruss, "Thesis Supervision," n.d.)

Baruss's hands-off philosophy notwithstanding, the discrepancies in methodology between Exper-

iment 1 and Experiment 2 might well have been avoided had the two students collaborated from the design stage, rather than conducting, in effect, two "independent research projects." Worth mentioning, also, is that a third student, Kasha Herba, is thanked for "contributing to the design of the second study," namely Experiment 2 (Collesso, Forrester & Baruss, 2021, p. 339).

In any case, the Acknowledgments make clear that the writing of the paper was largely Collesso's work: "The first author wrote up the paper for publication with assistance from the second and third authors" (Collesso, Forrester & Baruss, 2021, p. 339). On his website, Baruss addresses such collaborations:

I no longer have time to do the writing, so, if a student project is of sufficient quality for publication, the student needs to do the necessary writing in order to bring it up to the standards of academic publication. (Baruss, "Thesis," n.d.)

The next sentence is, "This is the list of publications with student work." That list includes the paper now under discussion (Baruss, "Thesis," n.d.).

It may be largely to Collesso's credit, therefore, that much of the paper is so well written. Its lucid, concise summary of the background, covering such topics as the Princeton Engineering Anomalies Research laboratory, the use of random event generators in PK research, and Jim Carpenter's First Sight Theory of psi, is a great service to readers. Some of the passages are eminently and admirably quotable, for example:

It is important to note that our understanding of consciousness remains limited, and this arguably will persist if the scientific community continues to disregard the substantial evidence for anomalous phenomena and fails to give it sufficient consideration (Collesso, Forrester & Baruss, 2021, p. 312).

Since the publication of this paper, its co-authors have not stood still. Baruss's latest book is *Death as an Altered State of Consciousness: A Scientific Approach,* published by the American Psychology Association in 2023 (Baruss, Books, n.d.). He also has received a two-year, €26,500 ($28,751.17) grant from the BIAL Foundation for a project titled "After-Death Communication with Cell Phones" (Baruss, Blog, n.d.). Collesso received her J.D. from Western Law in 2022 and shared a national prize for another paper co-written with a professor, on the topic of online law pedagogy (Western Law, 2022). Forrester has founded Alumia Talent in Vancouver, specializing in "business assessments that combine behavioral science with structured interviews to uncover individual strengths, leadership potential, and cultural fit" (Forrester, n.d.).

Whether or not these former students ever return to parapsychology, Baruss is to be commended for involving undergraduates in important psi research and introducing them to both the joys and complexities of the field. The team's 2021 paper demonstrates a bit of both.

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Response to Commentary

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I appreciate the commentary author's attention to the work of some of my students. I want to reaffirm the timing of the research projects and address the issue of students studying anomalies.

Three REG Experiments

A student came to me who needed an undergraduate thesis in psychology. We tried to set her up to see whether mediums could tell whether a missing person was alive or dead but that proved to have too many logistical problems. So I asked her if she wanted to repeat the canonical Princeton Engineering Anomalies Research (PEAR) experiment to see if participants could mentally influence an electronic random event generator (REG). She said yes, ran the study in the psychology laboratory with 30 participants, and found no effect.

Afterwards a science student showed up who wanted to do an independent study project with me. We decided to repeat the PEAR protocol, but do everything that we could think of to try to get an effect this time. This included improving the ambience of the lab, trying to find alternative healers and others who might be more capable of jiggling the REG, and leading participants through a guided imagery exercise to increase positive emotions including love. Again, thirty participants in the lab; this time we got an effect. Because we used the Phenomenology of Consciousness Inventory in both studies, we knew that feelings of love were greater among participants in the second study, so we wondered whether that was the active ingredient in obtaining the result. We published both studies in the paper referenced by the author of the commentary, conceptualizing the first study as a control condition for the second study (Collesso, Forrester, & Barušs, 2021).

The literature suggested that positive emotions can facilitate moving a REG in the intended direction whereas dysphoric emotions can move it opposite to intention. Another science student came along. This student ran the REG protocol with 30 depressed outpatient participants in the hospital and this time the REG went opposite to intention, confirming our hypothesis (Kadler, Vasudev, Ionson, & Barušs, 2022).

Should someone do a randomized controlled trial to see whether emotions are a relevant variable in REG experiments? Of course.

Students Researching Anomalies

The author of the commentary raises the issue of students researching anomalies. There are two attitudes toward this. One is to get students involved as early as possible to get them excited about the field. The other is to tell them to wait until they have tenure before researching anomalies. But is even tenure enough? I already had tenure the first time that I applied for promotion to full professor. One of the external evaluators said something to the effect "Not only should he not be promoted, but what is he doing in your department in the first place?" The second time I applied, I did get promoted to full professor. How much protection does a person need before they can safely exercise their right to academic freedom?

If a student is interested in researching anomalies, then I have a serious discussion with them about the risks associated with doing that because of the censure that they could receive later. Most students back off. They might back off into neutral ground about anomalies, for instance, by creating a survey for reporting experiences of anomalous object displacement that does not imply that these are events that actually occurred. Or they might back off completely and study something like posttraumatic growth or AI, which do not have the same derogatory connotations. We have frequently managed to get the anomalies research published in respected journals but it is not clear to what extent that is a mitigating factor. These considerations are just the reality that I face when considering allowing students to research anomalies.

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