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**Associations among Experience, Confidence, Transliminality and Ability to Locate and Describe Targets  
in Experienced Remote Viewers**

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### **Abstract**

Forty-four volunteer remote viewers were asked to locate targets on a map that were randomly placed within a 23-acre area and to describe aspects of the targets themselves. Blind judges calculated a percentage match for participants' target descriptions of their actual target and three decoy targets. They also rank ordered the accuracy of descriptions of the target and three decoys for each participant. Participants completed a demographic questionnaire, described their level of experience with remote viewing, completed a measure of transliminality, and described their confidence in the target location and target description tasks. These variables were used to test several hypotheses related to participant experience, target description accuracy, target location accuracy, confidence, and transliminality. Results revealed no significant relationships among the variables and did not support any of the hypotheses. Qualitative data indicated correspondence among many remote viewers' target descriptions despite not matching the participants' actual targets. Limitations and suggestions for future research are discussed.

## **Associations among Experience, Confidence, Transliminality and Ability to Locate and Describe Targets in Experienced Remote Viewers**

Remote viewing is a term that applies to a wide range of anomalous cognition which includes identifying characteristics of targets that are distant from the viewer in space or time (e.g., Bierman & Rabeyron, 2013; Kolodziejzyk, 2012). This study investigated several questions related to remote viewing of both the location and physical characteristics of targets as well as variables related to the remote viewer, such as experience, confidence, and transliminality.

### **Target Characteristics**

Traditional remote viewing research has employed outbound researchers with targets involving a variety of man-made and natural sites with the goal of the remote viewer describing characteristics of the environment where the outbound researcher is located (e.g., Targ & Putoff, 1977). Despite the popularity of “psychic detectives” in the media, who are sometimes employed by law enforcement to provide assistance locating a missing crime victim, a much smaller set of remote viewing research has employed remote viewers to identify specific locations of targets, for example to find significant archaeological sites (McMullen & Emerson, 1994; Schwartz, 2014; Schwartz, 2001a; Schwartz, 2001b) or determine where an outbound person is located (Hearne, 1989). Utts (2006) has suggested that it is more difficult for remote viewers to identify target locations than to describe characteristics of the location or target, but no previous research has demonstrated that phenomenon empirically or specifically investigated to what degree these two abilities may be related.

### **Remote Viewer Characteristics**

Although several prominent authors suggest remote viewing can be learned (e.g., McMoneagle, 2000; Moorehouse, 2008), little remote viewing research has explored whether remote viewers’ amount of experience or confidence in their abilities significantly relate to the accuracy of their performance. One small-scale study by Wiseman, West and Stemman (1996) appears to indicate

“psychic detectives” have unwarranted confidence in their abilities. The present study investigated whether remote viewer experience and/or confidence relates to accuracy of either target location or target description.

Finally, transliminality is a construct referring to the ease with which psychological material passes between consciousness and unconsciousness (Crawley, French & Yesson, 2002; Fleck et al., 2008; Houran et al., 2006), which has been proposed as a fundamental mechanism facilitating anomalous cognition (Thalbourne, 2010). Previous research has found that transliminality and gender interact in their relationship to psi abilities. Specifically, women with high transliminality and men with low transliminality perform better than women with low transliminality and men with high transliminality (Houran & Lange, 2009). As such, transliminality may serve as common cognitive mechanism underlying a variety of anomalous experiences, which is a current theory proposed to account for the variety of psi phenomena (Carpenter, 2012). This research explored whether the relationship between transliminality and psi abilities found in prior research also held true for this sample of experienced remote viewers.

### **Hypotheses**

This study employed a novel protocol to explore associations among remote viewer characteristics and accuracy in identifying target characteristics. Forty-four volunteer remote viewers were asked to locate a target on a map that was randomly placed within a 23-acre area and to describe aspects of the target itself. Blind judges calculated a percentage match for participants’ target descriptions of the actual target and three decoy targets. They also rank ordered the accuracy of descriptions of the target and three decoys for each participant. Participants also completed a demographic questionnaire, described their level of experience with remote viewing, completed a measure of transliminality, and described their confidence in the target location and target description tasks. This procedure created the following variables for each participant: target location accuracy, target description accuracy, target description rank, gender, transliminality score, amount of remote

viewing experience, confidence in target location accuracy, confidence in target description accuracy.

These variables were used to test the following hypotheses:

- Participants would identify the location of a target more closely than expected by chance.
- Participants' descriptions of target characteristics would match the actual target more closely than the decoys.
- Judges would identify the actual target as the best match for participants' descriptions more often than expected by chance.
- Participants' location accuracy would correlate with description accuracy.
- Participant experience would correlate with both location accuracy and description accuracy.
- Participant confidence would correlate with both location accuracy and description accuracy.
- Participants' gender and transliminality would interact to predict location accuracy and description accuracy.

## **Method**

### **Participants**

Participants were 44 experienced remote viewers recruited through the International Remote Viewing Association and snowball sampling. Seventy-seven potential participants initially expressed interest in the study. Of those, 56 (73%) completed the first phase of the project, while 44 (57%) of those who originally expressed interest also completed the remote viewing. Of the final participants, 23 (52.3%) were male and 21 were female (47.7%). Eighteen participants (40.9%) reported they used CRV only as their method of remote viewing; 2 (4.5%) reported they used ARV only; 17 (38.6%) reported they used multiple methods, and 3 (6.8%) reported they used no formal method. In addition, 24 (55%) participants reported they had map dowsing experience, while 15 (34%) participants did not. Five (11%) did not respond to that question.

### **Materials**

*Revised Transliminality Scale (RTS; Lange et al., 2000).* This scale measures transliminality with seventeen statements, such as “At times I perform certain little rituals to ward off negative influences,” rated true or false. Scores range from zero to seventeen, depending on how many statements are endorsed, with higher scores indicating higher levels of transliminality. This measure has demonstrated adequate reliability, construct validity, and predictive validity (Lange et al., 2000).

*Target set (Figures 1-4).* A set of four targets was created, one of which was randomly selected to be placed at the target location for each participant. The other targets were used as decoys (for the judges) during the judging phase of the project. The targets were selected to be as distinct from each other as possible in four categories (form, texture, color, and intended use). Experimenter 2 was the only person who had any knowledge of the targets until after the blind judging occurred. Experimenter 2 had no contact with participants. Targets were randomly selected with the following frequencies: Target 1 was selected 6 times, Target 2 was selected 11 times, Target 3 was selected 13 times, and Target 4 was selected 14 times. As expected, due to the random selection process this frequency distribution did not differ significantly from chance ( $\chi^2(3, N = 44) = 3.46, p = .33$ ).

*Map and instructions.* Participants were each given a map of the area where their target was located (see Figure 5). The area covers 23 acres in northern Colorado. Participants were instructed to use whatever remote viewing technique they preferred to identify a point on the map where they believed target was located. They were also asked to provide verbal descriptions and any drawings of their impressions of the target (potentially including, but not limited to, form, texture, color and intended use). They were also asked to rate their confidence in both their description accuracy and location accuracy on a 10-point Likert scale (1 = least confident and 10 = most confident).

## **Procedure**

Prior to beginning the study, Experimenter 1 attained Institutional Review Board approval and registered the hypotheses and data analysis plan with the Koestler Parapsychology Unit (KPU). The

purpose of study registry is to prevent experimenters from altering their hypotheses or procedures during the process of conducting research. In the area of psi research, specifically, skeptical criticism has sometimes focused on how altering procedures during experimentation may increase the likelihood of positive results. Therefore, the function of the KPU study registry is to provide a forum for public announcement of research protocols, providing maximum transparency for the validity of psi-related research results.

Experimenter 2 created the four targets described above and then used a random number generator (Random.org) to select one of the targets to be placed at a location on the map for each participant. Experimenter 2 also used the random number generator to select the target location for each participant by choosing latitude and longitude coordinates from within the coordinates outlining the area. If a location was selected where the target material could not be placed (e.g., a geographical feature made it impossible), the procedure was repeated until a site was chosen where the target could be located.

Experimenter 1, who was blind to the entire target set as well as the location of the chosen target, emailed participants a link to the informed consent, demographic information form and Revised Transliminality Scale. Participants also received a blank copy of the map with instructions to place an "X" where they believed the target to be located. Participants responded by identifying the location of the target, including their written and drawn impressions of the target, their level of confidence in their location accuracy, and their level of confidence in their description accuracy. The order of asking participants to locate the target on the map versus asking them to describe the target was randomized in order to evaluate the effect of possible frontloading by presenting the map first.

After all data collection, variable calculation, and judging, Experimenter 1 was unblinded to the target location and characteristics. Experimenter 1 then sent feedback to the participants regarding their accuracy in locating and describing their target.

## Variables

*Experience.* Participants' experience was calculated by creating a standard score (Z score) for each of the three indicators of experience (self-rating on the 1-10 Likert scale, amount of time the participant had practiced remote viewing, and amount of time the participant had spent in formal remote viewing training). Total experience was the sum of these three scores.

*Location accuracy.* Experimenter 1, who was blind to the actual target locations assigned to participants, received participants' target location maps and transferred their target locations to a blank map of a standard scale. After unblinding, Experimenter 2 sent corresponding maps marked with the location of each participant's target location. Experimenter 1 then calculated the distance from the participant's target location to the actual target location.

*Description accuracy.* Experimenter 1 and two research assistants, who were all blind to the entire target set, served as judges. First, they created lists of descriptors each participant used to describe their target. Descriptors included adjectives, adverbs, nouns, and drawings of the target. Descriptions of the environment and container were excluded. Then, for each descriptor on the list, the judges rated each of the four potential targets in terms of whether the descriptor accurately described that target. If they judged that it did, it was considered a hit. If not, it was a miss. The number of hits for each target was then divided by the total number of descriptors the participant described to produce a hit percentage, effectively measuring description accuracy, for each of the four potential targets. The targets were then rank ordered according to hit percentage. Thus, for each participant, targets had both a hit percentage and a rank from one to four, with one corresponding to the highest hit percentage.

## Results

Descriptive statistics for each of the quantitative variables are reported in Table 1.

### A Priori Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: *Participants' location accuracy would be significantly closer to the actual target location than expected by chance.* A one-sample t test (one-tailed) was conducted to compare the distribution of target distances to the average distance between two points within the map area, as calculated with the formula described by Burgstaller and Pillichshammer (2009). This distance was 9.76 cm on paper, or 160.45 m when translated to the actual scale represented by the map. The results indicated participants did not locate the target more accurately than expected by chance,  $t(43) = -1.305$ ,  $p = .10$ .

Hypothesis 2: *Participants' description accuracy would correspond to the correct target compared to the decoy targets at a rate greater than chance.* To contrast participants' description accuracy for the actual target versus the decoys, a standardized score was calculated by subtracting the mean of judges' ratings of both the target and decoys from the rating of the target, and then dividing the difference by the standard deviation of all four ratings. The mean of this Z score for the sample was -0.07 ( $SD = .86$ ,  $SEM = .13$ ). A one-sample t test (one-tailed) was then conducted to compare this standardized score to zero, which indicated participants' target description accuracy was not significantly greater than zero,  $t(43) = -.54$ ,  $p > .05$ . In addition, a paired samples t test was performed to compare participants' accuracy describing the target compared to the average of their accuracy describing the other targets. This test revealed no significant difference between description accuracy for the actual target compared to their average accuracy describing the alternative targets,  $t(43) = -0.96$ ,  $p = .342$ .

Hypothesis 3: *Judges would identify the actual target as the best match for participants' descriptions more often than expected by chance.* A binomial test (one-tailed) was used to compare the frequency with which the judges determined the actual target to be the best match for participants' descriptions to that expected by chance ( $p = .25$ ). Results indicated judges did not identify the actual target as the best match more often than expected by chance ( $10/44 = .23$ ,  $p = .44$ ).

Hypothesis 4: *Participants' description accuracy would be significantly related to location accuracy.* A Pearson Product Moment correlation was calculated between description percentage correct and distance from the target. Results indicated there was no significant relationship between description accuracy and location accuracy,  $r(43) = -.02, p > .05$ .

Hypothesis 5: *Participant experience would correlate with location accuracy.* A Pearson Product Moment correlation was calculated between participant experience and distance from the target. Results indicated there was no significant relationship between participant experience and location accuracy,  $r(43) = .19, p > .05$ .

Hypothesis 6: *Participant experience would correlate with description accuracy.* A Pearson Product Moment correlation was calculated between participant experience and description accuracy. Results indicated there was no significant relationship between these variables,  $r(43) = .10, p > .05$ .

Hypothesis 7: *Participant location confidence would correlate with location accuracy.* A Pearson Product Moment correlation was calculated between participant location confidence and distance from the target. Results indicated there was no significant relationship between these variables,  $r(41) = .03, p > .05$ .

Hypothesis 8: *Participant description confidence would correlate with description accuracy.* A Pearson Product Moment correlation was calculated between participant description confidence and description accuracy. Results indicated there was no significant relationship between these variables,  $r(41) = .03, p > .05$ .

Hypothesis 9: *Participant transliminality and gender would interact to significantly predict target location accuracy.* A hierarchical linear regression was conducted using transliminality and gender to predict location accuracy. Results indicated the model was not significant ( $R = .12, R^2 = .01, R_{adj} = -.03, F(2, 41) = .29, p > .05$ ).

Hypothesis 10: *Participant transliminality and gender would interact to significantly predict target description accuracy.* A hierarchical linear regression was conducted using transliminality and gender to predict description percentage correct for the actual target. Results indicated the model was not significant ( $R = .25$ ,  $R^2 = .06$ ,  $R_{adj} = .02$ ,  $F(2, 41) = 1.33$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

### Supplemental Hypotheses

Several other hypotheses were investigated to supplement the main findings described above.

Supplemental Hypothesis 1: *Participants with map dowsing experience would have significantly better location accuracy than participants without it.* Participants with map dowsing experience had a mean distance from the target of 133.51 m ( $SD = 76.24$ ,  $SEM = 15.56$ ), whereas participants without map dowsing experience had a mean distance of 151.25 m ( $SD = 70.95$ ,  $SEM = 18.32$ ). An independent samples t test indicated no significant difference between the groups,  $t(37) = -.73$ ,  $p > .05$ .

Supplemental Hypothesis 2: *Participants using different remote viewing methods would differ in description and location accuracy.* Two one-way ANOVAs were conducted comparing the description accuracy and location accuracy of participants using different remote viewing methods. Results indicated no significant difference in description accuracy ( $F(3, 39) = .45$ ,  $p > .05$ ) or location accuracy ( $F(3, 39) = 2.37$ ,  $p > .05$ ) among participants using different methods.

Supplemental Hypothesis 3: *Order of presentation of the map would affect description accuracy and location accuracy.* Participants who were presented with the map first ( $n = 19$ ) had a mean description accuracy of .14 ( $SD = .15$ ,  $SEM = .03$ ) and location accuracy of 159.64 ( $SD = 68.10$ ,  $SEM = 15.62$ ), whereas participants presented with the map second ( $n = 26$ ) had a mean description accuracy of .14 ( $SD = .10$ ,  $SEM = .02$ ) and location accuracy of 136.14 ( $SD = 78.47$ ,  $SEM = 15.39$ ). There was no significant difference between the groups in description accuracy ( $t(43) = .02$ ,  $p > .05$ ) or location accuracy ( $t(43) = 1.05$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Supplemental Hypothesis 4: *Participants' description accuracy would vary significantly by target.*

The percentage of descriptors judged to accurately describe the targets differed significantly across the four targets. A repeated measures ANOVA revealed that  $F(1, 43) = 6.46, p < .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .13$ . A post hoc test with Bonferonni adjustment revealed overall Target 4 had significantly lower accuracy scores than either Target 3 ( $p = .001$ ) or Target 1 ( $p = .002$ ). An ANOVA by target group also revealed significant differences in target description accuracy,  $F(3, 40) = 3.95, p < .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .23$ . In this case, a post hoc test with Bonferonni adjustment indicated that the only difference among the groups was that participants assigned to Target 4 were significantly less accurate in their descriptions than participants assigned to Target 3 ( $p < .01$ ). In addition, an analysis of the average score for nontarget descriptions across target groups revealed no significant differences,  $F(3, 40) = 0.54, p > .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .04$ .

### **Qualitative Results**

*Similar descriptors across the sample that did not correspond to targets.* Table 2 summarizes descriptors and AOLs reported by multiple participants that were not judged to match those participants' targets. Likewise, Figures 6-8 each show similar drawings by participants that were not judged to match those participants' targets.

*Descriptions of the area and environment.* See Figures 9-11 for views of the area where the targets were placed. Many participants offered descriptions of the area although they were not evaluated for accuracy since that was not the focus of the research. Many of those descriptions contained accurate elements. For example, "Horses are nearby at location," "There may be water nearby," "Patchy vegetation, expanded land, earthy tones, multiple rocks, fencing," "Large, mostly open area," and "Windy area – outdoors with blowing grass or other plant-life." Some descriptions included both accurate and inaccurate elements, such as "Park or garden with grass and brown wooden fencing. It looked over a road or river with trees. Feeling of children playing." While there is grass and brown wooden fencing and a road, there is no river nearby and no children in the area. Finally, some

descriptions were mostly inaccurate, such as “Signs that a bulldozer had been there. Stream, creek or water well close to target area,” “Metallic debris scattered around the area. Reminds me of a scrap metal recovery yard,” “Inside a tall building with windows. Orange striped possibly arched, plenty of seating and shelving,” “The target is in an open, spacious, urban setting,” and “The target is underneath taller objects in a basement? The area is busy and noisy.”

### Discussion

The participants in this research were highly experienced remote viewers with an average of 10 years of practice and 136 hours of formal training. However, the mean percentage of accurate descriptors for the sample as a whole was only 14% ( $SD = .12$ ). Similarly, the mean distance from the target was less than that expected by chance (145.87 m vs. 160.45 m), but the high level of variability within the sample ( $SD = 75$  m) meant this difference was not significant. Therefore, results did not support any of the a priori hypotheses since neither participants’ description accuracy nor location accuracy were better than expected by chance. The high levels of variability in both these variables made it highly unlikely that they would correlate with other participant characteristics, such as confidence, experience, or transliminality. Although previous research has found that experienced remote viewers describe target characteristics more accurately than inexperienced remote viewers (Baptista, Derakhshani & Tressoldi, 2015), these results did not support that conclusion when level of experience was quantified. Similarly, description and location accuracy did not correlate with each other. With respect to the question of whether describing a target is easier than locating it, these results appear to indicate that both tasks are very difficult and target description is not necessarily easier than location.

None of the supplementary hypotheses were supported either. That is, participants with map dowsing experience did not locate the target more accurately than those without dowsing experience, there was no difference in the description or location accuracy of participants using different remote viewing methods, and the order of presentation of the map had no effect on participants’ description or

location accuracy. Again, these results imply that it is so difficult to locate and describe targets accurately that these variables are unlikely to correlate significantly with other factors that may influence them.

With respect to the differences in description accuracy across the four targets, the results indicated significantly lower description accuracy for Target 4 (peanuts) compared to Targets 1 (perfume) or 3 (Buddha). However, in combination with the results that overall participants did not describe their targets at a rate greater than that expected by chance as well as that participants assigned to Target 3 scored significantly higher than participants assigned to Target 4, this finding is likely to be the result of the complexity of the target itself. In other words, Target 3 was more detailed and complicated than Target 4 in general, and therefore more likely to match a higher number of participants' descriptors by chance alone.

Perhaps most intriguing were the qualitative results indicating multiple participants described similar target characteristics or submitted similar drawings regardless of their assigned targets. The fact that more than ten percent of the sample used each of five descriptors (vibration/energy, motion, fins/wings, segmented, living thing) may suggest some descriptors are more likely to be used by remote viewers than others regardless of actual target characteristics. Alternatively, perhaps in some cases remote viewers are more consciously connected to each other than they are to their intended target.

Finally, while location description was not the focus of this research, several participants did accurately describe characteristics of the environment although others described characteristics that did not accurately describe the environment. Although these results were incidental to the focus of the research, they coincide with the high levels of variability found among the main dependent variables. It is important to note, however, that the general location of the target area was publicly available on the internet at the KPU study registry website at the time that this research was being conducted.

*Strengths and limitations.* Several strengths to the design of this research lend confidence to the results. First, the relatively large sample size was sufficient for detecting an effect if there was one as according to prior research with experienced remote viewers (Baptista, Derakhshani & Tressoldi, 2015). In addition, the double-blind design prevented any unconscious skewing of the judging procedure and registering the study with the KPU guaranteed the analyses conducted were pre-planned and not selectively chosen after the fact. Choosing individual targets and locations for each participant also eliminated the stacking effect as a threat to the validity of the study. These precautions precluded some of the most common critiques of psi-related research in general. Finally, utilizing a quantitative strategy for judging accuracy of target descriptions allowed for more powerful statistical procedures than qualitative techniques.

One potential limitation was that participants without map dowsing experience were asked to perform an unfamiliar task. Although previous researchers have found that remote viewers were able to accurately locate targets (McMullen & Emerson, 1994; Schwartz, 2014; Schwartz, 2001a; Schwartz, 2001b), 34% of the participants in this sample had never attempted map dowsing previously. However, since participants with map dowsing experience did not perform significantly better than participants without experience, there is no indication that lack of experience affected the overall results.

Another limitation may have been the level of motivation of the participants. There was considerable difficulty finding enough participants to create a sufficient sample, and several members of the remote viewing community were actively involved in recruiting participants. Perhaps participants who were ultimately selected lacked motivation which may have in turn affected their performance. Similarly, some remote viewers who refused to participate provided various reasons (e.g., there was no professional tasker, the goal was not description of an environment, etc.), so perhaps some characteristics of final sample are not generalizable to remote viewers as a whole.

*Future research.* Future research could extend these findings in multiple ways. First, replicating these results with a larger sample and different targets would be useful for validating these findings. A larger sample would increase the power of the analyses which would be more likely to detect subtle effects. Using different targets would also help determine whether some target characteristics are more easily described than others. Future research could also explore the finding that multiple participants use similar descriptors or drew similar pictures regardless of the characteristics of their intended targets.

*Conclusion.* Experienced remote viewers in this research were not able to describe or locate targets more accurately than expected chance. Thus, these results did not support the commonly accepted proposal that target description is easier for remote viewers than target location. They also did not support the proposals that remote viewers improve their skills with experience or that the personality characteristic of transliminality is related to remote viewing skill. Replication using this unique design and judging procedure is necessary to establish confidence in these conclusions.

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics for quantitative variables.

<b>Variable</b>	<b><i>N</i></b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b><i>M</i></b>	<b><i>SD</i></b>
Age	44	29	81	57.98	10.95
Experience (Likert scale)	44	1	10	6.68	2.70
Years of practice	44	0.50	34.00	10.29	8.05
Hours of training	44	0	600	136.43	146.48
Transliminality	44	0.50	16.00	10.09	4.10
Description confidence	41	1	10	5.95	2.40
Location confidence	42	1	10	6.01	2.32
Total number of descriptors	44	5	95	26.84	16.74
Target 1 % correct	44	0	0.53	0.17	0.12
Target 2 % correct	44	0	0.40	0.15	0.10
Target 3 % correct	44	0	0.65	0.20	0.16
Target 4 % correct	44	0	0.47	0.10	0.09
Actual target % correct	44	0	0.65	0.14	0.12
Average non-target % correct	44	0.03	0.33	0.16	0.08
Location distance (m)	44	8.22	289.34	145.87	75.23

Figure 1. Target 1 – floral perfume.



Figure 2. Target 2 – dog collar.



Figure 3. Target 3 – Buddha statue.

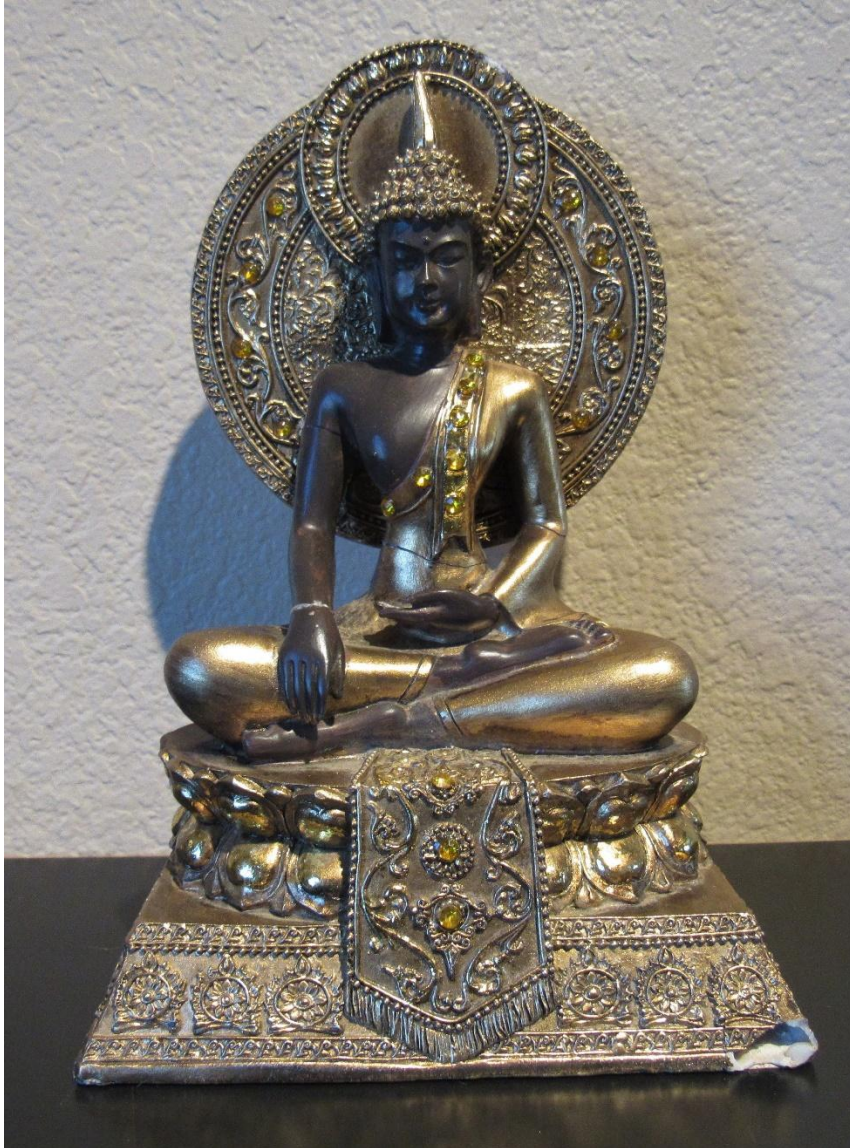


Figure 4 – packing peanuts.



Figure 5. Target area map.



Table 2. Descriptors and AOLs identified by more than one participant but judged not to match targets.

<b>Descriptor/AOL</b>	<b>Number of Participants</b>	<b>Percent of Sample</b>
Vibration/energy	6	13.6
Motion	5	11.4
Fins/wings	5	11.4
Segmented	5	11.4
Living thing	5	11.4
Toy	4	9.1
Two objects	4	9.1
Money/value	4	9.1
Electrical wires	3	6.7
Label with writing	3	6.7
Research/scientific purpose	3	6.7
Connection/relationship to another object	3	6.7
Buttons/dials	3	6.7
Repeating pattern	3	6.7
Egglike	3	6.7
Whirring sound	2	4.5
Clinking sound	2	4.5
Growing	2	4.5
Fits into something bigger	2	4.5
Statue/sculpture*	2	4.5
Hat with visor	2	4.5
Book	2	4.5

Legos	2	4.5
Snow globe	2	4.5
Rubik's cube	2	4.5

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\*Targets were not the Buddha statue.

Figure 6. Similar sketches of heads with hats with visors from two different participants.



Figure 7. Similar sketches of pointed objects with a flat base from two different participants.

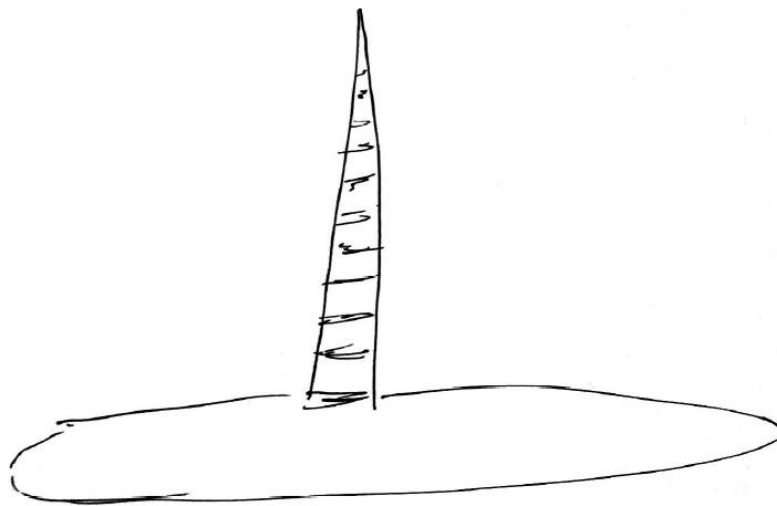
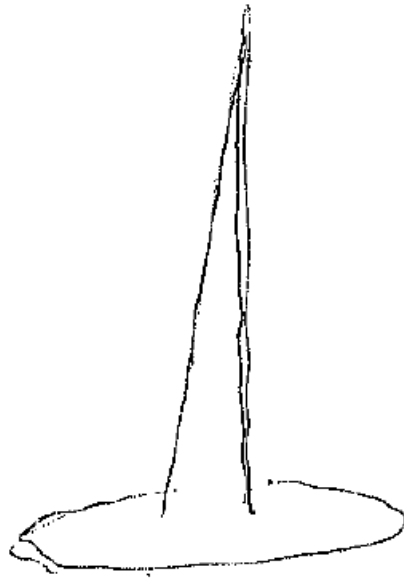


Figure 8. Similar drawings of box-like figures from two different participants.

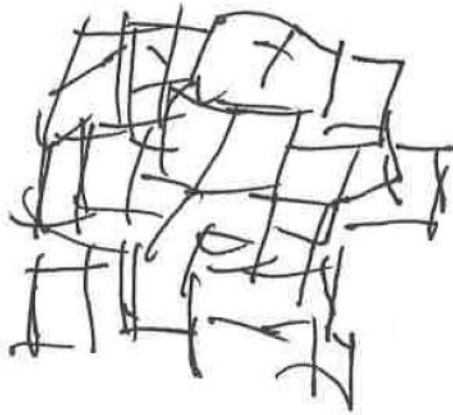


Figure 9. View 1 of the area surrounding the target.



Figure 10. View 2 of the area surrounding the target.



Figure 11. View 3 of the area surrounding the target.

