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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Remote Viewing the Future with a Tasking Temporal Outbounder

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Abstract—This study uses remote viewing in a predictive manner within the context of a novel experimental design to describe 11 target events spread out over a year, each of which occurs approximately one month after the remote-viewing sessions are completed. The study was conducted at The Farsight Institute using 12 highly experienced remote viewers who were trained in the use of four remote-viewing methodologies that are the same as or derived from those previously used by the United States military for espionage purposes. While prediction using remote viewing has a long and spotted history, the current investigation is aimed at enhancing our understanding of the remote-viewing phenomenon by utilizing a temporal outbounder approach to tasking in order to improve the description of future events. In this design, the tasker is located in time after the remote-viewing sessions are completed and after the occurrence of the chosen target event. Exploiting one of the largest bodies of remote-viewing data ever collected using military-related viewing methodologies, this study finds strong support for the hypothesis that experimental designs utilizing a temporal outbounder as a tasker greatly enhances the accuracy of remote-viewing descriptions of future events. The causal mechanism for why this might occur is left to be determined by future research.

The use of remote viewing to predict notable public events has a long and spotted history. Failures at using remote viewing to predict the future are abundant although under-reported in the scientific literature, a recognized phenomenon tied to the undesirability for researchers to publish negative results. Contrarily, remote viewing current and past events is not nearly as problematic, and the use of structured remote-viewing methodologies of the type developed by the United States military has been shown to be relatively effective as data-collection platforms (see especially Brown 2006, McMoneagle 2000, Puthoff 1996, Targ 1996, Puthoff & Targ 1979). The current study uses a new experimental design to investigate a novel approach to tasking that greatly enhances the accuracy of remote viewing in describing future events.

This is a process-oriented study of remote viewing. I do not attempt to "prove" in this setting that remote viewing is a real phenomenon. In my view, this has already been accomplished elsewhere (see especially Utts 1991, 1996). The accumulated statistical evidence presented in the literature of this field would have been broadly accepted long ago for a less controversial subject. Rather, my purpose here is to present the results of an extensive remote-viewing experiment that uses an innovative design that helps shed light on the process of the remote-viewing phenomenon itself.

Remote Viewing as a Data-Collection Platform

Remote viewing is a mental process of nonlocal perception based on psi that has the capability of extending the range of normal human perceptions through both space and time. Remote viewing is always conducted "blind," which means that the viewer has absolutely no prior knowledge of the nature of the target. The United States military exploited the phenomenon using trained remote viewers for many years until the official programs became publicly known and had to be closed down in the 1990s. It is publicly unknown if still-secret remote-viewing programs exist today within the military, although many assume this is highly likely.

Participating in this study were 12 remote viewers who were trained extensively (usually for well over a decade) in the use of structured remote-viewing data collection using methodologies that are either identical to or derived from those utilized by the United States military. With few exceptions, most of the remote-viewing training for these remote viewers was accomplished (long before the current experiment began) under the leadership of Glenn Wheaton who leads the Hawaii Remote Viewers' Guild (HRVG) and Lyn Buchanan who leads a group using methods known as Controlled Remote Viewing (CRV). Until their retirement from the military, Glenn Wheaton worked in Intelligence within what was essentially a decentralized movement (popularly known as the First Earth Battalion) located within the U.S. Army's Special Forces branch, whereas Lyn Buchanan worked as a remote viewer in an official program now known popularly as the Star Gate Program within the Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA).

Civilian research into the remote-viewing phenomenon is now quite advanced, and an up-to-date report of the science of remote viewing (including an extensive review of the extant scientific literature on the subject) can be found in the volume *Remote Viewing: The Science and Theory of Nonphysical Perception* (Brown 2006). Readers wanting an overview of the extant scientific literature on remote viewing are encouraged to locate it in this source, and a redundant review is omitted here for brevity. The book also presents an in-depth investigation into an enigma commonly known as the "displaced target phenomenon" that plagued decades of past research into the remote-viewing process. This phenomenon (sometimes called "cross-cutting psi channels") occurs when remote viewers are instructed to remote view a target from a list of five targets, one real (chosen by a random process) and four decoys. The results of such experiments invariably result in some remote-viewing sessions that contain excellent descriptions of one of the five targets, but not necessarily the so-called "real" target chosen by the random process. The book resolves this mystery by identifying the mechanism controlling the remote viewer's focus of perception under this and similar situations. It is theorized that the analysis process involving the five potential targets has the capability of psychically contaminating the perceptual data-collection process. The connection between this and the current study is explained further below.

It has long been known that remote viewing can be used to describe events across time (see, for example, McMoneagle 2000, 1998, 1993). However, remote viewing future events has a more spotted history than remote viewing past events. For example, in a now declassified official DIA report written for Dr. Jack Vorona on 15 October 1987 (Sun Streak Report—Third Quarter CY 87 [1987], hereafter cited as simply "Vorona's report," http://www.farsight.org/demo/Multiple_Universes/DIA_project_P_results.pdf), the success of military remote viewers at describing future events hovered between 13% and 18%, and these percentages were considered in this report to be "weak correlations" between the remote-viewing data and the targets. Although often anecdotal, many other reported attempts to use remote viewing to describe future events performed similarly. In one well-documented experiment conducted at The Farsight Institute, remote-viewing data were obtained that appeared to describe a future major earthquake in the area of Los Angeles International Airport (LAX) in 2008, and an analysis of the data published on the website for the Institute in June 2008 suggested that the most likely date for the earthquake based on the characteristics of the remote-viewing data was the last few days of July 2008. Indeed, on Tuesday, 29 July 2008, there was a notable 5.4–5.8 magnitude earthquake in Los Angeles. This exactly coincided with the predicted date of the earthquake, although the magnitude of the quake was lower than expected.

Yet another way in which remote viewing is used to describe future events is within the context of associative remote viewing experiments. In such experiments, targets are assigned to certain possible future outcomes. For example, the Eiffel Tower may be the target if the Dow Jones Average is to go up at the end of a given week, whereas a location in Death Valley may be the target if the Dow Jones Average is to go down at the end of that same week. Remote viewers do the sessions blind, and a judge evaluates whether or not the sessions resemble the Eiffel Tower or Death Valley. If the session images resemble the Eiffel Tower, then, presumably, someone involved with the experiment purchases stocks in the hope of earning money by the end of the week. If the sessions resemble Death Valley, then that same person may sell stocks in the hope of avoiding a loss at the end of the week.

Although opinions will inevitably vary, in my view associate remote-viewing experiments have a history of widely varying outcomes. At best, sometimes there is a short string of successes, and the experimenters spend years unsuccessfully trying to replicate the briefly positive results. The results are never consistent over time, and successes inevitably are much more rare than the failures. For example, in one of many associative remote-viewing experiments conducted at The Farsight Institute, 128 remote-viewing sessions were used with binary choices that led to a lottery prediction (Brown 2006:122–124). Despite extraordinary controls that included having an automated and sophisticated computer program analyze the remote-viewing data, the result was a failure in both quantitative and qualitative terms. Bluntly put, no one has ever become a millionaire based on associative remote viewing.

It is important to understand that I do not rely on Vorona's DIA study, associative remote-viewing attempts, or any other specific study as a formal control group in the current context. I discuss the physical difficulty of using a traditional control group in the current context further below. Yet some things are just so well-known they do not need to be formally structured; predicting future events using psi-based processes has never been reliably accomplished previously. (Here I am addressing only detailed descriptions of future events, not statistical evaluations of presentiment involving randomized trials, as reported by Bem [2011] and Radin [2006].) In this study however, the description of future events is shown to be unambiguously reliable (using any reasonable standard) when the experimental design involves a temporal outbounder and highly trained remote viewers. Nonetheless, while I sometimes do compare the current results to other attempts at predicting the future in the discussion below (such as with respect to Vorona's DIA study), these comparisons are of an informal nature only.

To develop this experimental design, the traditional tasking of remote-viewing sessions needed to be restructured. In traditional remote-viewing research, tasking (i.e., determining the target for a remote-viewing session) is done prior to conducting the session. For past (historical) and concurrent (at the same time that the viewing takes place) targets, this structure is outlined in Figure 1.

The trouble with remote viewing a future target is that the tasker must select an event with certainty that is in the future of the remote-viewing session. To do this, the tasker (and potentially the analyst) needs to have experienced the target event to be certain that it did indeed happen. Obviously this requires that the tasker must determine the target choice after the remote-viewing session has

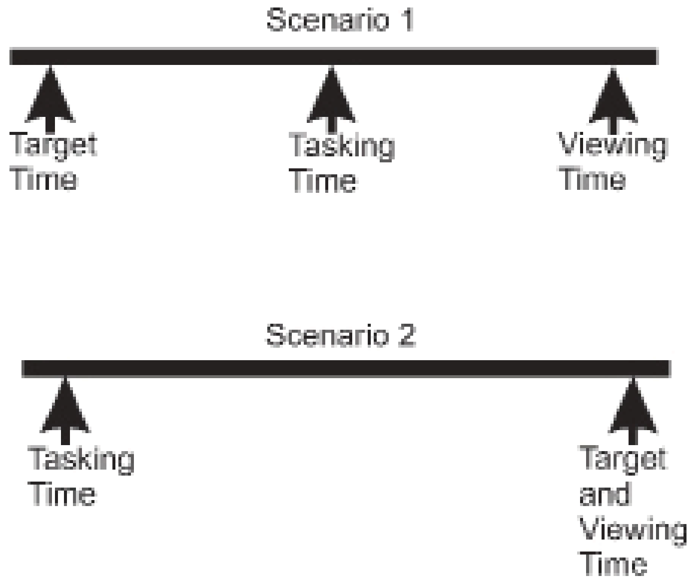

Figure 1. Traditional remote-viewing tasking scenarios for past and concurrent events in which the tasking time precedes the viewing time.

been conducted. This can happen in one of two ways. If the future event that is to be predicted is the tasker's choice of a target (that is, not the physical event itself that is described in the remote-viewing session, but the choice of which physical event is to be perceived), then the target event can be in the past as long as the tasking is done after the sessions are already completed. This scenario is shown as scenario 3 in Figure 2. Scenario 3 in Figure 2 involves the future

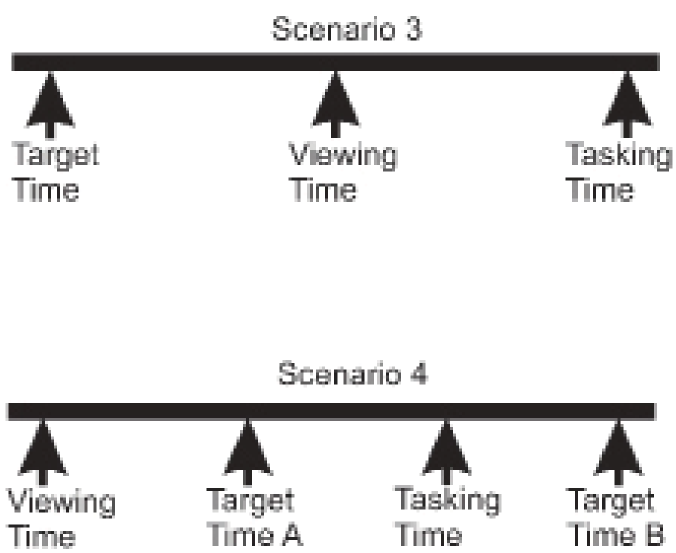

Figure 2. Alternate remote-viewing tasking scenarios in which the tasking time occurs after the viewing time.

tasking of past (historical) events, and the choice of the past event is determined after the remote-viewing session is completed. Obviously, the tasker must be totally blind with respect to the remote-viewing data for this to work.

More relevant to the current study is Scenario 4 in Figure 2, where the physical target event occurs after the remote-viewing session is conducted. There are two possibilities. With "target time A," the sequence of events is (1) viewing time, (2) target time, and (3) tasking time. In this situation, the remote-viewing data should describe the future event, but the choice of which event is determined by someone in the future of that event. We can call that future tasker a "temporal outbounder," in the sense that the tasker is someone in the future who has experienced a future event. The second possibility in Figure 2 involves "target time B," and this has the following sequence of events: (1) viewing time, (2) tasking time, and (3) target time. With this scenario, the viewing time still precedes the tasking time, but the tasker has not yet experienced the future event. This latter scenario is obviously not optimal for the current experiment since there can be no certainty that the tasker and viewer will experience the event.

This experiment is structured using Scenario 4 and tasking time A, as shown in Figure 2. To do this, an elaborate, publicly verified setup was maintained in which the remote-viewing data were collected first, followed by a period in which an undetermined target event would happen, and then another period in which the tasker would choose the target event from the set of any publicly known events that happened in the middle period. In practical terms, this was broken down into three consecutive months. To develop an example using the months of February, March, and April, the remote-viewing sessions would be conducted during the month of February. March would be a waiting period within which the eventual target event would be located. In April, the tasker would choose a target from any event that happened in the month of March.

One goal of this experiment was to have the public participate in the study by verifying the experimental process. To do this, all remote-viewing sessions were transmitted by the viewers (via fax or as email attachments) to a central office. All sessions were then encrypted using secure 256-bit encryption available in the Winzip compression software. The encrypted sessions were then placed on the website of The Farsight Institute for the public to download at the end of each viewing month. The public had one month to download the encrypted sessions while everyone waited for the third month in the sequence to arrive so that the tasker could pick a target. Sometime during the third month in the sequence, the tasker would pick a target from the set of any events that happened during the second month of the sequence. The target was then posted on the website of The Farsight Institute together with the passwords needed to decrypt the remote-viewing data.

For this experiment, two taskers participated in this project, Glenn Wheaton and Lyn Buchanan, and they alternated as taskers for a series of 11 experiments that lasted for one year. All viewers were instructed not to show or discuss any of their data to either Glenn or Lyn. These instructions were conveyed repeatedly to all viewers by myself, Glenn, and Lyn, and they were followed without violation throughout the entire project. Moreover, none of the HRVG viewers had any contact with Lyn, none of the CRV viewers had any contact with Glenn, and none of the SRV viewers had any contact with either Lyn or Glenn.

The entire three-month sequence was repeated in a rolling fashion from February 2009 through March 2010, and the public was encouraged to download and save each set of encrypted sessions for each of the experiments. Thus, the first experiment in the series began in 2009 with February as the viewing month, March as the month where the target event would occur, and April as the month when the tasker picked the first target from the set of all events that happened in March. The second experiment involved the months March 2009, April 2009, and May 2009 in a similar fashion. The third experiment involved the months April 2009, May 2009, and June 2009, and so on for the remainder of the experiments through March 2010.

Some readers may wonder when viewer feedback and session-evaluation times occur with respect to Figure 1 and Figure 2. In virtually all situations involving any of the scenarios in Figure 1 and Figure 2, viewer feedback and evaluation times occur after the final elements identified in the timelines shown in the figures. In some research, viewer feedback occurs after the sessions are evaluated by one or more judges. In other situations, viewer feedback occurs as part of the session-evaluation process. This latter situation is especially relevant when formal session “closing” procedures are utilized, which is the case with this current research. In such a situation, the viewers are the first individuals to evaluate their sessions with respect to the actual targets. The underlying rationale and application of such a closing process with respect to the current study is explained fully below.

Evaluating Remote-Viewing Data

Remote-viewing studies can be basically broken up into three periods. In the early period, the remote-viewing phenomenon was studied in its most basic form. That is, experiments were designed in which remote viewers were assigned targets chosen by human taskers, and the remote-viewing data were often evaluated subjectively by the experimenters. Sometimes these studies involved the use of spatial outbounders who went to physical locations selected from a collection of, say, three possible locations. The task of such experiments was for the remote viewer to describe the physical location of the outbounder in real time. Sometimes these procedures involved targets that were selected from a larger pool of potential targets, and statistical evaluations were made of the results based on often complex coding schemes. Pioneering (indeed, landmark) early studies at Princeton Engineering Anomalies Research (PEAR) Laboratory and Stanford Research Institute (later, SRI International) can be located within this period. This is, indeed, the approach used in Puthoff and Targ's seminal work involving spatial outbounders and remote viewing by Pat Price, Ingo Swann, and Hella Hammid (Puthoff & Targ 1976).

The second (middle) period of remote-viewing research has a clear starting point, which is the publication of a blistering review by Hansen, Utts, and Markwick (1992) of some of the early period's work. The criticisms focus in part on the use of human taskers (often outbounders capable of picking the target location), the lack of randomness in the selection of targets (such as selection from a pool without replacement), and insufficient isolation of the outbounders from the perceivers, as well as data-coding issues. A central part of their argument essentially states that any experimental design that employs human taskers in almost any manner exposes the study to targeting biases since it cannot be guaranteed that the remote viewers will not have picked up subconscious cues from the taskers as to the nature of the target. This is particularly important when there has been some direct contact between the taskers and the perceivers, although the issue can still arise if intermediaries who have contact with both the taskers and the perceivers act as subconscious informational leaks. With respect to target selection, part of the recommended "solution" is to use computer programs or other non-human methods of randomly selecting targets with replacement from a pool of diverse potential targets.

One of the procedures to emerge from this second period involves a method aimed at making the analysis of remote-viewing data more objective. This method is to have a list of, say, five potential targets, one real and the others decoys. The real target would be chosen by a computer or other random dynamic process. The remote-viewing data would then be evaluated by a panel of, say, three judges who would be blind as to the chosen real target. Their job was to compare the data with the list of five targets to determine which target resembles the data best.

As mentioned previously, this process led to the emergence of the "displaced-target" phenomenon, in which the remote viewers would often produce data that clearly described one or more of the decoy targets rather than the "real" target. Targ and Harary (1984) suggest that the targets on the list cannot be fully separated psychically, and thus they are placed in a "psychic bubble" from which viewers draw their perceptions. This phenomenon led to years of researchers bemoaning the apparent fickle nature of remote viewing. (See especially Hyman 1996, Jahn 1982, Targ 1999:89.) Indeed, statistical techniques were developed and sometimes applied in an attempt to control for the lack of independence across the target pool, often referenced as the "stacking problem" (Thouless & Brier 1970).

In general, during the second period of remote-viewing research, the overall solution to the problem of collecting and analyzing remote-viewing data was to follow the general guidelines of Hansen, Utts, and Markwick (1992) to remove the human element from the experimental design as much as possible. The problem with the "solution" is that the implicit assumption was made that the remote-viewing phenomenon could be isolated with respect to causality in classical terms. In practical terms, it was assumed that the computer program that chose the "real" target could actually do this. That is, it was assumed that the focus of the perceptions of the remote viewers when they conducted their sessions could be constrained by the target choice of the computer. It is important to note that this assumption was simply posited; it was never tested to see if the computer itself was the actual constraining mechanism. Bluntly put, many researchers during the second period of remote-viewing research did not fully appreciate the nonlocal nature of the remote-viewing phenomenon itself. Indeed, they did not fully understand what makes a target a target.

Subsequent research (Brown 2006) indicates that the focus of perception of a remote viewer is crucially dependent on the thoughts of the person who analyzes the remote-viewing data for the first time. While there is insufficient space here to entirely recount the research that establishes this aspect of the remote-viewing phenomenon, the essence of the argument is that a telepathic connection between the remote viewers (when they do their sessions) and the analysts (when they compare the remote-viewing data to the targets on the list) essentially creates or establishes the focus of perception of the remote viewers. In practice, this telepathic connection creates the target for the experiment. The classical methods of isolating causality fail; neither time nor space act as separators between the remote viewers and the analysts.

The remote-viewing sessions are being done with the intent of satisfying the informational needs of the analysts, and the thoughts of the analysts at the time that they are analyzing the remote-viewing data indeed determine the focus of perception of the remote viewers. With respect to the "pick a target from the list of five" procedure, since the judges have all five targets on their minds when they compare the remote-viewing data with the targets to determine the best fit, any of the five targets are fair game for the perception of the remote viewers. In a very real sense, the judges are playing the unwitting role of outbounders in a period-one style remote-viewing experiment. The only known way to circumvent the problem is to utilize a spatial outbounder who is physically located at a target site at the time that the remote viewing is being done. With that approach, the dominant telepathic connection is with the spatial outbounder in a situation of competing mental attractors (the analysts vs. the outbounder).

Thus, it is impossible to separate in classical terms the viewing from the analysis of the viewing. The time separation of the two events cannot causally separate the two events given the nonlocal nature of the remote-viewing phenomenon itself. Indeed, the computer program (or other random dynamic event) that supposedly chooses the “correct” target as mentioned in the “solution” above is irrelevant in constraining the focus of perception that the remote viewers experience. The experimental design itself is, in fact, corrupting the collection of the remote-viewing data, producing what one might call a telepathically induced “perceptual leak.” This leak is not a minor issue; it is central to the remote-viewing phenomenon itself. In experiments using this procedure, a slight extra mental emphasis was usually placed on the so-called “correct” target due to extra mental focusing over time by the judges (especially post-target feedback), and this often allowed experimentalists to obtain statistical significance across trials despite the perceptual corruption. But these results were far less consistent than they would have been had the experimental design used been more appropriately structured to match the actual perceptual process inherent with the remote-viewing phenomenon.

Some researchers may object to some of my characterizations of early period remote-viewing research. For example, in the seminal study mentioned earlier by Puthoff and Targ (1976), a complex system of blind judging was utilized to evaluate nine remote-viewing trials, and the results were significant by any reasonable standard. Some researchers may argue that this demonstrates that blind judging procedures work well as traditionally configured, and that these methods were not limited to the second period of remote-viewing research. However, details matter, and one must remember that all of those trials in the Puthoff and Targ report involved a spatial outbounder. The remote viewers were tasked with perceiving the correct target as it was being concurrently perceived by the outbounder who was physically located at the target location. From the current perspective, this established a telepathic connection between the viewers and the outbounder that dominated any subsequent mental activity of the blind judges. The intent of the viewer was, in fact, to perceive what the outbounder was perceiving, not to satisfy the informational needs of the blind judges. Indeed, my argument in this report is that the use of a tasking temporal outbounder parallels the use of a spatial outbounder in controlling the focus of perception of a remote viewer, thereby making the description of a future event more accurate. Of historical interest, the original name for this project was “The Multiple Universes Project,” which reflects the desire to test for a causal mechanism behind the success in using a temporal outbounder as a tasker for future-based remote-viewing sessions. However, no attempt is made here to address the causal mechanism underlying the phenomenon.

Other examples from the early period of remote-viewing research of experiments utilizing both blind judging and spatial outbounders are numerous. For example, statistical significance was found in two such remote-viewing experiments conducted by Bisaha and Dunne (1979, 2002). Readers interested in similar examples where blind judging procedures were used with experiments involving spatial outbounders might find the following reports of interest: Dunne and Bisaha 1979, Hastings and Hurt 1976, Schlitz and Gruber 1980, 1981, Schlitz and Haight 1984, Vallee 1988.

The Third Period of Remote-Viewing Research

We are currently in the beginning of the third period of remote-viewing research. In this period, the argument has been made (although it may not yet be fully accepted by the broader scientific community) that the experimental design in which "blind" judges evaluate sessions with respect to a small pool of targets is fatally flawed and needs to be abandoned entirely. It cannot be fixed by minor adjustment. Indeed, current research indicates that it is impossible to entirely remove the human element from the tasking and analysis aspects of the remote-viewing perceptual process. The key is to isolate the tasking and analysis processes such that the complaints made of the early period of remote-viewing research can be addressed without compromising the data-collection process itself. One solution is to place both the target and the tasking process in the future of the time when the remote-viewing sessions are done, as done in this study. This way the viewers can clearly be completely blind on a conscious level as to the nature of the target since it is in the future of the viewing time. Moreover, the pool of possible targets is essentially infinite for all practical purposes.

However, there is still the matter of isolating the influence of the initial analyst in the evaluative process. Since it has been argued (Brown 2006) that the thoughts of the analyst who first compares the remote-viewing data to the actual target can crucially affect the focus of perception that is experienced by the remote viewer, the experimental design for this study involves having the remote viewers themselves "close" their own sessions. Closing a session is the process in which the temporal loop between the time when the remote-viewing session is completed and the data are first analyzed is finalized. Closing a session essentially "seals" the data from telepathic contamination in the subsequent analysis process. The exact process of closing as performed in this study is described further below.

Having the remote viewers close their own sessions resolves another issue that was never fully understood during the first or second periods of remote-viewing research. Research conducted at The Farsight Institute over the past 15 years (summarized in Brown 2006) indicates that any extraneous thoughts that the analyst may have about the viewer can also compromise the quality of the remote-viewing data. For example, if an analyst believes that men are better remote viewers than women, the remote-viewing data obtained by the male remote viewers will, on average, be better than those obtained by the women. It does not matter that the analyst has been separated from the viewer in classical terms of time and space. It does not even matter that the analyst is unknown to the viewer. The viewer is collecting the perceptual data to satisfy the informational needs of the analyst, whoever that person may be, and the thoughts of that person (any and all thoughts) constrain the perceptual focus of the viewer. Other analyst-held beliefs similarly telepathically introduce prejudices and other oddities into the data-collection process and need to be eliminated.

Emphatically, the remote-viewing phenomenon is based on nonlocal thought. Thoughts matter, and extraneous or leading thoughts cannot be fully isolated in time and space. The extraneous and leading thoughts need to be controlled in a manner that is not time- and space-dependent. Intermediate target possibilities evaluated by blind judges introduce biases and corruption in the data-collection process and must be avoided. The judges are unwittingly closing the sessions on all of the target possibilities, thereby creating erroneous foci of perceptions for the remote viewers. All of these problems are ameliorated or eliminated entirely when the remote viewers close their own sessions.

In practical terms, this means that for all of the remote-viewing sessions collected in this study, after the tasker chose a target, the target identity was first revealed individually to each remote viewer. Each remote viewer would then close his or her own session by carefully comparing each page of the session data with the actual target. This ensured that the focus of perception for each remote viewer was constrained by his or her own thoughts during each session closing. Indeed, when each session was posted to the web in encrypted form, the posting process was entirely mechanical using unopened PDF files, and only the remote viewer knew the content of the session. Thus, no human was allowed to see any of the remote-viewing data prior to the time when each remote viewer reported that the session was closed. Meticulous records were kept to ensure that these procedures were followed without violation. Only after a session was closed by a remote viewer were others allowed to see the session data and compare them with the actual target.

The Issue of a Traditional Control Group

It is now appropriate to ask if a traditional control group can be used in the current context to evaluate data involving descriptions of future events. This is a clear situation in which traditional approaches to experimental designs conflict with the remote-viewing process being evaluated. The primary element being evaluated here is the use of a temporal outbounder (located in the future) to task the remote-viewing sessions. A control group must have everything else the same except for that single element. To construct an appropriate control group, one would have to utilize an all-knowing tasker at the time that the remote-viewing sessions are being done (or prior to their being done) who could accurately and perfectly predict an unanticipated future event 100% of the time. This is clearly not possible, and if it could be done, there would be no need to use remote viewing to describe the future events in the first place.

The best that can be done in terms of a control group is to utilize less formal comparisons, such as to compare the current results with relatively unsuccessful attempts at associative remote viewing, such as experiments described above and conducted at The Farsight Institute (Brown 2006:122–124). Also, informal comparisons can be made with respect to predictions of the future as described in reports such as the one prepared by the DIA for Dr. Vorona. The comparisons are not perfect, but they are nonetheless useful.

One of the important differences between the current experimental setup and associative remote viewing attempts is that the latter utilize only a small set of potential targets. In the current study, the future events are drawn from an infinite collection of future possibilities, many of which are entirely unpredictable using traditional means. Obviously such events could not be anticipated by the tasker in advance. Many of the targets involved in this study are of that nature, such as a tornado that rips through Meno, Arkansas, or the appearance of a spiral anomaly in the skies over Norway, or the malfunction of a major prop involved in an Olympic ceremony.

The fact that the current study draws its targets from an infinite set of future possible events adds emphasis to the current results. That is, from a probabilistic perspective, associative remote viewing using only a small set of potential targets should be much easier to do than what is done in the current study, and so the comparison with associative remote viewing strengthens the current results greatly. Thus, even though the comparison is not entirely appropriate, the statistical probabilities run strongly against the ability of the current experimental setup to succeed. The fact that the experiment does succeed so well is quite remarkable from a probabilistic point of view.

Nonetheless, I fully recognize that some, and perhaps many, researchers may wish to persist with the creation of a formal control group in a followup study related to this report. We must recognize that there will always be differences in opinion as to how to proceed, and I offer my views here as only one such opinion. I suggest only that future researchers attempt to address these concerns as best as they may see fit. In short, since it is not possible for a tasker to know of a future and unexpected event, the most likely solution to the problem will be to utilize an associative remote viewing design related to some future event that is partially predictable. For example, let us say that an associative remote viewing design is developed with respect to a sporting event such as a football game. It is partially predictable since it can be assumed that the sporting event will in fact take place, and that there will be a winner in the competition. A rule could be devised stating that if team X wins the competition, then the remote viewers should perceive target A, and if team Y wins, then the remote viewers should perceive target B.

The problems with this approach should be obvious, and I offer no solutions to them here. The design does not come close to paralleling that used in the current study where no association is made between an external event and a target. This violates the principle in which a control group should involve one and only one thing different from the experimental group. Also, the associative remote viewing design ignores my previous argument as to what makes a target a target, which I argue has nothing to do with whatever rule someone may configure. The focus of perception for a remote viewer is dependent upon a telepathic connection between the viewer at the time of the viewing and the person conducting an analysis or closing process in which the session data are compared for the first time with the actual target. With associative remote viewing, the analysis is conducted prior to the decision event (such as the outcome of the sporting competition), which adds deep levels of telepathic conflict to the desired outcome of the remote-viewing experiment. Also, the rule of target association applied in associative remote-viewing experiments is not independent of this telepathic conflict. In my view, in any such future study utilizing an associative remote-viewing design as a control group, any appearance of a displaced target (that is, a good remote-viewing description of the wrong target given the associative rule) should be immediately recognized as a perceptual leak in the experimental design. The problem should not be ignored, nor should it be relegated to an anomaly involving a lack of independence across the target pool that is dealt with using statistical methods that essentially cover up an unacceptable design flaw.

With this said, I nonetheless offer a prediction. In future studies using a control group structured with an associative remote viewing design, the accuracy of remote-viewing sessions utilizing such an approach should be, on average, lower than that achieved using an approach employing a temporal outbounder as the tasker as has been done in this study. The manifestation of displaced targets in the associative remote-viewing results alone should guarantee this outcome, at least on average.

The question remains as to how the remote-viewing sessions in this study are to be evaluated. Clearly the process of having "blind" judges compare the sessions to small pools of targets, one real and the others decoys, is not a viable option for the reasons given above. Nor is it possible to construct a traditional control group. There are three alternative approaches to session analysis that are possible. The first is for a post-closing analyst to evaluate each remote-viewing session with respect to the actual targets, and to rate each session according to the accuracy and depth of the target descriptions. This approach is useful since any subsequent reader can return to the original data to confirm the rating, and one does not have to rely on the one-time rating of "blind" judges who were unwitting participants in the data-collection process itself.

While some researchers do support using blinded judging in all situations (e.g., Hansen, Utts, & Markwick 1992), I have long pointed out (Brown 2006) weaknesses in their favored approaches to judging, many of which are mentioned above. But more generally, blinded judging is most appropriate in "proof-of-psi" investigations involving trials with a great deal of noise within the perceptual data. As mentioned previously, this is a process-oriented study, not a proof-of-psi study, and the structure and requirements of process-oriented studies differ from proof-oriented studies. One of the primary reasons for using highly trained remote viewers in studies such as the current one is that their data contain much lower levels of noise. Their data are also typically very rich in descriptive detail and highly unambiguous, often raising the judging process to the level of "obvious," blind or otherwise.

There is no scientifically justifiable reason why non-blinded judging should not be used in carefully applied situations that address process-oriented questions. For example, if all non-blinded scoring in the social sciences were eliminated, the fields of political science, sociology, anthropology, psychology, and others would not be recognizable. In the social sciences, we teach our graduate students how to score all sorts of data competently (violence scores for inner city riots, interview scores, newspaper content scores, etc.). We write peer-reviewed books about scoring procedures. The National Science Foundation spends millions of dollars each year supporting research that involves non-blinded scoring. Even survey research typically requires face-to-face interviews with respondents that involve the non-blinded scoring of data. The key criteria used in these fields are that the scoring process has to be fully explained, and the data must be publicly available for independent verification and replication using the same or alternate scoring criteria. Followup studies can then be done which employ alternative judging procedures to further test the initial results, including blinded judging when possible and/or appropriate.

One problem with using a standardized evaluative rating (blinded or otherwise) is that it does not allow for the identification of sessions that clearly and unambiguously describe unique elements in a target. These unique elements are important to the evaluation of remote-viewing data because some readers may think that a session can have a high rating simply due to the existence of standard elements that appear across many targets. A sensitive scoring process applied in a consistent manner can resolve this, but readers are left with the task of checking the scoring personally. Until this check is done, readers may wonder if the scoring is compromisingly subjective. A solution to this is discussed immediately below.

Unique Element Portrayals

The second approach to analyzing remote-viewing data resolves this issue by identifying unique target elements that have been unambiguously described in a remote-viewing session. This is easy for others to check, and it is an entirely objective measure of session evaluation. Little or no interpretation is required on the part of the analyst with respect to this, and it is referred to as "Unique Element Portrayal," or UEP. In practice, a remote-viewing session is marked as containing a description of a unique target element by the placement of a UEP marker for the session. If a session has a UEP marker, this signifies that the session contains at least one description that unambiguously describes a unique element in the target.

A unique target element is some important target component that is not a normal element in other targets. For example, flat land would not be a unique target element since many targets are located on flat land, and the same could be said of blue sky. However, something much more specific with, say, a unique shape, purpose, or energy would be a possible unique target element. For example, if the target is a space satellite, the clear description of a space satellite together with an unambiguous, detailed, high-quality sketch would be a Unique Element Portrayal, and a session having such an unambiguous description would be signified with a UEP marker.

Unique Element Portrayals often involve highly specific sketches of some element of the target, although a highly specific verbal description can also qualify. Indeed, the ability of extensively trained remote viewers to obtain such descriptions is the primary reason for utilizing such viewers in a project such as this. Without such viewers, research utilizing UEP markers in the manner described above would not be possible.

Remote-viewing sessions that have a high rating as per the first method mentioned above (also, see "clarity scores" below) in addition to having been marked as containing at least one UEP are normally considered unambiguous evidence of remote viewing. Such sessions should normally satisfy the judging concerns of all reasonable people as indicating that the remote viewers have provided accurate descriptions of the given target.

A third method of analyzing remote-viewing data that does not run into the problems mentioned earlier with respect to the "pick a target out of five" process is to code each session "post-closing" with respect to a detailed collection of set characteristics and then compare this numerical dataset with a similar numerical dataset for the given target. Statistical significance is found when comparing this session-target correspondence with similar correspondences that are obtained when comparing the remote-viewing session to a large pool of other targets. In practice, this is a complex process involving a large assortment of statistical evaluations, and it is used extensively in the report by Brown (2006). The software to conduct such analyses (the SAM program) is available for free from the website of The Farsight Institute (http://www.farsight.org). However, this analysis process is not included in the current report for reasons specified below.

This study employs the first two approaches to analyzing remote-viewing data as described above. That is, each session is compared with the target in a post-closing setting and rated with respect to the accuracy of the target descriptions. The method of rating is described below. Additionally, evidence of unambiguously accurate remote viewing is indicated by the identification of sessions with UEP markers. A number of examples of Unique Element Portrayal are also shown below to further clarify their unambiguous nature.

The third approach involving statistical evaluations of the sessions with respect to a large pool of targets is not used here because of (1) concerns of brevity, since such an evaluation would add a substantial new layer to the current report, and (2) little additional benefit would be gained from such a statistical analysis that is not already easily apparent with the application of the first two approaches in combination. Since all of the original data are available on the website for The Farsight Institute (http://www.farsight.org), interested readers can themselves confirm any of the session evaluations by examining the data in detail. Additionally, the objective nature of the UEP identifications as described below should unambiguously clarify for any reader the accurate nature of the remote-viewing perceptions obtained in this study.

I am a mathematician by training and vocation, and I teach statistics for a living, relying on them for a great deal of my work. But statistics are not a panacea. One does not need advanced statistics to conclude that a truck has just plowed into your garage. Statistics are obviously needed when dealing with remote-viewing data that are severely “fuzzy.” For example, this is the motivation for the attempt by May, Utts, Humphrey, Luke, Frivold, and Trask (1990) to create a coding scheme for remote-viewing data using fuzzy set technology that is designed to enable computer-based analysis. While I have expressed serious concerns with how they operationalize their scheme (Brown 2006:113–116), the point to be made here is that such approaches are a necessary consequence of working with relatively poor quality remote-viewing data. When the quality of the data are poor, researchers need all sorts of tools to test for evidence of psi functioning, and statistical approaches are entirely appropriate in this respect.

But the entire purpose of working with highly trained remote viewers in the first place is to improve the quality of the remote-viewing data such that the evidence of psi functioning is self-apparent. Indeed, if evidence of psi functioning with respect to remote viewing remains dependent upon complex statistical approaches to be discerned, then remote viewing would never become of practical use. The fact that the military once relied on remote viewers for practical espionage purposes (and many suspect that a new secret program most likely still exists), suggests that it is possible for highly trained viewers to provide high-quality data that can be understood in a self-evident manner. The current availability of a pool of highly trained civilian remote viewers (albeit still a small pool) changes the psi-based research map in this respect.

The clarity scores described below in combination with the UEP identifications produce unambiguous self-apparent evidence of psi functioning. Many examples are offered in the discussion that follows. Anyone left unconvinced with such evidence will not be swayed by any statistical analysis, regardless of the tests used or the *p*-values obtained. These matters should become clear beyond dispute as the data are presented below.

Clarity Scores

All remote-viewing sessions in this study have been evaluated using "clarity scores." Clarity scores evaluate sessions with respect to known and verifiable characteristics of the target. Clarity scores can range from 0 to 3, and they convey the following meaning:

- 3: The known and verifiable target aspects are described exceptionally well with few, minor, or no decoding errors.
- 2: The known and verifiable target aspects are described well. There may be some notable decoding errors.
- 1: The known and verifiable target aspects are described minimally. There may also be significant decoding errors.
- 0: The known and verifiable target aspects are described very poorly or not at all.

Roughly comparing this coding scheme to the criteria used in Dr. Vorona's Sun Streak DIA report referenced previously, for a single session, a clarity score of 1 would be similar to a "weak correlation" for that session with respect to the remote-viewing data and the target, a clarity score of 2 would be a "moderate correlation," and a clarity score of 3 would be a "strong correlation." Alternatively, when quantitatively comparing the number of sessions in a collection that describe a target well (that is, a "hit"), the proportion of hits as reported to Vorona would be approximately comparable with the proportion of sessions in the current study having clarity scores of 2 or greater. Again, Vorona's report describes a hit rate of 13% to 18% of total sessions and describes this as a "weak correlation."

Decoding errors occur when a remote viewer perceives something that is real at the target, but the description of this perception is not entirely correct. For example, if someone describes a city with tall skyscrapers as a mountain range, that is a decoding error. The perception is correct in terms of the target's peaked topography, but the characterization of it as a mountain range is incorrect. Also, if a person places trees or animals in a barren natural landscape, that is a decoding error. The perception of a natural landscape is correct, but the conscious mind added things that it thought would be normal for a natural landscape. Remote-viewing training focuses on minimizing decoding errors, and experienced remote viewers can often become quite proficient with this. Different remote-viewing methodologies address this issue in different ways, although there is considerable overlap in theory.

For this study, 86 remote-viewing sessions were conducted across 11 highly diverse targets, with 12 participating remote viewers using four remote-viewing methodologies (HRVG, CRV, SRV, and TDS). This is one of the largest remote-viewing studies of its kind using structured remote-viewing methodologies that are the same as or derived from those developed by the United States military. Again, the targets for this study are highly diverse, and they are listed in Table 1.

TABLE 1
The Targets Chosen for the Multiple Universes Project

Targets for All Experiments	Target Month*	Tasker
Lighting the Cauldron at the 2010 Olympic Games	February 2010	Lyn Buchanan
The Norwegian Spiral Anomaly	December 2009	Glenn Wheaton
The Macy's Thanksgiving Day Parade	November 2009	Lyn Buchanan
NASA's LCROSS Mission to the Moon	October 2009	Glenn Wheaton
An Oktoberfest at Holloman Airforce Base	September 2009	Lyn Buchanan
The Edinburgh Military Tattoo in Scotland	August 2009	Glenn Wheaton
The Estonian Laulupidu (Song Festival)	July 2009	Lyn Buchanan
Paragliding Landings Event at the World Games in Turin, Italy	June 2009	Glenn Wheaton
The Landing of the Space Shuttle Atlantis	May 2009	Lyn Buchanan
A Tornado in Mena, Arkansas	April 2009	Glenn Wheaton
The Launch of the Kepler Mission	March 2009	Lyn Buchanan

* The remote-viewing sessions were completed prior to the target month, and the target was chosen by the tasker the month after the target month. Each target event happened during the target month. Thus, three sequential months were blocked off as follows: 1) sessions completed, (2) target event happens, (3) target is chosen from the set of anything that happened during the second month.

The months within which the target events took place are also listed in Table 1, together with the name of the tasker for each target. All of the remote-viewing data for these experiments (scans of all original session pages), summaries of all session results, plus detailed descriptions of all of the targets (including images and video), can be found at the following url: http://www.farsight.org/demo/Multiple_Universes/Multiple_Universes_Experiment.html

Target Criteria

The taskers for this project were given clear instructions regarding how to pick targets for this project. The goal was to maximize the amount of meaningful information that is available for each target, which is related to the concept of "Shannon Entropy" as discussed by May, Spottiswoode, and James (1994) as well as Watt (1988). (See also May, Spottiswoode, & Faith 2000.) Here, preferred targets are ones with dramatic visual appeal or activity. In addition to more general guidance to target specification (see "The Prometheus Protocols" on the website for The Farsight Institute for full details, http://www.farsight.org/SRV/Prometheus_Protocols.pdf), the taskers were given the following explicit instructions:

1. All targets must be events that take place during an assigned month. There should be significant activity at the target site. Thus, Tiger Woods golfing is not a good target since there is not much activity with such a target (i.e., just people standing around on generally flat land).

2. Targets should involve a large geographical area with significant topological variety. Thus, a birthday party in someone's backyard would not be an appropriate target. On the other hand, an eruption of a volcano would be an appropriate target.

3. Most targets should be external, in the sense that targets should not be small things embedded in a structure or other macro environment. For example, someone placing a flower pot on a kitchen table is not an appropriate target for the Multiple Universes Project. Exceptions to this rule would be targets that involve large events with significant activity inside of large structures, such as sporting or musical events.

4. All acceptable targets for the Multiple Universes project must be verifiable to a worldwide audience using normal Internet sources. Thus, a clipping from a local newspaper about some event would not be acceptable.

5. Targets should be newsworthy, in the sense that the general public should have a natural interest in the target.

6. Targets do not need to be found on Earth. Targets off-planet are acceptable as long as the target locations and events are verifiable using normal Internet news sources.

7. One last (and crucially important) point. The target must be chosen by the tasker without ANY input or assistance at all—of any type—from anyone else. The tasker/targeter must not communicate any information about the target to anyone prior to the target's selection. This includes spouses, best friends, workmates, or absolutely anyone else.

Results

A wide-angle view of the project results organized by targets is presented in Table 2. In Table 2, the total session clarity scores for each of the targets and all sessions are listed, as well as the percent for each clarity score. For example, with respect to the "Lighting the Cauldron at the 2010 Olympic Games" target, four sessions had clarity scores of 3, two sessions had clarity scores of 2, and three sessions had clarity scores of 1, for a total of nine sessions. There were no sessions with clarity scores less than 1. In terms of percent, 66% of the sessions had clarity scores of 2 or 3, which is a sound performance for psi-based data.

TABLE 2
Clarity Score Totals for All Sessions by Target (raw:percent)

Targets for All Experiments	3	2	1	0	Total # of Sessions
Lighting the Cauldron at the 2010 Olympic Games	4:44%	2:22%	3:33%		9
The Norwegian Spiral Anomaly	3:50%	1:17%	2:33%		6
The Macy's Thanksgiving Day Parade	1:17%		4:67%	1:17%	6
NASA's LCROSS Mission to the Moon	6:86%		1:14%		7
An Oktoberfest at Holloman Airforce Base	2:22%	2:22%	3:33%	2:22%	9
The Edinburgh Military Tattoo in Scotland	2:25%	1:13%	5:63%		8
The Estonian Laulupidu (Song Festival)	1:17%	1:17%	3:50%	1:17%	6
Paragliding Landings Event at the World Games in Turin, Italy	1:13%	1:13%	6:75%		8
The Landing of the Space Shuttle Atlantis	2:25%	3:38%	2:25%	1:13%	8
A Tornado in Mena, Arkansas	6:60%	2:20%	2:20%		10*
The Launch of the Kepler Mission	4:44%	5:56%			9
Totals	32	18	31	5	86
Percent	37%	21%	36%	6%	100%

* The total number of sessions done for this target was 11. One session was removed from this pool because of an accidental closing error, thereby invalidating the session.

Summarizing the results for all targets at the bottom of Table 2, 37% of all sessions had clarity scores of 3, 21% had clarity scores of 2, 36% had clarity scores of 1, and 6% had clarity scores of zero. Thus, more than half of all 86 sessions (58%) had clarity scores of 2 or 3. When compared with the description in Vorona's report of weak correlations between remote-viewing sessions and future targets of 13% to 18%, the current results are remarkably strong. It is worth reminding the reader that the assertion of this study is that the difference between the results for the two projects is fundamentally related to the use of a temporal outbounder as the tasker.

This conclusion can be further enhanced by examining the clarity scores when organized by viewers, as is presented in Table 3. Table 3 includes the raw clarity scores for all viewers, as well as the associated percentages. There will always be performance variations among viewers. Remote viewing is both

TABLE 3
Clarity Score Totals for All Viewers (raw:percent)

Remote Viewers for All Experiments	3	2	1	0	Total Number of Sessions
Daz Smith (CRV)	5:45%	2:18%	4:36%		11
Pat Sage (CRV)		1:100%			1
Dan Chevalier/Romferd (CRV)	2:33%	1:17%	3:50%		6
Rising Sun Touch (CRV)	1:50%		1:50%		2
Apollo 1969 (CRV)		3:100%			3
Dick Allgire/Viewer 212/Allergic Kid (HRVG)	9:75%	2:17%	1:8%		12**
Debra Duggan-Takagi (HRVG	4:40%	2:20%	3:30%	1:10%	10
Sita Seery (HRVG)	2:25%	1:13%	5:63%		8
Maria (HRVG)	4:36%	2:18%	2:18%	3:27%	11
Anne (HRVG)	2:17%	4:33%	6:50%		12**
Michele (HRVG)*			6:100%		6
Athena (SRV)	2:67%			1:33%	3
Athena (TDS)	1:100%				1
Totals	32	18	31	5	86
Percent	37%	21%	36%	6%	100%

* Michele was a new viewer who had just begun her training in the HRVG methodology. She used a portion of the methodology.
** These viewers did more than one session for some targets.

skill- and talent-based, like any other performance. For example, one listens to a piano recital by Lang Lang because of a desire to hear beautiful music played by a virtuoso. Part of Lang Lang's performance is based on talent, and part is based on learned skill. To some extent, one can substitute skill for talent, and talent for skill. But when high levels of both talent and skill are combined, consistently sublime music is the result.

From Table 3 we can identify viewers who consistently achieve relatively high levels of remote-viewing performance, and this can offer significant theoretical purchase with respect to the central hypothesis for this study. Consider the viewers who contributed ten or more sessions for this project. In particular, note that the results for Dick Allgire are remarkably strong. Indeed, nine of his 12 sessions (75%) had clarity scores of 3, and 92% of his sessions had clarity scores of 2 or greater. Similarly, note that Daz Smith conducted 11 sessions for this project, and 63% of his sessions had clarity scores of 2 or greater. Also, 60% of Debra Duggan-Takagi's ten sessions had clarity scores of 2 or greater, and 50% or more of the sessions conducted by Maria and Anne had clarity scores of 2 or greater. Thus, while we do see variation across viewers, the fact that even one viewer (for example, Dick Allgire) can have such unambiguous results offers support for the central hypothesis of this report.

Sessions with Unique Element Portrayals

Not all sessions with clarity scores of 3 had Unique Element Portrayals. And while it is possible for a session with a clarity score of 2 to have a UEP, it is unlikely to happen in practice. Usually, a viewer needs to have a deep level of target contact in order to have a UEP, and it is almost a rule that a session with a UEP will nearly certainly contain a great deal of additional correct information such that it obtains an overall clarity score of 3. In this experiment, no sessions with clarity scores below a 3 contained a UEP. Thus, we need focus only on those sessions with clarity scores of 3 which also contain at least one description that is a compelling description of a unique element in the target.

Table 4 summarizes all sessions with clarity scores of 3 which also have at least one UEP. Among all 32 sessions with a clarity score of 3, 27 of those sessions also contain at least one UEP, or 84%. In comparison with psi research using minimally trained or untrained viewers (which involves the bulk of the extant remote-viewing studies originating from the second period of remote-viewing research as identified previously), this is an exceptionally high number, and this is another indicator of the value of extensive and long-term training in a structured remote-viewing methodology.

It is difficult to appreciate the unambiguous nature of UEPs without actually looking at the data themselves. At this point, it is useful to show some examples of remote-viewing data for sessions with both a clarity score of

TABLE 4
Unique Element Portrayal (UEP) for All Sessions with Clarity Scores of 3 by Target

Targets for All Experiments	Number of UEP	Number with Clarity 3	% UEP	Total Number of Sessions
Lighting the Cauldron at the 2010 Olympic Games	4	4	100%	9
The Norwegian Spiral Anomaly	3	3	100%	6
The Macy's Thanksgiving Day Parade	1	1	100%	6
NASA's LCROSS Mission to the Moon	4	6	67%	7
An Oktoberfest at Holloman Airforce Base	2	2	100%	9
The Edinburgh Military Tattoo in Scotland	1	2	50%	8
The Estonian Laulupidu (Song Festival)	1	1	100%	6
Paragliding Landings Event at the World Games in Turin, Italy	1	1	100%	8
The Landing of the Space Shuttle Atlantis	2	2	100%	8
A Tornado in Mena, Arkansas	4	6	67%	10
The Launch of the Kepler Mission	4	4	100%	9
Totals	27	32		86
Percent	31%	37%	84%	100%

3 and a UEP, and for this purpose remote-viewing sketches are particularly helpful. For the sketches shown below, accurate verbal descriptions accompany these sketches within the sessions. Nonetheless, most readers will see that the sketches themselves make the point. Examples of some verbal UEPs are offered following the discussion of the sketches. It is not possible to present all UEPs (sketches or verbal) here for reasons of space. But all of the data are available for inspection on the website for The Farsight Institute, and readers are encouraged to examine all the data for themselves.

Figure 3 is a sketch drawn by Dick Allgire of the tornado entering Mena, Arkansas, which is the target event that occurred during April 2009 for this project. Figure 4 is a sketch of the internal structure of the tornado, taken from the same session as the sketch in Figure 3. From another session, this time

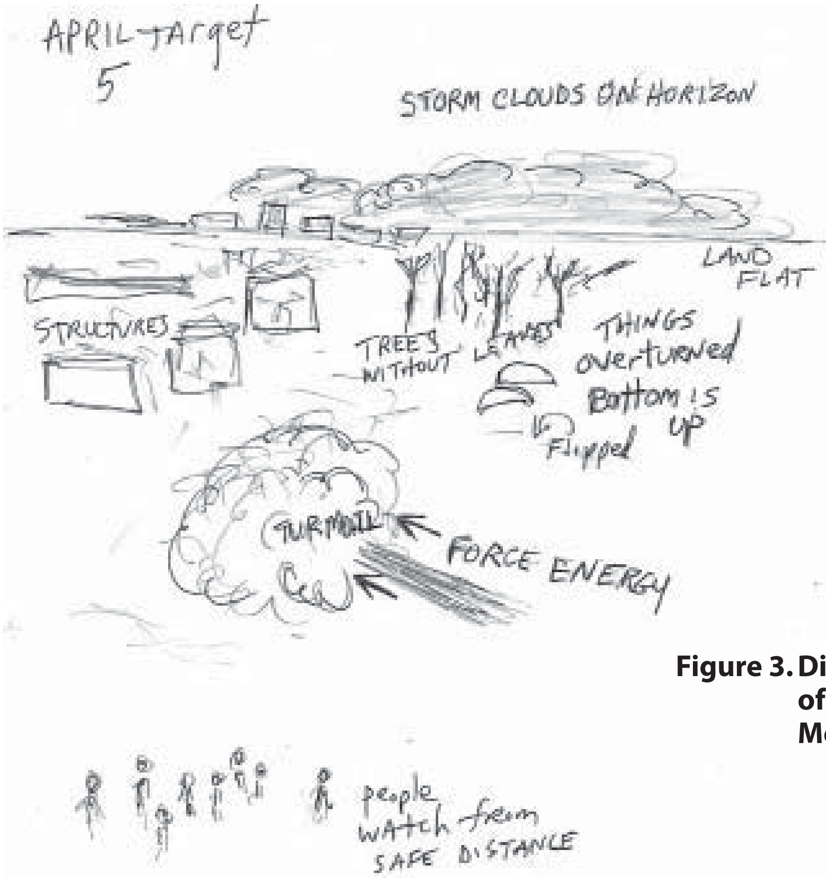

Figure 3. Dick Allgire's sketch of the tornado in Mena, Arkansas.

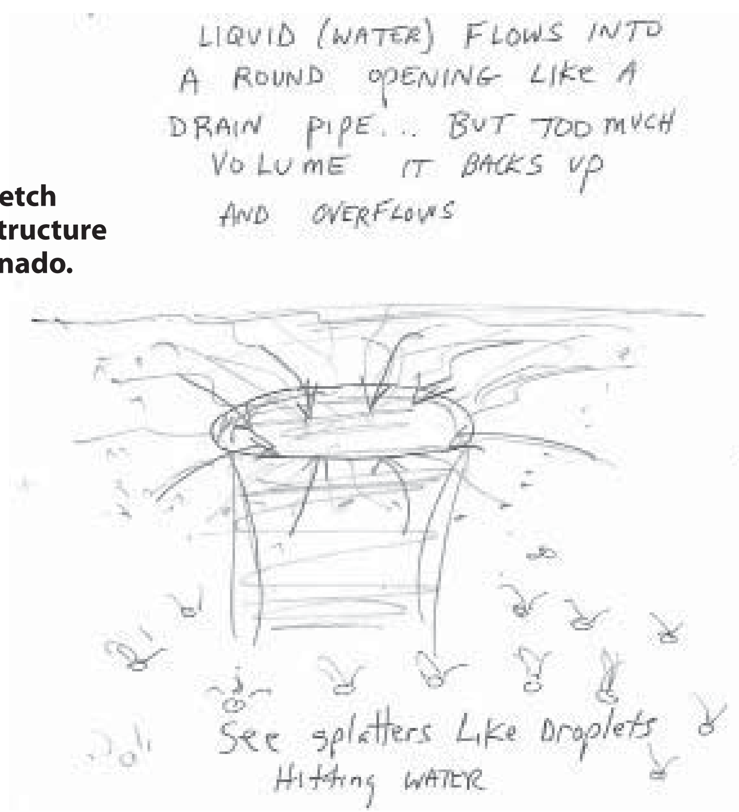

Figure 4. Dick Allgire's sketch of the interior structure of the Mena tornado.

describing NASA's LCROSS Mission to the Moon, Figure 5 is one of Allgire's sketches of the LCROSS satellite side by side with a NASA artist's representation of the actual satellite. These are unambiguous remote-viewing descriptions of these targets, and the verbal descriptions that accompany these sessions are equally accurate.

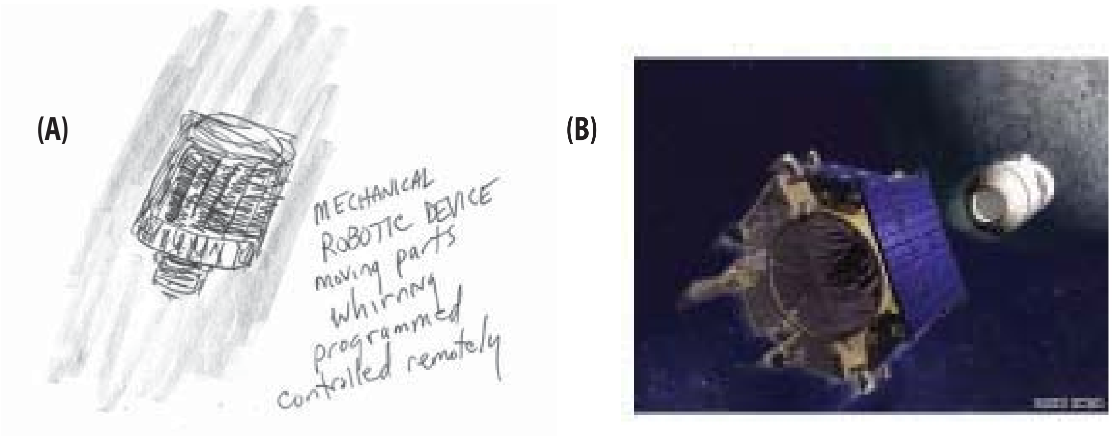

Figure 5. Dick Allgire's remote-viewing sketch of NASA's LCROSS satellite (A), together with an artist's representation of the actual satellite (B).

Figure 6 is one of Debra Duggan-Takagi's sketches of the Kepler launch in Cape Canaveral, Florida. This is a very detailed sketch showing the coast, the energy released by the launch itself, and many of the vehicles that are deployed to observe and track the launch. Note that she is able to identify the purposes

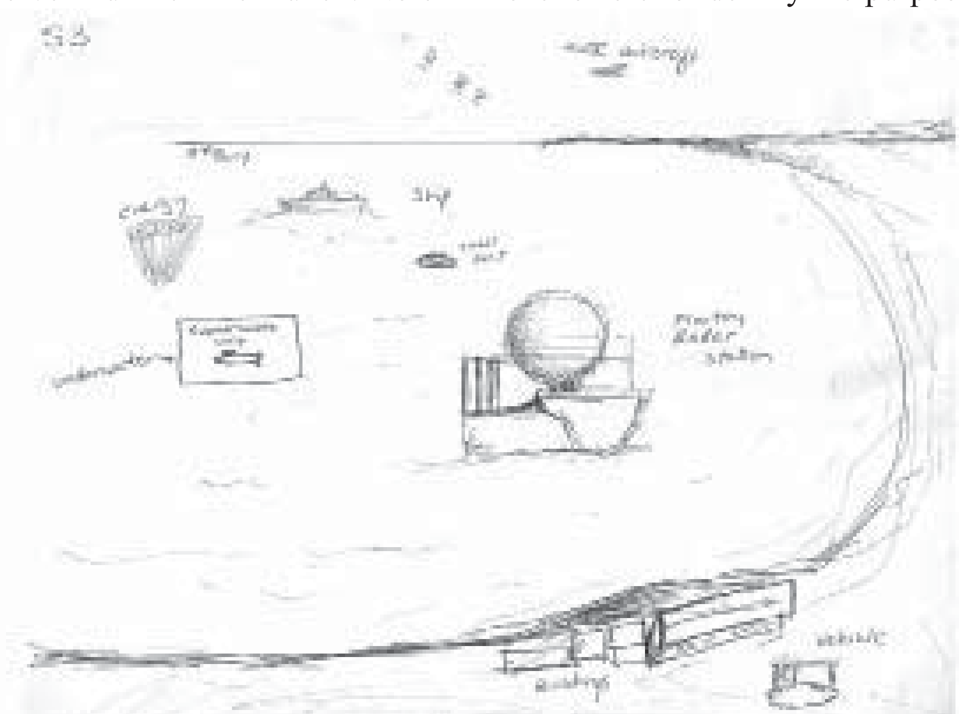

Figure 6. Debra Duggan-Takagi's sketch of Cape Canaveral, Florida, during the launch of the Kepler mission.

of many of the vehicles, such as a floating radar station, a submarine, various aircraft, and other structures.

Sometimes the remote-viewing sessions shed light on some mysterious aspects of a target. For example, the spiral anomaly that occurred above Norway in December 2009 caused quite a stir in the media and on the Internet, with some people speculating that the anomaly could be an alien spaceship or wormhole. The remote-viewing sessions for that target show no esoteric content, and the data seem to affirm the official position that the anomaly was a result of a Russian missile test gone astray. Athena has an excellent session for that target, and one of her sketches of the anomaly is presented here as Figure 7. Daz Smith also draws a good sketch in his session of the circular ring structure of the anomaly, and this is shown in Figure 8.

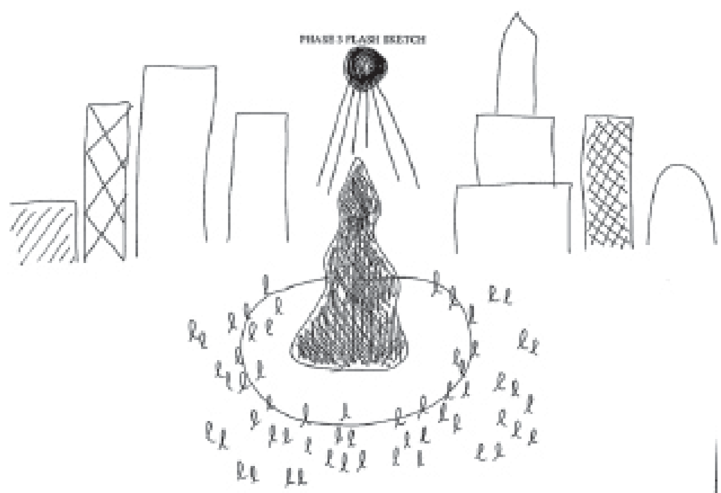

Figure 7. Athena's sketch of the spiral anomaly above Norway in December 2009.

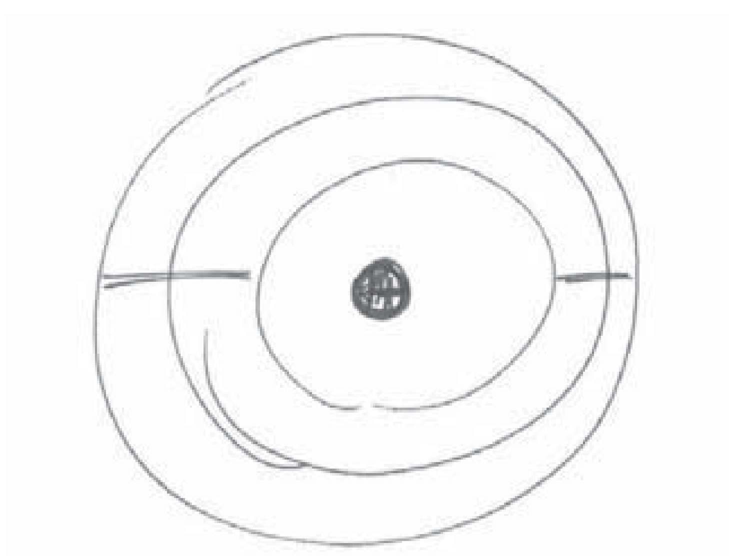

Figure 8. Daz Smith's sketch of the circular ring structure of the Norwegian spiral anomaly.

Again, some UEPs are verbal. For example, Rising Sun Touch correctly identifies the launch of the Kepler Mission from Cape Canaveral as a missile launch. Daz Smith correctly identifies the tornado in Meno, Arkansas, as a tornado. Sita correctly notes that the LCROSS mission to the Moon involves a spinning metallic object crashing into wet rocks. Dick correctly notes that the three pillars supporting the Olympic Cauldron (accurately sketched) during the opening ceremonies of the 2010 Olympics Winter Games are both a structure and a machine. Romferd correctly notes that this same machine is partially broken (the fourth pillar did not rise). Again, while it is not practical to include a complete list of UEPs here, scans of all remote-viewing sessions (all original data in convenient PDF format) plus brief session summaries for this project are maintained on the website for The Farsight Institute.

Discussion

Let us be clear that we do not yet understand the physics involved with the remote-viewing phenomenon. There are obvious hurdles to overcome. This is not the place to resolve the issue of what constitutes physical reality. Just as physicists have spent decades arguing about string theory, scientists can spend additional decades trying to fit the results presented in this and similar studies into a more cosmologically complete theoretical framework. We need not be dismayed that our current set of theories about physical reality are incomplete. In truth, we already knew that they were incomplete when science posited the divide between the quantum and classical realms. How can the classical realm work on one set of relativistically guided principles while the quantum realm from which the classical realm arises works on a completely different set of principles? Simply put, Philipp von Jolly's advice to Max Planck that he should not go into physics because everything important has already been discovered is as incorrect now as it was in 1874. This is clearly not the time to celebrate how much we know, but rather to look forward to how much we still have to discover.

The results from this study should give us new insight with which we can shape our future theories of time and physical reality. That these ideas may be much different from what we have previously envisioned should not worry us as much as the possibility of continuing to think incorrectly about that reality. These results encourage the idea that remote-viewing experiments can be configured in such a manner as to shed light on the nature of time. This supports the notion that we are on the cutting edge of a new understanding of the nature of existence that will potentially yield significant changes in how we view the temporal evolution of events.

Acknowledgments

This research could not have been accomplished without the help and support of Glenn Wheaton and Lyn Buchanan. They actively encouraged their viewers to participate in the project as unpaid volunteers. Glenn and Lyn are retired military practitioners of remote viewing. Glenn came out of the Intelligence wing of the U.S. Army's Special Forces branch. He was involved in what was essentially a decentralized "movement" within the military that eventually became popularly known as "The First Earth Battalion." Lyn retired from the U.S. Army's Intelligence and Security Command (USAINSCOM), and he now leads a group of viewers who perform Controlled Remote Viewing (CRV). These two groups developed separate approaches to remote viewing. Both Glenn and Lyn have spent the last 15 years teaching remote viewing as it was done in the military to a significant number of enthusiastic students, and they trained most of the viewers who participated in this project. I must also give a great deal of thanks to the remote viewers themselves. They volunteered their time for this project, as they have volunteered their time for many of my science projects over the years. Some of the viewers desire to be identified by "tags" rather than their real names, possibly due to the continued controversy associated with this new field. Thus, in terms of those tags, the viewers who participated in this project are Daz Smith (CRV), Pat Sage (CRV), Rising Sun Touch (CRV), Apollo 1969 (CRV), Dan Chevalier/Romferd (CRV), Dick Allgire (HRVG), Debra Duggan-Takagi (HRVG), Maria (HRVG), Anne (HRVG), Michele (HRVG), Sita Seery (HRVG), and Athena (SRV and TDS). This research was conducted at The Farsight Institute, which is not affiliated with any other institute or university.

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