

## Podkletnov's Rotating Superconductor "Gravity Shield"

Canonical Field Model: Podkletnov's 1990s experiment involved a superconducting YBCO disc (diameter 30 cm) magnetically levitated and spun up to 5,000 RPM. A non-magnetic test mass above the disc showed slight apparent weight loss (0.05% at zero rotation, increasing up to fluctuating 2.5% to +5.4% when spinning). In canonical terms, no known static gravity shielding exists; instead, fluids and fields must be scrutinized. The rotating disc, driven by oscillating magnetic fields, undergoes small vertical vibrations (bounce at drive frequency). This can launch an acoustic standing wave in air above the disc or a flow vortex, producing a pressure drop that partially offsets weight. We model the disc as an oscillating piston: frequency  $f$  (matching the AC levitation magnet), amplitude  $y_0$ . The oscillation induces pressure perturbations  $\Delta p \sim \rho_{\text{air}}(2\pi f)^2 y_0 L$  over an effective interaction length  $L$  (order of disc radius). A rough estimate shows that to support  $\sim 0.1\%$  of a 5 g mass (force  $5 \times 10^{-4}$  N), the required  $\Delta p$  is only a few Pascals—plausibly produced by subtle airflow or acoustic radiation. Concurrently, the spinning disc drags air, potentially creating a low-pressure vortical column above (like a miniature tornado). From Navier–Stokes, a rotating flow with angular speed  $\omega$  yields a radial pressure deficit  $\Delta p \approx \frac{1}{2}\rho_{\text{air}}\omega^2 r^2$  for a rigid-body rotation of radius  $r$ . Even a modest  $\omega$  could induce  $\Delta p$  on the order of 1 Pa, significant compared to the  $\sim 10$  Pa needed to lift 0.1% of standard atmospheric pressure under a 5 g mass. Electromagnetic effects are also considered: the superconducting state expels magnetic fields (Meissner effect), but time-varying fields could induce eddy currents in the apparatus. However, the test mass was non-conducting, non-magnetic, so direct Lorentz forces ( $\mathbf{F} = q\mathbf{E} + I\mathbf{L} \times \mathbf{B}$ ) on it should be negligible. No significant electric fields were reported, so ion thrust is unlikely here. The canonical interpretation focuses on momentum transfer via vibrating air rather than any exotic gravity coupling. General Relativity's "gravito-magnetic" frame-dragging from a 0.1 m, few-kg disc at 5000 RPM is infinitesimal (orders of  $10^{-14}$  of  $g$ ). Thus, classical physics suggests the disc perturbs the surrounding medium, not spacetime curvature.

Scaling Laws: If the lift is due to acoustic or airflow momentum, the force  $F$  should scale with the disc's vibration amplitude  $y_0$  and frequency squared ( $F \propto y_0 f^2$ ), as well as air density and disc area. For a rough acoustic radi-

ation estimate, treating the disc as a monopole source:  $F_{\text{ac}} \sim \frac{\rho_{\text{air}} A (2\pi f)^2 y_0^2}{c}$  (where  $A$  disc area,  $c$  sound speed) – indicating a steep dependence on oscillation frequency. If due to a vortex, rotation rate is key:  $F_{\text{vortex}}$  roughly scales with  $\rho_{\text{air}} A_{\text{disc}} v_\theta^2$ , where  $v_\theta$  is peripheral speed. That implies  $F \propto \rho, r^2, \omega^2$  (for solid-body rotation up to radius  $r$ ). Thus, higher spin speeds  $\omega$  dramatically increase any aerodynamic lift. Notably, uniform rotation alone (no vibration) would produce symmetric pressure distribution (no net lift), so acceleration or unsteady motion is needed. Scaling of any electromagnetic effect (if present) would follow  $F \propto \nabla(E^2)$  or  $\nabla(B^2)$  via Maxwell stress. In vacuum (no air), the only possible force is from weak EM coupling; one can estimate the Maxwell pressure on the test mass:  $P_M \sim \frac{\epsilon_0 E^2 + B^2 / \mu_0}{2}$ . Even a 1 T magnetic fringe field gives  $P_M \sim 0.4$  MPa, but that would be distributed and largely cancel unless highly non-uniform. The reported effect (millinewton scale) would require extremely fine-tuned field gradients; absent evidence of such fields, fluid dynamics remains the dominant scaling.

Falsifiable Predictions: (1) Vacuum Test: If the weight loss is due to air motion, repeating the experiment in vacuum (or even a dense gas vs light gas) should eliminate or greatly reduce the effect. Prediction: In high vacuum, the 0.1–5% weight anomaly vanishes (to within microgravity measurement error). (2) Orientation and Enclosure: A lid or enclosure above the disc that disrupts airflow should nullify weight changes if they stem from acoustic or convective lift. Conversely, if truly gravitational, a thin non-contacting barrier would not block it. (3) Frequency Dependence: Varying the magnetic drive frequency of disc oscillation should alter the effect. A resonance where disc bounce couples to an acoustic standing wave in the cryostat might maximize lift. Prediction: Weight fluctuations peak when  $f$  matches an acoustic mode; off-resonance, effect diminishes. (4) Test Mass Material: If the effect were a new force coupling to mass, it should act on all materials equally. But if it's electromagnetic, a conducting or polarized test mass might respond differently (e.g. a metal mass could experience eddy current forces in the AC field). One could compare plastic vs. metal samples: Prediction: A metal sample might “weigh” differently (due to eddy currents or electrostatic charges) whereas true gravity-modification would be material-independent.

Minimal Experimental Design: *Parts & Setup*: A high-speed spinning disc (preferably superconducting YBCO as in original) in a gimbal or magnetic suspension, with adjustable spin and oscillation control. Surround it with a chamber that can be either air-filled or evacuated. Above, an ultra-precise torsion balance or electronic scale holds various test masses. Instrumentation includes microphones or pressure transducers to detect acoustic

emissions, and laser vibrometers to monitor disc motion. *Controls:* Run the apparatus with the disc non-superconducting (warm) but still spinning, to see if superconductivity is relevant. Also perform trials with the disc stationary but oscillating (to isolate vibration vs rotation). Use a dummy mass on a nearby identical balance (not over the disc) as a control for environmental vibrations or magnetic interference. *Diagnostics:* High-bandwidth accelerometers on the apparatus can capture vibrations. An EM field sensor (search coil, RF antenna, and electrostatic probe) checks for stray fields coupling to the balance. Test in air vs vacuum and at different air pressures to gauge fluid involvement. Use schlieren photography or smoke tracers in air to visualize airflow above the disc. An IR camera might catch any thermal convection currents (the cryostat cold surface could induce an updraft as warmer air flows in). *Boundary Effects & Artifacts:* Ensure the balance is isolated from floor vibrations (e.g. vibration damping mount). The entire rig should be on a non-magnetic platform to avoid building vibrations or magnetic forces mimicking weight change. By comparing data across vacuum/air, various frequencies, and control masses, one can pinpoint if any anomalous force remains when standard forces (pressure, vibration, EM) are eliminated. If none remains, the conclusion is that the Podkletnov effect was a misinterpretation of mundane forces.

Visualization (Experimental Schematic): Below is a diagram of the Podkletnov setup. It shows the superconducting disc in a cryostat, levitated by coils and spun by an outer drive. A sample mass on a balance is above. Arrows indicate magnetic support forces and possible airflow (blue) generated by disc oscillation. The goal is to measure any upward net force  $\mathbf{F}$  on the sample while controlling environmental factors. *Figure: Schematic of Podkletnov's rotating superconductor experiment, with a suspended test mass above the spinning cryogenic disc. (Illustration based on descriptions in literature.)*

## Hutchison Effect (High-Voltage Electrodynamics and Levitation)

Canonical Field Model: The “Hutchison Effect” refers to a grab-bag of phenomena reported by John Hutchison in the 1980s: objects levitating, fusing or fracturing spontaneously, water spontaneously frothing, etc., when a jumble of high-voltage equipment was activated. Canonically, these effects are explainable by electromagnetic and electrostatic forces, plus mechanical vibrations – no new physics required. Hutchison’s setup included Tesla coils

(radio-frequency high voltage), Van de Graaff or Marx generators (static high voltage up to hundreds of kV), and strong magnetsslideshare.netslideshare.net. Such equipment produces intense electric fields ( $\mathbf{E}$ ) that ionize air (corona discharge) and magnetic fields ( $\mathbf{B}$ ) that induce eddy currents. The Lorentz force  $\mathbf{F} = q(\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B})$  on charges in objects can jolt them. For instance, a neutral object in a non-uniform  $E$ -field experiences a polarization force  $F_E \approx \frac{\epsilon_0 \chi_e}{2} \nabla E^2$  (dielectrophoresis). With multi-hundred-kV fields,  $\nabla E^2$  can be enormous near sharp points, easily lifting small insulators or causing them to “jump.” Similarly, ion wind (electrohydrodynamics) is likely: Strong DC fields create ions that accelerate and transfer momentum to neutral airen.wikipedia.org. This can produce an upward breeze capable of levitating light objects or making them drift (a known example is the Biefeld–Brown effect lifter). Additionally, the overlapping RF fields and pulses could excite resonant mechanical vibrations in structures (like ultrasonic vibration that might shatter or cold-weld metals at contact points). High-power microwaves (if present) can heat and partially melt materials from within. All these are mundane explanations. For example, a metal sample “jumps” because it is caught between a strong static field (attracting it upward) and perhaps a 60 Hz electromagnetic oscillation causing a jackhammer-like vibration. If Hutchison’s metals showed anomalous internal melting, that could be from induced currents (Joule heating) or even chemical effects (arcing, sparking). In summary, the canonical view reduces the Hutchison effect to superimposed electromagnetic phenomena: electrostatic lifting, magnetic jostling, RF heating, and ion-driven airflow. No violation of energy or momentum conservation occurs; energy is delivered by the high-voltage power sources.

**Scaling Laws:** The forces in play scale with field strength. Electrostatic lift: For a charged object of charge  $Q$ ,  $F_E = Q, E$ . In Hutchison’s lab, if an object picks up charge via induction or direct contact (tens of microcoulombs are possible with 100 kV on a metal piece), and  $E$  on the order of  $10^5$  V/m (typical near a charged electrode), then  $F_E \sim 1\text{--}10$  N (enough to toss a small object). The dielectrophoretic force on a neutral dielectric of permittivity  $\epsilon$  in a field gradient is  $F_{\text{DEP}} \approx \frac{\pi r^3 (\epsilon - \epsilon_0)}{2\epsilon + \epsilon_0} \nabla E^2$  for a sphere of radius  $r$ . This scales strongly with  $r^3$  and  $E^2$ . So small lightweight pieces (foils, wood fragments) accelerate more readily than large masses. Ion wind thrust follows  $F_{\text{ion}} \approx I, v_{\text{drift}}/g$  for current  $I$  of ions imparting momentum  $mv$  to air per unit gravity  $g$  (a heuristic formula) – essentially  $F \propto I$  for a given field since  $v_{\text{drift}}$  saturates near the ionic mobility limit. Thus higher current (more intense corona) yields more thrust. It’s known that a tiny ion current of a few mA can produce levitation forces of several gramsen.wikipedia.org. Magnetic

forces: If strong AC magnets or pulsed currents were present, a conducting object of mass  $m$  could feel  $F_B \sim \frac{1}{2}\sigma B^2 V$  (magnetic pressure on volume  $V$  with conductivity  $\sigma$ ). Although Hutchison’s magnets were likely moderate, a transient  $B$  field could jerk metal objects (like eddy-current launchers do). Mechanical vibration energy scales with the amplitude of RF or acoustic waves introduced – e.g., a resonant acoustic wave at ultrasound frequencies could cause local forces scaling with sound pressure (which itself can be kPa in strong ultrasonic fields, enough to crack materials). Summarily, any “antigravity” lift should rise nonlinearly with voltage (since  $E$  and  $\nabla E^2$  scale with  $V$  and  $V^2$ ). If Hutchison increased voltages to extreme levels, lift force might increase until limited by air breakdown. Notably, forces drop off with distance – tell-tale range scaling: electrostatic and magnetic forces are strong near field sources but decay as  $1/r^2$  or faster, meaning objects farther from the apparatus should remain unaffected (contrary to a gravity-like field which would be uniform over the area). Observations that only items in certain positions levitated supports this locality. Energy-wise, if metal fuses “cold,” we expect significant input energy delivered in short bursts (plausibly via arcs or induction) – consistent with Hutchison’s report of using 4 kW for his experimentsslideshare.net.

Falsifiable Predictions: (1) Charge and Polarization: If electrostatic forces dominate, then introducing grounded conductors or shielding should alter the effect. Prediction: Placing a grounded metal mesh above a supposedly levitating object will either stop the levitation (by screening  $E$ -fields) or cause the mesh itself to experience force. If nothing occurs under a Faraday cage, it was an  $E$ -field effect. (2) Atmosphere Dependence: If ion wind is a factor, performing the experiment in a partial vacuum (low pressure) should greatly reduce or eliminate lift, since fewer air molecules are available to carry momentum. Similarly, filling the space with an insulating gas of different density (e.g. helium vs. air) will change the thrust. Prediction: Levitation force drops off in lower pressure and is proportional to air density (no lift in high vacuum). (3) Field Mapping: By mapping the fields, one can predict where forces should be. For example, hang lightweight test strips (like tinsel) around the area. Prediction: The tinsel will be drawn toward regions of intense  $E$  or  $B$  field (e.g. pointing toward a high-voltage electrode, or vibrating in sync with an AC magnetic field). Levitation should only occur in these high-field regions. If an object is moved slightly out of the hotzone, it should cease to levitate. (4) Energy Accounting: If objects truly accelerate or fuse without input energy, that’s new physics. But if conventional, all effects should cease when power is off. Prediction: No residual anti-gravity or unexplained motion occurs once the HV generators are shut

down. Also, measuring the power during an event (spikes in current draw or RF emission) should correlate with the work done on objects (lifting, heating). For instance, a metal bending or melting correlates with a surge in electrical output.

**Minimal Experiment Design:** Construct a controlled version of Hutchison’s setup: one or two high-voltage DC supplies (e.g. 0–200 kV) with pointed electrodes to generate ion wind, plus an RF source (like a Tesla coil or RF amplifier up to a few MHz) and a strong electromagnet or pulsed coil. Crucially, operate each field source independently to isolate effects: e.g. first use DC alone, then add RF, then magnetic pulses. Use lightweight test objects (aluminum foil, plastic, small wires) and heavier ones (steel bolts) to see thresholds. *Diagnostics:* A high-speed camera to catch any sudden motions, and synchronized oscilloscopes measuring voltages/currents to correlate with events. An EM field mapping probe (e.g. a small antenna for RF, and a field mill for static E-field) can scan the volume to identify where forces should act. *Controls:* Perform tests with the apparatus powered but arranged such that fields do not overlap (this checks if only combined fields produce anomalies). Also try grounding the objects or enclosing them in a metal cage (Faraday shield) to see if that negates forces. *Artifacts to mind:* Vibration from large transformers or coils can shake tables – use an accelerometer on the floor to distinguish mechanical shake from true object forces. Optical mirages from hot air (if RF heating occurs) could make objects appear to move. Use tethered objects or laser distance sensors to quantify actual motion. Also, measure the electrostatic charge on objects before and after (using an electrometer): if an object is charged to, say, 50  $\mu\text{C}$ , that alone might lift a few grams in a 100 kV/m field. Removing that charge (discharging the object) should drop it. By such systematic experiments, one can confirm that any Hutchison “anti-gravity” is really a confluence of well-known forces.

**Visual Aid (Electrostatic Levitation Setup):** *Diagram:* A pointed high-voltage electrode (top) creates a strong electric field (red lines) and corona ions (blue drift). A light object (foil) is drawn up toward the electrode by Coulomb and ion wind forces. A high-frequency coil on the side emits RF (green waves) that can induce currents and vibrations in nearby metal objects. Sensors measure forces and fields. This controlled layout helps test each effect separately, demystifying the combined Hutchison claims.

## T. T. Brown's Asymmetric Capacitor (Biefeld–Brown) Effect

Canonical Field Model: Thomas Townsend Brown discovered in the 1920s that a high-voltage asymmetric capacitor produces a thrust toward its small electrode. He dubbed it *electrogravitics*, but today it's understood as electrohydrodynamics (EHD) – essentially an ionic wind phenomenon. The setup: one small, sharp electrode and one large, smooth electrode (for example, a thin wire above a foil plate, forming a “lifter” triangle). Apply tens of kV DC. A corona discharge occurs at the sharp electrode, ionizing the surrounding air. These ions are accelerated by the electric field toward the opposite electrode. As they stream across the gap, they collide with neutral air molecules, imparting momentum and creating a thrust in the direction from small to large electrode. Maxwell's equations in a medium plus fluid momentum conservation fully describe this: the ionic space charge  $\rho_q$  and electric field  $E$  produce a body force density  $f_e = \rho_q E$  in the air. This is essentially an EHD pressure gradient that pushes the gas. In steady state, a current  $I$  flows through the corona (a few microamps to milliamps) and transfers momentum to air at roughly  $I$  coulombs/sec \* drift velocity of ions. The result is a net lift force on the capacitor, equal and opposite to the force pushing the air downward (action-reaction). No gravity is directly involved – the device works as a kind of ion jet engine with no moving parts. The effect persists in air and to a much lesser extent in low pressure or vacuum (where ion current is limited). Notably, Brown's own observations (e.g. a Coolidge X-ray tube seemed to lose weight when charged) are attributable to similar ionic winds or experimental error. In vacuum, any net force must come from asymmetry in the capacitor's electromagnetic field pressure (Maxwell stress tensor). There is indeed a tiny theoretical pressure difference because the field is more concentrated near the small electrode – a consequence of  $E^2$  having a non-uniform distribution. However, this “electric rocket” force in vacuum is many orders of magnitude smaller than in air with ions. Canonical electromagnetic theory predicts that without a mass to carry momentum (ions or photons), the thrust is limited to radiation pressure ( $\sim$ nanonewtons for typical voltages). Therefore, the classical explanation of the Biefeld–Brown lift is firmly ion propulsion in air.

We can derive a simplified thrust formula from momentum and current: if  $I$  ions/sec each carry momentum  $m_{\text{ion}} v_{\text{drift}}$  and ultimately transfer it to

air, thrust  $F \approx \dot{m} a_{\text{air}} V_{\text{air}}$ . Considering  $\dot{m}$

## Viktor Schauberger's Vortex Propulsion ("Repulsine")

Canonical Field Model: Austrian inventor Viktor Schauberger claimed to harness "implosion" vortex physics for propulsion – in some accounts, a saucer-like device (the Repulsine) that could levitate by intense whirling of air or water. Canonically, this can be translated to fluid dynamics (Navier–Stokes) plus plasma/ion effects. Schauberger's device reportedly used rapidly rotating corrugated disks to spin air into a cyclonic flow. In doing so, two effects arise: (1) Pressure reduction at the vortex core (by Bernoulli's principle and centripetal force balance), and (2) possible ionization of air from friction or strong fields, causing an electrostatic lift component. The first effect is essentially how a tornado lifts debris – a sufficiently strong vortex can create low pressure above the device, effectively sucking it upward. We model the air as a compressible vortex. The canonical equation for pressure in a rotating flow:  $\frac{dp}{dr} = \rho \frac{v_\theta^2}{r}$  (radial pressure gradient balancing centripetal force for air density  $\rho$  and tangential speed  $v_\theta(r)$ ). For a vortex of core radius  $a$  and circulation  $\kappa$ , one solution is a forced vortex (solid-body rotation) inside  $a$  and free vortex outside. In the core,  $v_\theta = \omega r$  so  $p(r) - p(\text{center}) = \frac{1}{2} \rho \omega^2 r^2$ . At  $r = a$ , this drop can be significant. For example,  $\omega = 500 \text{ rad/s}$  and  $a = 0.1 \text{ m}$  gives  $\Delta p \approx 1/2 \rho (50,000) \cdot 0.01 = 250 \text{ Pa}$  lower at center – enough to lift about 25 kg per  $\text{m}^2$  area. Stronger, tornado-like vortices ( $\omega$  in thousands) could produce near vacuum at core, lifting substantial weight. Schauberger also spoke of ionization: rapid air flow over metal surfaces can strip electrons (like a triboelectric effect), and if the geometry causes charge separation, an electric field could build. A charged vortex of air would act like a capacitor; if the vortex charges the upper part negatively and lower part positively, an extra electric "buoyancy" force appears since the ionized air column interacts with the Earth's electric field or self-fields. Schauberger's notes of a "cooling implosion" suggest that as air expanded and cooled in the vortex, its pressure dropped further (consistent with gas thermodynamics – expanding cool air inside gives extra lift as in hot air balloon but in reverse by cooling the top area). All these are conventional fluid/electro-fluid dynamics. No violation of Newton's laws: the device would push air down (or outwards) to propel upwards – essentially a form of centrifugal air pump or jet engine, just with a complex internal flow. Schauberger's theories were wrapped in mystical terms, but at core, a spinning fluid lowers pressure (much like a vacuum pump).

Scaling Laws: The lift force  $F$  from a vortex can be estimated by the



pressure deficit over the device area:  $F \approx \Delta p \cdot A$ .  $\Delta p$  in a vortex scales roughly with  $\rho, v_{\theta, \max}^2$ . Thus, scaling with rotation speed:  $F \propto \omega^2$  (if we can spin air twice as fast, lift quadruples). Fluid density: denser fluid (e.g. water vapor or water itself) yields larger pressure forces (water is  $1000\times$  denser than air, so Schauburger’s water vortex experiments produced very large forces – he famously developed high-power water turbines). If his device entrained water mist, that could boost lift via momentum exchange. Geometry (contraction ratio): Schauburger spoke of “implosion,” implying a converging vortex. A conical or venturi geometry will convert swirl into pressure differential more effectively – akin to a vortex tube or cyclone separator. So sharper tapering (higher angular velocity gradient) increases  $\nabla p$ . Another factor: Ionization and charge: If air is ionized, we can consider an electrostatic component. A crude scaling: suppose a section of vortex carries charge  $Q$  at the top and  $-Q$  at bottom, separated by distance  $h$ . That’s an electric dipole giving an upward force  $F_Q \approx QE_{\text{earth}}$  in Earth’s field ( $E_{\text{earth}} \approx 100 \text{ V/m}$ ) plus mutual attraction of charges that could reduce pressure further by pulling ions upward.  $Q$  would scale with contact area and field; more charge (via higher friction or perhaps deliberate high voltage) yields more force linearly: 1 C of charge in Earth’s field gives 100 N (10 kgf) – but 1 C is enormous for air (likely unattainable; practical  $Q$  might be microcoulombs, giving mN forces). So any charge effect is secondary to aerodynamic thrust. Temperature gradient: Cooling of air inside (by expansion or even evaporation if moisture condenses in the low-pressure core) will make air denser and pressure lower (Clapeyron relation  $p \propto \rho RT$ ). Thus, more cooling (lower  $T$ ) yields more lift. Schauburger’s notes about cold output suggest his vortex might condense moisture, releasing latent heat at upper levels, which ironically could also *lower* pressure by the resulting cooler air sinking around. The overall lift likely scales strongly with power input – it’s basically a high-power compressor. If one calculates power needed: to sustain a pressure drop  $\Delta p$  across flow area  $A$  with volumetric flow  $\Phi$ , requires  $P \approx \Delta p \cdot \Phi$ . For significant lift (say lifting 100 N with  $\Delta p = 1000 \text{ Pa}$  over  $0.1 \text{ m}^2$ ),  $\Phi$  must be large or  $\Delta p$  large, both implying substantial horsepower – consistent with reports that any functional repulsine would have to spin ferociously and perhaps did not actually self-levitate in documented tests. In summary, the canonical scaling: *faster spin, higher density fluid, larger radius, greater power* all increase lift in an implosion vortex.

Predictions and Falsifiers: (1) Confinement of Flow: If lift is from air-flow, confining or redirecting that flow will counteract it. Prediction: If you place a solid lid or mesh above the vortex device, the lift drops (because the low-pressure zone is disrupted). Or if you invert the device, it

will suck downwards instead of lifting upwards. A true “anti-gravity” would not depend on such orientation or open airflow. (2) *Alternative Fluids*: If one operates the device in different gases (or liquid), the effect changes with fluid density and viscosity. Prediction: Running a Schauburger-like turbine in helium (light, low density) yields much less lift than in air; in SF6 gas (dense), more lift – a gravity-independent force would have no such dependence. (3) *Spin Direction*: The claim doesn’t involve handedness specifically, but any lift from rotation should not depend on clockwise vs counterclockwise except for secondary coriolis effects. Prediction: Switching the rotation direction yields the same magnitude of lift (just maybe twisting the airflow opposite). If some inexplicable “implosion energy” were involved, one might erroneously expect a preferred chirality (which physics does not predict at macroscopic scale). (4) *Thrust and Recoil*: If the device pushes air down, there should be a measurable downdraft or recoil force. Test: Mount the device on a scale and measure thrust while also measuring airflow beneath with an anemometer. Prediction: The momentum in the air jet matches the thrust on the scale (Newton’s 3rd law). If someone claimed reactionless lift, this would fail – but for a vortex, it should balance out (which is a confirmation of conventional thrust). (5) *Noise and Pressure Signals*: A strong vortex producing lift must generate significant sound (from turbulent airflow) and pressure fluctuations. Prediction: Microphones will pick up a telltale whir or low-frequency pressure oscillation proportionate to the intensity of lift. If no sound/air disturbance was found while levitating, that would be truly anomalous. But Schauburger devices reportedly made loud “cyclone” noises – consistent with normal fluid dynamics.

*Minimal Experiment Design*: To test Schauburger’s concept, build a scaled-down vortex chamber. For instance, a motor-driven impeller or Tesla turbine in a round chamber that intakes air from above and expels it radially (to mimic implosion drawing air in and down). Instrument it with pressure sensors at the center and periphery. Use a force gauge to measure net thrust on the chamber. *Controls*: Operate it first in open air, then place it in a vacuum tank (backfilled with controlled air pressure) to separate pure mechanical effects from any electric or thermal ones. Also add or remove moisture: running it with humid air vs dry air to see if condensation (which absorbs heat) changes thrust. *Diagnostics*: High-speed cameras with fog/smoke can visualize the vortex shape (does it form a stable toroidal vortex? Any sign of plasma glow from ionization?). Temperature sensors in the core vs ambient check for cooling. To test electric effects, one can include an electrode to collect any charges from the airflow and see if there’s a potential difference. *Artifacts*: Because the device will essentially be a kind of

fan, it might vibrate or produce torque on its mounts – ensure the thrust measurement is not confused by friction or motor torque reaction. Also use a dummy configuration (same motor and power but blades configured not to produce a unified vortex) as a baseline for how much just motor thrust or vibration might register. By measuring airflow speeds, pressures, and comparing to thrust, one can verify if conventional aero thrust accounts for lift. If something inexplicable remained (none expected), then further analysis would be needed.

Visualization: Below is a conceptual diagram of Schauburger’s Repulsine vortex. Air is drawn in through a central intake and forced into a rapid swirl between corrugated disks (green arrow paths). The intense rotation creates a low-pressure region at the core (blue area) which generates lift force (red arrow upward). The air is expelled outwards (downward jets along sides). This is analogous to a bladeless centrifugal fan creating an updraft. Any “anti-gravity” effect is explained by the pressure differential and air-flow dynamics [gsjournal.net](http://gsjournal.net), with possibly minor electrostatic augmentation. [gsjournal.net](http://gsjournal.net)

## Nikola Tesla’s Field-Propulsion Concepts

Canonical Field Model: Nikola Tesla, beyond his well-known AC electrical inventions, hinted at a *“flying machine”* that had no wings or propellers and could move in any direction, seemingly defying conventional aerodynamics [hangar1publishing.com](http://hangar1publishing.com). The Rosetta-to-Canon translation of Tesla’s idea likely involves electrostatic propulsion and high-frequency EM fields. Tesla experimented with high-voltage, high-frequency currents – for example, his colossal Tesla coils in Colorado produced millions of volts, creating capacitive coupling to the Earth. A plausible interpretation is that Tesla’s craft would be charged to a high voltage, using the Coulomb force against Earth’s electric field or ionized air. If an object carries charge  $Q$ , it feels  $F = QE_{\text{earth}}$  upward (if charged opposite to Earth’s field). However, Earth’s fair-weather field 100 V/m yields only 100 N per coulomb – to lift 1000 kg ( 10,000 N) would require  $Q = 10^2$  C, an astronomical charge (far beyond what a craft can hold before air breakdown). More efficiently, Tesla might have meant using an electrostatic expulsion of ionized air (similar to Townsend Brown’s effect but at much larger scale and possibly AC). He was aware of “electric wind” – his early wireless power tests lit bulbs and spun motors via corona currents. So the canonical mechanism is again an EHD thrust: a craft as one electrode and the surrounding air as the other. By

rapidly alternating the field, one might ionize and push air downward dynamically (creating thrust). Another Tesla concept involved high-frequency mechanical oscillation – he built a vibrating plate that could resonate structures. Some have speculated if his “flying machine” was to use gyroscopic or inertial forces (he mentions “gyroscopic action” [hangar1publishing.com](http://hangar1publishing.com)). Canonically, a spinning gyroscope doesn’t reduce weight (Laithwaite’s case addresses that below), but it can re-vector forces. Tesla’s mention of “gyroscopic” engines likely refers to keeping the craft stable (like how a flywheel stabilizes orientation) rather than producing lift. So the only viable canonical forces from Tesla’s toolkit are: (a) Electric thrust (ion winds or Coulomb push), (b) Magnetic propulsion (unlikely, as there’s nothing to push against magnetically in free air except induced eddy currents in the earth or ionosphere), and (c) possibly radiation pressure if he envisioned beaming energy downward (like a momentum transfer via electromagnetic waves). Radiation pressure is extremely small unless enormous power is used (1 kW of EM gives 3.3 micro-Newtons). Tesla did plan wireless power transmission; conceivably, a craft could ride on a focused microwave beam (like later concepts of lightcraft). But Tesla’s time lacked the tech for microwave beams or lasers. Therefore, the most straightforward canon explanation: Tesla’s “anti-gravity” airship was an ion-propelled VTOL aircraft – essentially a very early vision of an electrostatic lifter or plasma drive. His patents from 1928 actually describe a VTOL plane with a turbine engine for power [hangar1publishing.com](http://hangar1publishing.com), which shows he considered both conventional and unconventional means. We note also Tesla’s claimed “dynamic theory of gravity” remained unpublished; but from his public statements, he believed in an all-pervasive aether that EM fields could grip to produce motion. Canonically, that maps to an idea of using the medium (air or aether) as a reaction mass – again, pushing something (air, charge, or spacetime metric) to propel the craft.

Scaling Laws: If using Coulomb force directly:  $F = QE$ . The craft’s maximum charge  $Q$  is limited by breakdown:  $Q_{\max} \sim CV_{\max}$ , where  $C$  is craft capacitance (say on the order of 100 pF for a small craft) and  $V_{\max}$  before air breakdown maybe  $10^7$  V for a large smooth shape. That gives  $Q_{\max} \sim 10^{-4}$  C. In Earth’s  $E \sim 100$  V/m,  $F \sim 0.01$  N – negligible. Even if using the craft’s own field, the best case is pushing directly on the ionosphere or ground like a capacitor: there is an electrostatic pressure  $P \sim \frac{\epsilon_0 E^2}{2}$  on surfaces. For  $E = 10^7$  V/m at breakdown,  $P \sim 4.4 \times 10^5$  Pa (about 4.4 atm) which over a large area could lift. But maintaining 10 MV/m over say 10 m length is impossible without arc. So clearly, ion thrust scaling is more favorable: thrust per power for ion wind can be on order of sev-

eral Newtons per kW in atmosphere – much better than radiation pressure ( $3.3\mu\text{N/kW}$ ). Tesla’s huge coil could output multi-kW of RF, conceivably producing tens of Newtons thrust by ionizing a column of air (like a giant ionic thruster). That thrust would scale with power roughly linearly:  $F \propto I$  as earlier. If he used AC, the frequency matters: too high frequency (RF) and ions might not drift far before the field reverses, reducing net momentum transfer. There’s an optimal frequency where ionization occurs but ions still flow directionally. So scaling with frequency: too low (DC) works but continuous corona may waste energy as heat; too high, ions oscillate in place. Perhaps a pulsed DC or resonant burst could maximize thrust. Scaling with ambient pressure: best thrust at 1 atm; at high altitudes (low pressure) the thrust per voltage drops, so to reach “rarified medium above 8 miles” as Tesla suggested [nikolateslalegend.com](http://nikolateslalegend.com), one would need vastly higher voltages or to carry own air supply – a limitation he may not have fully addressed. If Tesla also thought of inertial or gyroscopic drive, those scale with rotation speed and mass of flywheels: e.g. storing angular momentum  $L = I\omega$ , then tilting it to produce a transient lift (reaction forces). The scaling of such inertial thrust is controversial, but essentially any closed mechanical system cannot produce a sustained net thrust without external interaction (per momentum conservation). It could produce pulses of force (vibrations), which average to zero net impulse over time (like shaking a weight in a box won’t make it float, except by vibrating air). Tesla’s high frequency mechanical oscillators could have conceivably caused vibrations that via resonance with a large surface (ground or atmosphere) might yield lift – but that again is using the environment (earth or air) for push. That would scale with amplitude and frequency (and could cause earthquakes more easily than levitation!). So realistically, the tell-tale scaling for any Tesla craft would be: extremely high voltage and power required for modest lift. If we approximate needed thrust-to-weight 1 (to hover), and imagine an ion drive efficiency 10 N per kW, lifting a 1000 kg craft needs 1 MW of power directed into ionizing and moving air. Tesla’s Wardenclyffe transmitter was theoretically in that class of power, but delivering it to a craft efficiently is another challenge (he envisioned wireless power; even if that worked, the craft still must direct that energy downward as thrust). Another scaling: the craft likely gets lighter with higher humidity or conductive particles in air (a contrary indicator to true anti-grav but consistent with ion thrust – more charge carriers, more thrust).

Predictions and Falsifiers: (1) Voltage Polarity and Ionization: If Tesla’s propulsion is electromagnetic, it will create ionization, corona glows, ozone smell, etc. Prediction: In darkness, a Tesla craft in operation would be

corona-lit (St. Elmo's fire around its electrodes). Also, reversing polarity should not inhibit thrust (just swap which charges move), though the direction might depend on which way charges are driven (a purely AC symmetric system might produce oscillating forces but no net thrust unless rectified somehow). A genuine anti-gravity field effect (like hypothetical warping of spacetime) would not produce such electrical tell-tales or care about polarity. (2) Interaction with Surroundings: An EM-based craft would likely affect compasses (magnetic fields from currents), radio reception (strong RF noise), and possibly even light objects nearby (charging them or blowing them via ion wind). Test: Bring small pieces of paper or a flame near it – Prediction: they will be disturbed (attracted to intakes or blown by winds). If it were anti-gravity without emissions, none of these effects would occur. (3) Efficiency and Heat: Because ion propulsion dumps energy into heating air (ion collisions thermalize energy), we predict a hot wake or at least significant thermal output around the craft. Prediction: The air just under the craft might warm up or show turbulence from heating. If by contrast it was “field propulsion” coupling to spacetime, there'd be no waste heat in air. (4) Weight when powered off: Obviously, if it's not fundamentally altering gravity, once power is off the craft has full weight. That seems trivial, but one could examine if any persistent mass reduction (e.g. from charge stored) occurs. A charged capacitor actually adds weight equal to electrostatic field energy/ $c^2$  (a tiny amount), rather than reducing it. So no static effect should remain.

Minimal Experiment Design: To emulate Tesla's idea, use a large high-voltage capacitor platform. For example, a circular aluminum plate craft (say 0.5 m diameter) that can be charged to +100 kV relative to a ground plane below. Suspend it from a spring scale to see net force changes when charged. Incorporate a high-frequency HV AC source (like a Tesla coil feed) to see if AC improves thrust (maybe via rapid ionization). *Wireless power test:* One could have a Tesla coil transmit power to a resonant circuit on the craft which then biases the craft to high voltage – copying Tesla's wireless thrust concept. *Diagnostics:* Measure corona current, surrounding E-field, and airflow using smoke. *Controls:* Perform tests in air vs vacuum. Also try the plate charged but with an ion-blocking dielectric envelope (to see if pure electrostatic field pressure produces anything). Another test: place the plate near a large neutral object (like a wall or the ground) vs freely in space – if it's pushing against the ground capacitively, distance will matter (force falls with separation if it's just a capacitor). *Safety/artifact notes:* At 100 kV, ensure no uncontrolled arcing which could give spurious jerks. Use a smooth craft shape to prevent localized sparks (maybe use a large sphere

as a test craft – easier to charge uniformly). If a force is seen, vary the pressure to confirm it’s from ions. For gyroscopic action, one could mount spinning flywheels on the craft and oscillate their orientation (essentially test a Laithwaite-style effect on a free hanging platform). We predict no net sustained lift from that, only oscillatory kicks. Measuring the craft’s motion with high-speed video or an accelerometer will show any net acceleration vs vibrations.

In the end, Tesla’s flying machine in canonical terms would behave much like an ion-propelled drone. If his claims were exaggerated, experiments will show the limitations (huge voltage, significant air disturbances). If one doesn’t observe any thrust even with extreme HV (and excluding known causes), then Tesla’s concept might remain an idea that didn’t surmount physics constraints – i.e. a falsified dream if expecting silent anti-gravity, but confirmed in the sense of early EHD if we see small lifts accompanied by expected phenomena.

Visualization: *Concept Diagram*: A disc-shaped craft with a high-voltage electrode rim (red “+”) and an opposite charge induced on the ground or ambient air (blue “-”). The electric field (yellow lines) ionizes air (purple glow region) and pushes ions downward (blue arrows), resulting in an upward thrust (thick red arrow on craft). Tesla’s vision of a wingless VTOL likely corresponds to this principle of driving airflow electricallyhangar1publishing.comhangar1publishing.com. Gyroscopic stabilizers (spinning masses shown inside the craft) keep it oriented but do not contribute lift. This is a 1920s notion of an “electrostatic lifter” long before such devices were understood.

## Wilhelm Reich’s Orgone Devices (Orgone Accumulator & Cloudbuster)

Canonical Field Model: Wilhelm Reich proposed a new form of energy “Orgone” which he attempted to harness with devices like the Orgone Accumulator (ORAC) – a layered metal-insulator box – and the Cloudbuster – an array of pipes aimed at the sky, said to influence weather. Stripping away the mystical terminology, we map these to known physical effects: static electricity, thermal insulation, and atmospheric ion dynamics. The ORAC is essentially a Faraday cage lined with alternating conductive and dielectric materials. Canonically, this acts to trap thermal radiation (like a rudimentary thermal insulation box) and accumulate electrostatic charge by preventing dissipation. Indeed, experiments showed a slight temperature rise inside an ORAC compared to outsidejournals.sfu.ca, explicable by the greenhouse

effect: metal layers reflect infrared back inward while the insulating layers reduce convective cooling [journals.sfu.ca](http://journals.sfu.ca). No exotic energy is needed; it's like sitting in a well-insulated box – you get warmer. The “orgone” effects (tingling, etc.) can be explained by static charge build-up: people sitting in an ORAC often report feeling warm or hair-standing; that's consistent with a static field as the person and the layers become charged by triboelectric effect. So, the ORAC canonically is a capacitor enclosure storing some electric field and heat. Now the Cloudbuster: Reich's cloudbuster had long metal tubes grounded by cables to water, pointed upward [en.m.wikipedia.org](http://en.m.wikipedia.org). He claimed it could draw energy out of the sky to disperse or create clouds. Canonically, what happens is those tubes act as passive atmospheric ion collectors. Normally, the atmosphere has an electric field and ion flow (the air-earth conduction current  $2\text{--}3\text{ pA/m}^2$ ). A grounded rod or pipe will attract opposite charge ions. By pointing multiple large tubes, one greatly increases the local ion capture, potentially neutralizing charged regions in clouds overhead. If a cloud has an excess charge (which often they do – tops positive, bottoms negative, etc.), providing a path to ground could encourage droplets to coalesce or dissipate by reducing the electrostatic stabilization. Another mechanism: the cloudbuster might launch small particles or cold vapor from the wet grounding into the sky – some observers note that aiming one can create a breeze or patterns in clouds, which could just be from induced convection as the cool wet air from the pipes rises. There's also a psychological aspect: if one deliberately seeds a cumulus with cold moist air, it might indeed trigger rainfall (similar to cloud seeding with ice). But everything is within standard atmospheric physics: electrostatics and convection. Reich's device could be seen as a form of large ionizer. In fact, modern “ionizers” or “electrostatic precipitators” similarly use charged electrodes to cause particles to clump or air to move (the so-called electric wind again). The cloudbuster, being passive, mainly just cancels out the vertical field locally: for instance, normally near ground  $E \approx 100\text{ V/m}$  upward; a big grounded tube will locally distort and maybe slightly reduce that field by drawing charges. That could lead to cooler air column (since ions often attach to water vapor, removing them might allow more evaporation cooling – speculative but plausible). In summary, canonical fields at play:  $\mathbf{E}$  field of Earth, ion current  $J$ , and fluid dynamics  $\nabla T$ . Reich's claims of drawing energy likely refer to seeing fog form or disperse, which is explainable by those physical changes.

Scaling Laws: For the ORAC: if it's essentially a thermal insulator and charge accumulator, scaling: *More layers* = better insulation (roughly each added layer of alternating conductive/insulative material increases thermal



resistance and electrical capacitance). The temperature rise inside was on order of  $<1^\circ\text{C}$  journals.sfu.ca. That scales with ambient temp difference and insulation quality. If “orgone” was a new source, adding layers shouldn’t matter or a bigger box would yield more energy – but canonically, doubling the wall thickness in insulation or using better reflective layers gives more warming. Also, a larger box with same wall would still equalize to ambient eventually; no continuous energy is generated, just slowed heat exchange. For static charge, the ORAC can be seen as a capacitor: layers of metal separated by dielectric store charge  $Q = CV$ . A person inside might become charged by induction. The field  $E$  in there could be a few kV/m if a significant charge accumulates on the outer shell relative to the person (like sitting in a charged metal shed). That could cause physiological sensations. The scaling: if the air is dry (low conductivity), the charge stays longer (so effect stronger in dry weather). Humid air leaks charge, reducing effect. So ironically, “orgone” in canon would be strongest in conditions of low humidity and high static buildup (which Reich noted – ORAC works “better” in dry cold days, which makes sense because it keeps warmth and static more). For the cloudbuster: *Number and length of pipes*: more pipes = larger effective cross-section to capture ions, so faster discharge of charged clouds. The length matters as it defines how high into the field it reaches (a longer rod samples higher potential difference – a 10 m rod spans a 1000 V difference to ground roughly). So longer pipes draw more current. *Water grounding*: using water likely kept the grounding effective and maybe released moisture – the volume of water might sink heat or provide a reservoir of ions. Possibly running water through it could create a slight cooling/entrainment effect. So flow rate of water might scale any convective effect. *Cloud distance*: obviously, a device like this can only affect clouds within a certain radius overhead – scaling with the local electric field lines it intersects. If a cloud is directly above, the tubes might attract charge from it; if cloud is far (many kilometers), unlikely any effect. So range is limited by electrical influence (maybe a few hundred meters radius at most, since the ion current is diffuse). We can deduce: if Reich claimed impact at many miles, that doesn’t scale realistically – one could compare to a lightning rod which affects lightning within a certain cone. Perhaps a cloudbuster influences a region like a reversed lightning rod (draining charge slowly to prevent lightning or encourage rain). The effect (if any) should scale with time of operation: a longer exposure might gradually change the cloud’s charge state or local humidity. No immediate huge effect should happen unless you accidentally trigger a lightning strike (which would be a dramatic but still normal event!).

Predictions and Falsifiers: (1) Measurable Charge/Field changes: If a

cloudbuster works by ion manipulation, then one should measure changes in the local electric field when it's operated. Prediction: Using an electric field mill (measures vertical  $E$  field) near the device: when pipes are pointed at a charged cloud, the fair-weather field reading should drop or fluctuate as charges are drawn off. If no change in  $E$  is detected, it's likely not doing anything physical. (2) Weather Conditions: If it's just electrostatics, it will only affect certain cloud types – e.g., charged storm clouds. Prediction: A cloudbuster won't dissipate a cloud that has no electrical charge or is purely governed by humidity/temperature (like a neutral fog bank). Also, if the atmosphere is already electrically neutral (after a rain, usually ions are depleted), the cloudbuster does nothing. So the effect (if any) will be inconsistent, only under certain preconditions (which matches anecdotal reports – sometimes it “works,” sometimes not). A true weather control beam would consistently affect any cloud. (3) Orgone Accumulator temperature: If it's just thermal, then if you block all heat sources (e.g. put the ORAC in a thermal equilibrium environment, like a climate-controlled room), there should be no mysterious heating. Test: Place a calibrated thermometer inside an ORAC and another inside an equal-insulation plain box, in the same room. Prediction: Both will show the same temperature behavior (maybe a slight rise relative to outside if people or warm objects are inside, but no unique “orgone” gain). Reich's supporters claim an ORAC can warm above ambient – likely because ambient wasn't truly uniform or the measurement was flawed. Under controlled conditions, any extra heat must come from normal sources (body heat, sunlight, etc.). (4) Biological effects: Reich attributed health benefits to orgone. Canonically, sitting in an ORAC you get warm and perhaps statically charged. Prediction: Any physiological effect (tingling, mood change) should also be produced by, say, a sauna (heat) or a static generator. This can be tested by placebo: e.g., have subjects sit in a metal-insulator box that is either grounded or left floating charged. If the effect is just static, an ungrounded insulated box would cause accumulation of charge on the person (like rubbing a balloon effect). If orgone was unique, such electrical mimicry wouldn't produce the same subjective effects. (5) Cloudbuster vs. Control: If one simply points ungrounded pipes or a wooden stick at clouds, nothing should happen. If the grounded metal is the key, the metal grounded version should have measurable differences. Prediction: Only when pipes are grounded to water (or something that can sink charge) do we see any effect (like slight cloud dissipation or changes in local  $E$ ). A falsifier for orgone theory: if even ungrounded pipes “work” in someone's observation, then likely it's psychological or coincidence (canonically nothing should happen from inert pipes). So careful controlled trials (point on

one day vs not point on similar day) would show no statistically significant weather change beyond what random chance yields.

Minimal Experiment Design: *Orgone Accumulator Test*: Construct two identical-sized boxes, one ORAC (layers of say fiberglass insulation and steel wool/metal sheets alternating) and one simple insulated box (just fiberglass or just wood). Place identical thermometers and perhaps humidity sensors in each. Keep them in same environment (no direct sunlight, same floor). Measure temperature over time with and without a person or warm object inside. Also measure any DC electric potential of the inner chamber relative to ground (an electrostatic voltmeter can see if the ORAC builds a charge; one might find the metal layers pick up a potential). *Cloudbuster Test*: Set up a weather station: field mill for electric field, camera for cloud cover, perhaps a LIDAR or ceilometer for cloud density, plus meteorological data (humidity, etc.). Use a set of metal pipes 3 m long on a swivel to aim at zenith or specific clouds, connected to a water ground (e.g., into a bucket of salt water connected to earth ground). Do trials where on some days/times you point at clouds for an hour, and on control times you don't, or point at blank sky. Monitor any changes: cloud cover, rainfall, electric field variation. Ensure multiple trials to average out natural variability. *Controls*: Could use one setup of pipes grounded, another identical set not grounded, to see if grounding (hence charge flow) is the operative factor. Or replace metal pipes with PVC pipes (no conduction) – PVC won't draw ions, so if nothing happens with PVC but something with metal, that indicates the effect is electrical. *Artifacts*: Weather is highly variable, so many trials are needed. Also the presence of an operator might introduce bias in observation (Reich often subjectively decided success). Use blind protocols – e.g., an automated system decides when the device is “on” or “off” and only later compare to weather data. Ensure the device doesn't spray any material (some versions used DOR (Deadly Orgone) accumulators, etc., but ours is passive). *Safety*: If a storm cloud is overhead, a grounded pipe could actually invite lightning – we have to be cautious not to unintentionally become a lightning rod (which ironically would definitely cause precipitation in form of rain!). That risk is real and itself a canonical effect: the cloudbuster is essentially a lightning rod array.

Through such experiments, one should find that any measurable effects are consistent with known science. For instance, a slight temperature rise in ORAC can be fully accounted for by reduced convective cooling [journals.sfu.ca](http://journals.sfu.ca), and any cloud changes by the cloudbuster can be explained by electrostatics or simply natural cloud evolution. If results show nothing beyond that, it reinforces that Reich's orgone is not a distinct new

force, just a creative assembly of known phenomena.

Visual Aids: *Left*: Orgone Accumulator diagram – a person sits inside a box made of alternating metal (blue) and insulator (brown) layers. Red arrows indicate heat flow being reflected/trapped; yellow ‘+’ signs show static charges accumulating on layers. The effect is a slight warming and a static field around the person, explainable without new energy. *Right*: Cloudbuster – metal pipes are grounded to water; they draw down atmospheric ions (blue arrows), potentially affecting charged cloud droplets (grey cloud). This is analogous to a set of giant electrostatic probes neutralizing cloud charge, which can induce condensation or dispersal. (No mysterious orgone ray is needed; the phenomena follow from atmospheric electricity.) [en.m.wikipedia.org](http://en.m.wikipedia.org)

## Eric Laithwaite’s Gyroscopic Inertia and “Weight Loss”

Canonical Field Model: Professor Eric Laithwaite famously demonstrated that a spinning gyroscope can be lifted with less apparent effort than its weight would suggest, leading him to claim a loss of gravitational mass. Canonically, a spinning gyro does not lose gravitational weight, but its behavior under forces is governed by Newtonian mechanics and angular momentum (torque-induced precession). The key is that when Laithwaite lifted one end of a horizontal spinning wheel, instead of him feeling the full  $mg$  downward force, the gyro’s angular momentum  $\mathbf{L}$  reoriented via precession. Let’s put it in equations: A gyroscope of mass  $m$ , spinning with angular velocity  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$  about its axle, has angular momentum  $\mathbf{L} = I\boldsymbol{\omega}$  (with  $I$  the moment of inertia about spin axis). When one end is supported and the other end of the axle is free or held by Laithwaite, gravity exerts a torque  $\boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbf{r} \times m\mathbf{g}$  (where  $\mathbf{r}$  is lever arm from pivot to center of mass). This torque is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{L}$  and causes  $\mathbf{L}$  to precess at rate  $\boldsymbol{\Omega}_p$  given by  $\boldsymbol{\tau} = \frac{d\mathbf{L}}{dt} = \boldsymbol{\Omega}_p \times \mathbf{L}$ . The gyro begins to precess around, meaning the weight is supported not by static lift from Laithwaite’s hand, but by a dynamic force as the gyro’s motion pushes against his arm orthogonally. In simpler terms, when Laithwaite tries to “lift” it, he applies an upward force on one side; the gyro responds by rotating that force into a horizontal motion (precession), so he ends up feeling a reduced direct downward force, but instead must exert a sideways force to constrain the motion. The total force on the support points (his hands) still sums to  $mg$  downward on average, but it’s distributed and time-varying – thus *feeling* easier in one hand at a given instant. Canonically, if one measured the weight of the whole system on a scale, it never changes whether the

gyro is spinning or not (neglecting small buoyant air or relativistic effects). Indeed, careful experiments have placed spinning masses on precision scales and found no weight difference (within micrograms) due purely to rotation. The effect is purely that the direction of forces is counterintuitive: The support force is not directly opposing gravity at each instant but rather causing a continuous redirection of momentum. The Navier–Stokes of rigid body (Euler’s equations) can predict exactly the forces on the pivots. One finds that lifting one end of a spinning gyro requires less upward force than lifting a non-spinning one *if simultaneously a lateral force is applied*. Work is still done – energy goes into the precession kinetic energy. Laithwaite essentially made the heavy wheel precess, doing work over a longer path rather than directly lifting vertically. It’s analogous to pushing an object up a slope instead of lifting straight up – less force but over a longer distance (hence same or more work). Canonically, no laws are broken:  $\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{g}$  still holds for center of mass, but internal force distribution due to rotation fools our muscles.

Scaling Laws: The apparent ease of moving a gyroscope depends on spin angular momentum magnitude  $L = I\omega$  and applied torque  $\tau = mgr$  (with  $r$  the horizontal offset of mass from pivot). The precession angular speed  $\Omega_p$  is given by  $\Omega_p = \frac{\tau}{L}$  for steady precession. So  $\Omega_p = \frac{mgr}{I\omega}$ . For a large  $L$  (fast spin or big inertia),  $\Omega_p$  is small – the gyro slowly moves instead of falling. If  $\omega = 0$  (not spinning),  $\Omega_p \rightarrow \infty$ , meaning it just falls (no steady precession, you must hold all the weight). As  $\omega$  increases,  $\Omega_p$  decreases, meaning the gyro falls more slowly – effectively you have more time to apply a smaller force to reposition it. The support force on Laithwaite’s hand holding the gyroscope axle can be derived from dynamic equations. At one end (pivot) you might get an upward force  $> mg/2$ , and at the other (his lifting hand) less than  $mg/2$ , depending on instantaneous configuration. For instance, if the gyro is precessing steadily in horizontal circle, each support might carry half the weight on average, but one experiences a sinusoidal variation. If Laithwaite timed his lift when the gyro’s own motion helps, it would feel lighter. That’s a critical point: the force is time-varying. If one tries to lift quickly (faster than natural precession), you must overcome  $mg$  plus fight the gyro’s resistance (which can feel *heavier* in quick motions!). If one lifts in sync with precession, it’s easier. So scaling: *Spin faster (higher  $\omega$ )* -> easier to sustain weight via precession (the gyro will happily precess and not tip, so minimal upward force to just guide it in circle). *Heavier mass or longer arm ( $m, r$ )* -> greater torque, so for same  $L$ ,  $\Omega_p$  increases (it falls faster, requiring more force to redirect). So to maximize “anti-grav feeling”, you want high  $L$  relative to  $mgr$ . That implies a heavy, fast-spinning wheel held

at a short lever arm from pivot – precisely what Laithwaite showed with a big flywheel. If he held it near its center of mass, it wouldn’t tip much at all. If he held far out on a rod, it’d be harder. Another scaling: *Friction and air drag*: a real spinning gyro will slowly lose speed; as  $\omega$  drops, it becomes harder to support (needs more upward catch). Observers note that when the gyro slowed, Laithwaite could no longer lift it as easily – consistent with scaling. There is no mysterious threshold, just a continuous change with  $\omega$ . If anti-gravity were real, one might expect a distinct effect once spinning above some RPM, which is not the case – it’s a smooth continuum in line with  $\frac{1}{\omega}$  behavior.

Predictions and Falsifiers: (1) Net Weight on Scale: Place a spinning gyroscope apparatus on a scale. Prediction: The scale reading remains equal to the total weight (gyro + support structure) regardless of spin. This has been tested; any deviation is within measurement error, falsifying any actual weight loss. (2) Energy and Work: If one measures the work done lifting the gyro vs raising it static, it should be equal or greater when spinning. Prediction: The work (force  $\times$  distance integral) to raise the gyro from ground to table height is the same whether it’s spinning (with fancy maneuver) or not. The spinning case just spreads the work out differently (some energy goes into continued precession motion). If anti-gravity were real, one could get it up with less energy, violating energy conservation. Careful measurements will show no energy saving – confirming it’s just force distribution over path. (3) Precession Requirement: If you prevent the gyro from precessing (e.g. hold it fixed in space), then spinning doesn’t help at all – it’s even harder to manage because you feel a peculiar twist (gyroscopic resistance). Test: Try to lift a spinning gyro straight up without allowing it to rotate horizontally. Prediction: It resists and perhaps even feels heavier (it will exert a downward torque on you). This demonstrates that the “help” comes only when precession is allowed (i.e. exchanging gravitational torque for motion). A true gravitational reduction would not require motion. (4) Reverse Spin: Flipping the spin direction will reverse the direction of precession (left vs right), but the ease of lift should be symmetrical. Prediction: A clockwise vs counterclockwise spinning gyro is equally “light” to maneuver, just one must guide it in opposite direction. This is observed – it’s hard one way, easy the other depending on orientation – purely because of torque vector directions, not because one spin cancels gravity. (5) Multi-axis rotations: If one tries some combination like spinning two gyros in opposite directions (to cancel angular momentum), any magic weight loss should vanish. Indeed, experiments with contra-rotating wheels show no net gyroscopic effect and no anomalous weight either.

Minimal Experiment Design: Set up a vertical support with a force gauge at the top, from which a gyroscope (heavy wheel) is hung via a gimbal. This way, the gauge measures the upward force supporting the system. Spin up the gyro with a motor to a certain  $\omega$ . Allow it to precess freely around pivot. Measure the support force as a function of time (it might oscillate). The average should remain  $mg$ . One can also attach strain gauges to the arms to see instantaneous force distribution. Another approach: attach a lightweight accelerometer or gyro sensor to measure the motion while recording forces. *Control:* Do the same with the wheel not spinning – one sees static force =  $mg$  on the gauge. With spinning, the gauge might show fluctuations, but the mean stays  $mg$ . Also try two counter-rotating gyros on the same crossbar – their individual precessions cancel, so the bar won’t spontaneously turn; you’ll find you have to carry the full weight combined (no help). *Demonstration of force path:* To further confirm, do a slow-motion video of a person lifting a spinning gyro vs a non-spinning weight of equal mass. Track the trajectory and forces (maybe via motion capture and knowing masses). Show that the person with the gyro moves it along a curved path (lifting gradually while it precesses in a circle), whereas the non-spinning must lift straight up (all force vertical). Integrate  $\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$  in both cases – should be roughly equal. *Potential artifacts:* friction in the gimbal or air drag could slightly alter readings (e.g. a lot of friction might let some weight actually be borne by support torque – but minimize by good bearings). If using a motor to spin, account for motor weight. Ensure the scale or gauge zero is stable (spinning heavy object can cause vibrations affecting readings – mitigate with damping or using video analysis of deflection).

The outcome will demonstrate that while Laithwaite’s gyroscope felt weirdly light to him in the moment, the physics is consistent with Newton’s laws. There’s no free lunch: the gravitational force is still there, but he redirected it into motion (like pushing along a circular ramp instead of lifting). The “mystery” is resolved by understanding angular momentum – no anti-gravity or mass change involved.

Visualization: The diagram illustrates Laithwaite’s demonstration. A heavy flywheel is spinning (angular momentum  $\mathbf{L}$  into page). When he tries to lift one end (applying an upward force  $\mathbf{F}$ ), instead of the wheel rising straight, it begins to precess sideways (angular velocity  $\boldsymbol{\Omega}_p$ , green arrow). The weight  $mg$  (downward) is supported by a combination of Laithwaite’s upward force and the dynamic support from precession. The force vectors (blue) at the supports constantly change direction, but if one were to put the system on a scale, the total downward force remains  $mg$ . This is exactly predicted by rigid body dynamics – a non-intuitive distribution of forces, yet

fully canonical.

## Lord Kelvin's Levitations (Electrostatic & Diamagnetic Lift)

Canonical Field Model: Lord Kelvin (William Thomson) is associated with ideas that today we explain via classical electromagnetism. Two phenomena come to mind: electrostatic levitation of charged objects (Kelvin's water dropper demonstration) and diamagnetic levitation (Kelvin theorized in 19th century that diamagnetism could allow stable levitation, which later was confirmed with frogs and graphite [sciencedirect.com](http://sciencedirect.com)). We map these to canonical equations: Coulomb's law and magnetostatics. Electrostatic levitation: If a small object has charge  $q$  and is in an electric field  $E$ , it experiences  $F = qE$ . Kelvin's water dropper generator showed water droplets can become charged and be attracted or repelled strongly [en.wikipedia.org](http://en.wikipedia.org) – sometimes small droplets even suspend or move upward if the field is arranged right. The governing equation is  $mg = qE$  for levitation (balance weight  $mg$  with electric force). For a droplet of mass  $m = \rho \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$ , charge can come from induction or contact electrification in the apparatus. The maximum surface charge before the drop disintegrates (Rayleigh limit) is  $q_{\max} \approx 8\pi\sqrt{\epsilon_0\gamma r^3}$  (where  $\gamma$  is surface tension). For a 1 mm water drop,  $q_{\max} \sim 10^{-8}$  C. Plugging numbers:  $m \sim 4.2 \times 10^{-6}$  kg, so  $mg \sim 4 \times 10^{-5}$  N. To levitate with  $q = 10^{-8}$  C, one needs  $E = F/q \approx 4 \times 10^{-5}/10^{-8} = 4 \times 10^3$  N/C (V/m). That's quite achievable (only 4 kV/cm). Kelvin's device could indeed generate on the order of 10 kV differences, so small drops could hover or be diverted upward [en.wikipedia.org](http://en.wikipedia.org). This is all per Maxwell's equations – nothing mysterious: the drops are essentially test charges. Kelvin himself built an “electric bird” demo where a charged light object can hang stably between plates (one of earliest electrostatic levitation tricks). The canonical understanding: such levitation is limited by Earnshaw's theorem – a static electric field can't stably trap a charge without feedback, but by using dynamic or combined fields one can balance (Kelvin's dropper had continuous replenishment of charge and flow, effectively a dynamic situation). Diamagnetic levitation: Kelvin recognized diamagnetism (materials repelled by magnetic fields) could circumvent Earnshaw's theorem (which forbids stable levitation for paramagnetics but *not* for diamagnetics). The magnetic force on a small diamagnetic object with volume  $V$  and magnetic susceptibility  $\chi_m < 0$  in a field  $B$  is:  $F_z = \frac{\chi_m V}{2\mu_0} \frac{\partial B^2}{\partial z}$  (approximately, in a field gradient) [sciencedirect.com](http://sciencedirect.com). For water or organic material,



$\chi_m \approx -10^{-5}$ . To levitate, we need  $F_z = mg$ . Plugging numbers for a frog (10 g,  $V \sim 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3$ ):  $mg \approx 0.1 \text{ N}$ . So  $\frac{|\chi_m|V}{2\mu_0} \nabla B^2 \approx 0.1$ . Solving for  $\nabla B^2$ : using  $\chi_m V / 2\mu_0 \sim (10^{-5} \times 10^{-5}) / (2 \times 4\pi 10^{-7}) \approx 0.04$  (units N per  $(\text{T/m})^2$ ), we get  $\nabla B^2 \approx 2.5 \text{ (T}^2/\text{m)}$ . If the field is around 16 T inside a solenoid bore of say 2 m length,  $\Delta B \approx 16 \text{ T}$  over 1 m gives  $\nabla B \approx 16 \text{ T/m}$ , so  $\nabla B^2 \approx 16 \times 16 = 256 \text{ T}^2/\text{m}$  (if roughly linear). Actually  $(B^2)$  gradient is maybe 5000  $\text{T}^2/\text{m}$  in the best magnets. So 16 T magnets can levitate a frog (indeed done in 1997), since  $0.04 \times 5000 \approx 200 \text{ N}$ , more than enough for 0.1 N frog weight. So canonical physics absolutely allows magnetic levitation of weakly diamagnetic objects given strong enough  $B$  and gradientsciencedirect.com. Kelvin predicted this in theory; it took a while to get magnets strong enough. This is not anti-gravity but using magnetic pressure to counter gravity. In essence, the magnetic field stores energy density  $B^2/2\mu_0$ , and diamagnetic objects prefer regions of lower  $B$  (they induce eddy currents or magnetic moments that oppose the field). So they are pushed toward weaker field – usually that means they get expelled from a magnet’s core to the fringe. Clever magnet designs (like an upward-facing Bitter magnet) create a field minimum in mid-air above the magnet, where a small object can float at equilibrium. This is stable because if it moves closer to magnet,  $B$  increases and the repulsion grows, pushing it back; if it moves away,  $B$  decreases and gravity pulls it back – a stable potential well. Kelvin’s contributions here are completely within Maxwell-Lorentz theory – no new physics, just extreme parameters.

Scaling Laws: *Electrostatic*:  $F \sim qE$ . Achievable  $E$  is limited by breakdown (about  $3 \times 10^6 \text{ V/m}$  in air). Achievable  $q$  is limited by either corona discharge or structural disintegration for charged liquids/solids. So maximum  $F$  scales with size: bigger objects weigh more and also can hold more charge, but charge holding grows slower than volume usually. For a given material, charge to mass ratio  $Q/m$  needed  $\approx g/E$ . With  $E_{\text{max}} \sim 3 \times 10^6 \text{ V/m}$ ,  $Q/m \sim 9.8/3e6 \approx 3.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ C/kg}$ . If you can give that much charge, you can hover. For a 1 kg object, that’s  $3.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ C}$  – extremely little! That’s only about  $2 \times 10^{13}$  electrons deficit. In theory possible, but practically that charge would leak quickly in air or cause sparks. The scaling is easier for small masses: since mass  $\propto \text{volume} \propto r^3$ , charge holding  $\propto \text{surface} \propto r^2$  (for conductor before field emission), so  $Q/m \propto r^{-1}$  roughly. Thus small things levitate easier (drop vs human). *Diamagnetic*:  $F \sim \frac{|\chi|V}{2\mu_0} \nabla B^2$ . For a given magnet,  $\nabla B^2$  is fixed by its design and current. So heavier  $V$  needs bigger  $\nabla B^2$ .  $\chi$  is material-specific (water -9e-6, graphite -1e-4). Graphite levitates at lower fields than water because higher  $|\chi|$ . Scale: if one had a

superconductor ( $\chi = -1$  ideally), even a small magnet can levitate it (which we see: a small NdFeB magnet lifts a superconductor easily – that’s essentially diamagnetic expulsion plus flux pinning). But common diamagnetics need huge fields. The scaling is essentially  $B^2 L$  scale, where  $L$  is length scale of field gradient region. The largest continuous fields 45 T (Bitter magnet) can levitate small animals; to levitate a person (70 kg), one would need either an impractically large high-field magnet (scaling roughly linear with mass, so 7000x more volume or field energy from frog to human, i.e. beyond any current tech). So no hope for large-scale anti-gravity via diamagnetism without magnets the size of buildings and gigawatt power. That’s a scaling that shows the limits of this as “anti-gravity” for heavy objects, though scientifically it’s levitation. *Combined E & B (Kelvin also worked on electromagnetic balances)*: There’s also the Kelvin balance to measure electric currents by weight – which is just an application of  $F = ILB$  vs  $mg$ . All these follow linear scaling with current or field.

Predictions and Falsifiers: (1) Levitation only in presence of fields: Obviously, remove the field (turn off voltage or magnet) and the object falls normally. This is trivial but distinguishes from true gravitational shielding which would persist independent of external fields. (2) Orientation and geometry matter: For diamagnetic levitation, the object floats at a specific point in the field. If you move it away from that region, it falls. Prediction: A frog levitates only at the center of the magnet bore; if it crawls toward the edge, it will no longer levitate because field and gradient are lower. Similarly, an electrostatically levitated particle stays between electrodes; outside that, no support. Real anti-gravity would presumably work anywhere, orientation independent. (3) No effect on other masses: If one object is levitated by fields, it doesn’t reduce gravity for other nearby masses. Test: Put a second neutral test mass next to a diamagnetic levitated one but out of the field region. Prediction: The second mass still weighs normal – showing it’s not space being altered, just a local force on the levitated object. (4) Energy considerations: In these levitations, energy is stored in fields. If something levitates, it’s at the expense of field energy (and usually continuous input power to maintain fields against losses). Prediction: The magnet’s power supply sees a slight increase in load when the object levitates (because the object’s presence changes inductance and field energy). This can be measured. If it were gravity shielding, one might expect no coupling to the magnet’s circuit. But in diamagnetic levitation, there is coupling (e.g. the current might adjust slightly as the object moves). For electrostatic, similarly, bringing a mass in changes capacitance. So these levitations obey energy conservation (you could even reclaim the potential energy if you turn

off the field and let object fall – the field energy does work). True anti-gravity might break that symmetry.

Minimal Experiment Design: *Electrostatic levitation demo*: Use a high-voltage DC supply and two parallel plates. Place a tiny piece of foil or a charged puffball between them. Adjust voltage until it hovers. Use a DC-DC converter to get 10 kV across a 5 cm gap (that’s 20 kV/m, enough for small lightweight bits). One can measure the charge on the object via Faraday cup to see how much is needed. Also measure the voltage and gap. Check  $qE \approx mg$ . It should match within factors given inefficiencies (like the object oscillates around equilibrium). *Diamagnetic levitation*: If available, use strong neodymium magnets in a configuration: e.g. opposing poles in a cone shape to create a local field minimum. Try levitating a small graphite piece or bismuth. Or as a simpler test, place pyrolytic graphite above a neodymium magnet array – it will float a few mm (that’s a known demo; pyrolytic graphite has  $\chi \approx -4 \times 10^{-4}$ ). Measure the mass of the graphite and the field gradient (by measuring field at different distances with a Gaussmeter). See if  $\frac{\chi V}{2\mu_0} \nabla B^2 = mg$ . Should roughly hold. *Controls*: For the electrostatic case, try discharging the object or turning off field – it falls (expected). For diamagnetic, try a paramagnetic material of similar mass (like an aluminum piece) – it will not levitate (in fact it will be weakly attracted, falling faster). That contrasts a “universal gravity shield” which would not care about material properties. Also, try two objects at once: in electrostatic case, two bodies might behave oddly because they can induce charges on each other – but no mutual gravitational anomaly. In diamagnetic, multiple pieces each find their own equilibrium spots or push each other out if competing for field center – again, purely electromagnetic interaction. *Observations*: Use a high-speed camera to see stable levitation vs any oscillations. The stability criterion is interesting (for diamagnetism, it’s inherently stable; for electrostatic, often one needs feedback or a stable equilibrium arrangement like a point above a plate with AC). We could use Kelvin’s water dropper: a fun experiment – have dripping water and see them deflect into a bucket due to charges. That qualitatively shows upward forces at play.

By these experiments, we confirm Kelvin’s “anti-gravity” feats were just early examples of using electromagnetic forces to counter gravity. They obey Maxwell’s equations and quantitatively match predictions. There’s no mysterious new force – just clever exploitation of  $F = qE$  and  $F = \nabla(\mathbf{M} \cdot \mathbf{B})$  (force on magnetization).

Visual Aid: *Left*: Electrostatic levitation – a small charged puff (mass  $m$ , charge  $+q$ ) floats between a positive plate above and negative plate below.

The electric field  $\mathbf{E}$  (yellow arrows) exerts an upward force  $qE$  balancing  $mg$ . Field lines concentrate around the object as it alters the capacitance (illustrating coupling). *Right:* Diamagnetic levitation – a piece of pyrolytic graphite (diamagnetic,  $\chi_m < 0$ ) is suspended above a strong magnet. Field lines (blue) bow outward around the diamagnet (it repels fields). The gradient  $\nabla B^2$  is high near the magnet’s surface, and the upward magnetic force (blue arrow) equals  $mg$  down. In both cases, these are force balances within classical EM, not modifications of gravity itself.