

Title: The Everettian Evidential Problem

Date: Sep 23, 2007 02:50 PM

URL: <http://pirsa.org/07090067>

Abstract: Much of the evidence for quantum mechanics is statistical in nature. Close agreement between Born-rule probabilities and observed relative frequencies of results in a series of repeated experiments is taken as evidence that quantum mechanics is getting something --- namely, the probabilities of outcomes of experiments --- at least approximately right. On the Everettian interpretation, however, each possible outcome occurs on some branch of the multiverse, and there is no obvious way to make sense of ascribing probabilities to outcomes of experiments. Thus, the Everett interpretation threatens to undermine much of the evidence we have for quantum mechanics. In this paper, I will argue that the Everettian evidential problem is indeed one that Everettians should take seriously, and explain why, in order to deal with it successfully, it is necessary to go beyond existing approaches, including the Deutsch-Wallace decision-theoretic approach.



The Everettian Evidential Problem

Wayne C. Myrvold

Department of Philosophy
The University of Western Ontario

Many Worlds at 50

Perimeter Institute for Theoretical Physics

Sept. 23, 2007

Theory and Evidence: a common picture



Theory and Evidence: a common picture



- Theories are tested by comparing their observable consequences with the results of observation and/or experiment.

Theory and Evidence: a common picture



- Theories are tested by comparing their observable consequences with the results of observation and/or experiment.
- Two theories compatible with a body of evidence are equally well supported by that evidence.

Theory and Evidence: a common picture



- Theories are tested by comparing their observable consequences with the results of observation and/or experiment.
- Two theories compatible with a body of evidence are equally well supported by that evidence.
- Extra-empirical criteria (explanatoriness, simplicity, elegance, etc.) are used to choose among such equally-well supported theories.

Inadequacy of this picture



Inadequacy of this picture



- Completely inadequate for probabilistic theories.

Inadequacy of this picture



- Completely inadequate for probabilistic theories.
- A homely example:

Inadequacy of this picture



- Completely inadequate for probabilistic theories.
- A homely example:
 - h_1 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of heads.
 - h_2 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of tails.

Inadequacy of this picture



- Completely inadequate for probabilistic theories.
- A homely example:
 - h_1 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of heads.
 - h_2 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of tails.
- Though *any* sequence of outcomes is compatible with both hypotheses, a sequence of tosses in which heads predominate favours h_1 over h_2 .

Inadequacy of this picture



- Completely inadequate for probabilistic theories.
- A homely example:
 - h_1 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of heads.
 - h_2 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of tails.

Inadequacy of this picture



- Completely inadequate for probabilistic theories.
- A homely example:
 - h_1 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of heads.
 - h_2 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of tails.
- Though *any* sequence of outcomes is compatible with both hypotheses, a sequence of tosses in which heads predominate favours h_1 over h_2 .

Towards a more adequate picture



Towards a more adequate picture



- Belief, and confirmation, come in degrees.

Towards a more adequate picture



- Belief, and confirmation, come in degrees.
- Represent degrees of belief of a rational agent by a *credence function* Cr , satisfying axioms of probability.

Towards a more adequate picture



- Belief, and confirmation, come in degrees.
- Represent degrees of belief of a rational agent by a *credence function* Cr , satisfying axioms of probability.
- Upon learning an item of evidence e , update credences by conditionalization:

$$Cr(h) \rightarrow Cr(h|e) = \frac{Cr(e|h)}{Cr(e)} Cr(h).$$

Application to our example



Application to our example

- Suppose we flip the coin and get the result:
HHHTTTHHTHH

Application to our example

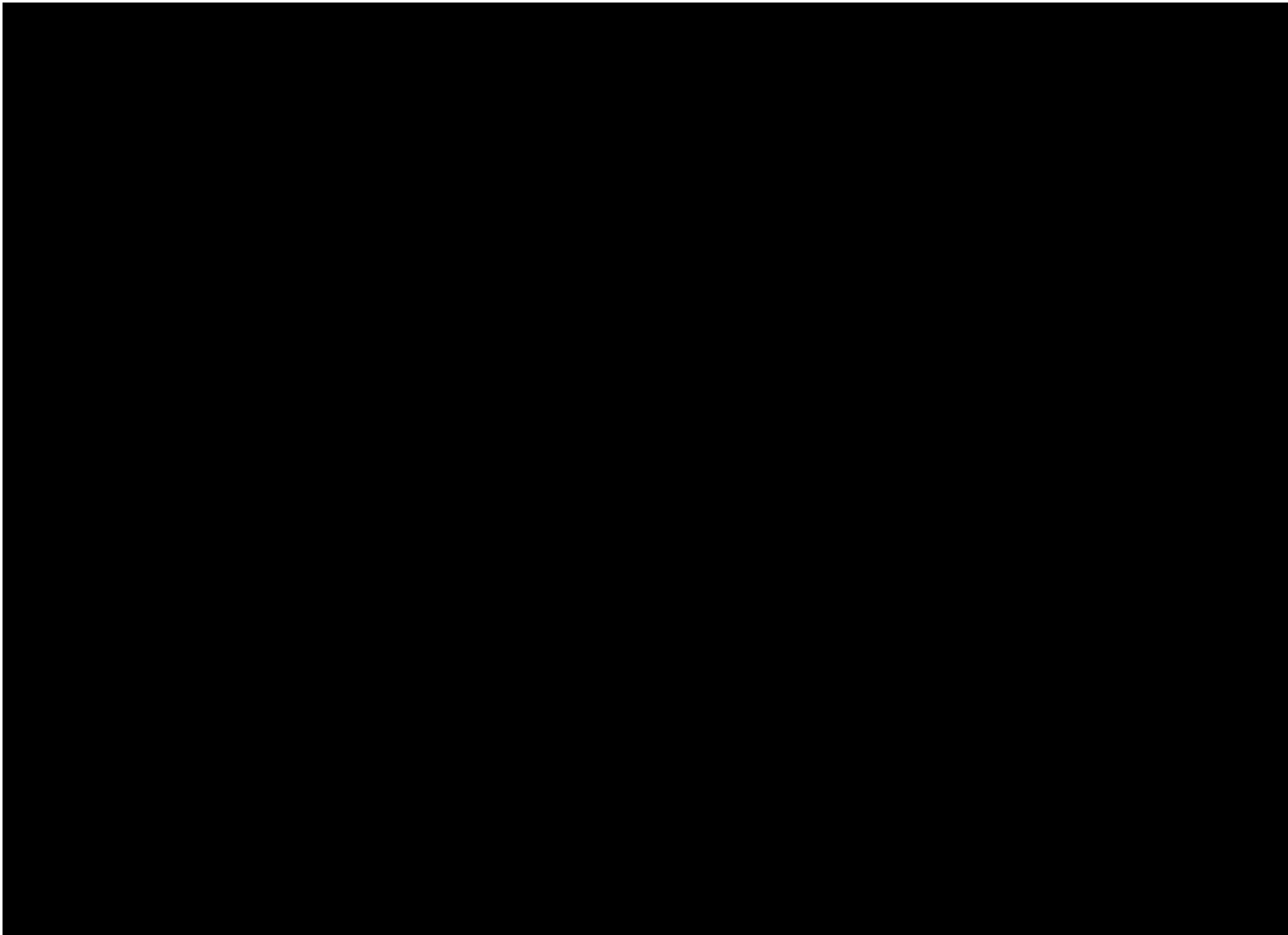
- Suppose we flip the coin and get the result:
HHHTTTHHTHH
- Chance of this result obtaining, if h_1 is true, is higher than the chance of it obtaining if h_2 is true.

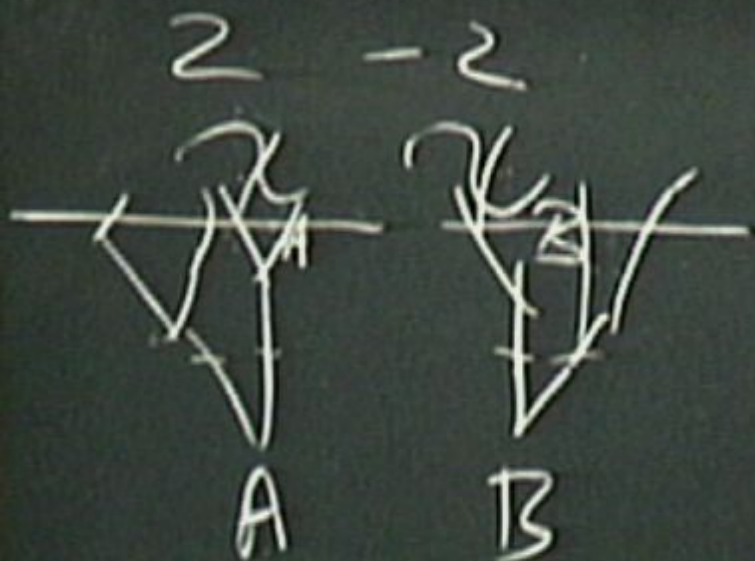
Application to our example

- Suppose we flip the coin and get the result:
HHHTTTHHTHH
- Chance of this result obtaining, if h_1 is true, is higher than the chance of it obtaining if h_2 is true.
- If our credence function satisfies

$$Cr(e|h_i) =_{df} \frac{Cr(e \& h_i)}{Cr(h_i)} = \text{chance of } e, \text{ according to } h_i$$

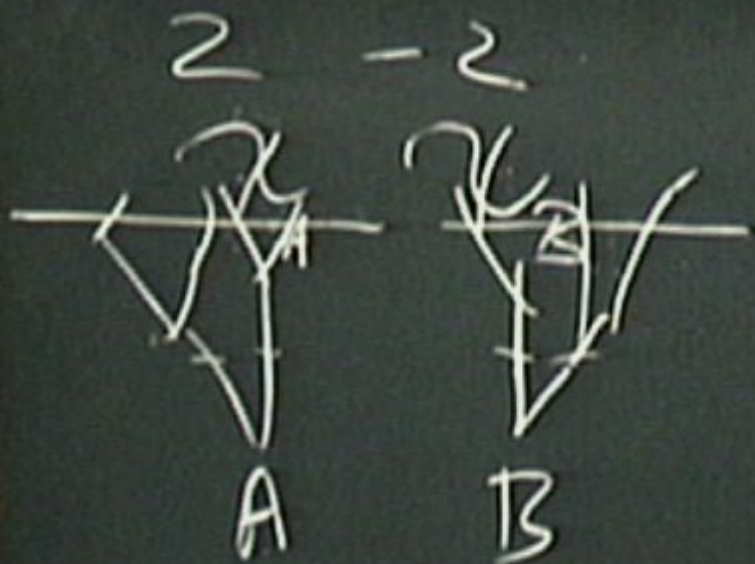
then conditionalizing on e favours h_1 over h_2 .





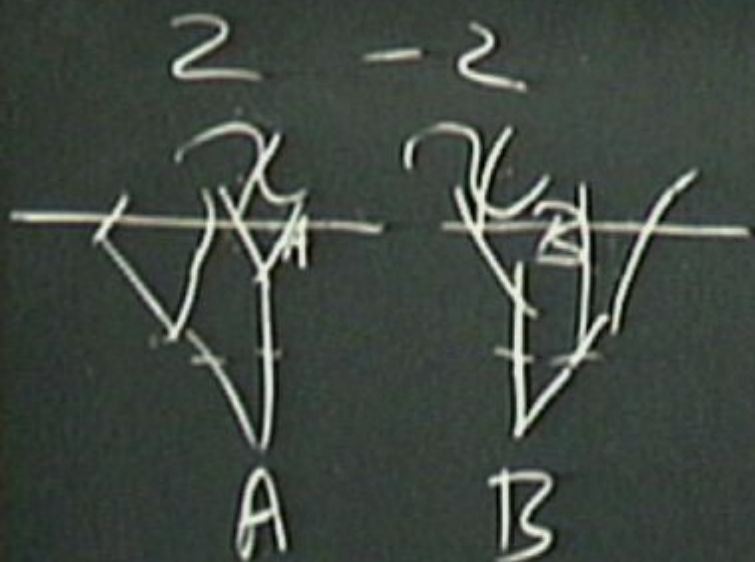
$$\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^3$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^7 \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^3$$



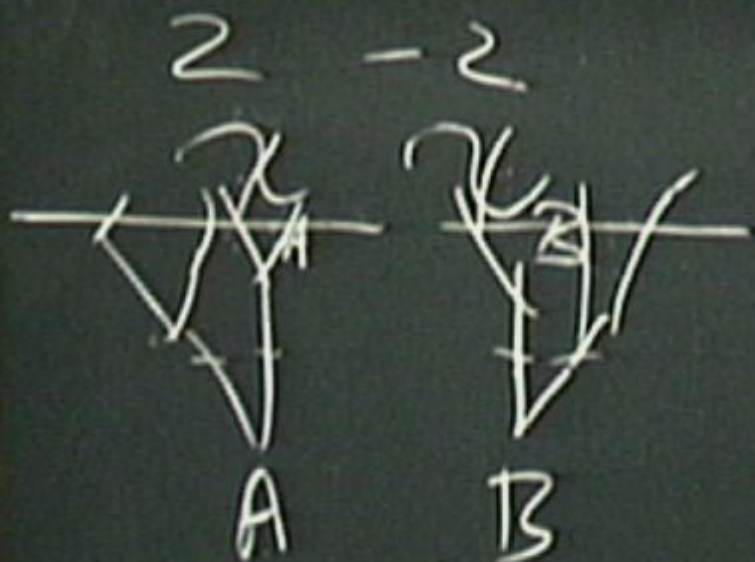
$$\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^3$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^3$$



$$\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^3$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^3$$



$$\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^3$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^3$$

Application to our example

- Suppose we flip the coin and get the result:
HHHTTTHHTHH
- Chance of this result obtaining, if h_1 is true, is higher than the chance of it obtaining if h_2 is true.
- If our credence function satisfies

$$Cr(e|h_i) =_{df} \frac{Cr(e \& h_i)}{Cr(h_i)} = \text{chance of } e, \text{ according to } h_i$$

then conditionalizing on e favours h_1 over h_2 .

Application to our example

- Suppose we flip the coin and get the result:
HHHTTTHH
- Chance of this result obtaining, if h_1 is true, is higher than the chance of it obtaining if h_2 is true.
- If our credence function satisfies

$$Cr(e|h_i) =_{df} \frac{Cr(e \& h_i)}{Cr(h_i)} = \text{chance of } e, \text{ according to } h_i$$

then conditionalizing on e favours h_1 over h_2 .

- (This condition is called the *Principal Principle* by David Lewis.)

Application to our example

- Suppose we flip the coin and get the result:
HHHTTTHHTHH
- Chance of this result obtaining, if h_1 is true, is higher than the chance of it obtaining if h_2 is true.
- If our credence function satisfies

$$Cr(e|h_i) =_{df} \frac{Cr(e \& h_i)}{Cr(h_i)} = \text{chance of } e, \text{ according to } h_i$$

then conditionalizing on e favours h_1 over h_2 .

- (This condition is called the *Principal Principle* by David Lewis.)
- This, of course, generalizes: provided that one's credence function satisfies the PP, conditionalizing on the results of a sequence of repeated experiments

Application to our example

- Suppose we flip the coin and get the result:
HHHTTTHH
- Chance of this result obtaining, if h_1 is true, is higher than the chance of it obtaining if h_2 is true.
- If our credence function satisfies

$$Cr(e|h_i) =_{df} \frac{Cr(e \& h_i)}{Cr(h_i)} = \text{chance of } e, \text{ according to } h_i$$

then conditionalizing on e favours h_1 over h_2 .

- (This condition is called the *Principal Principle* by David Lewis.)

Application to our example

- Suppose we flip the coin and get the result:
HHHTTTHH
- Chance of this result obtaining, if h_1 is true, is higher than the chance of it obtaining if h_2 is true.
- If our credence function satisfies

$$Cr(e|h_i) =_{df} \frac{Cr(e \& h_i)}{Cr(h_i)} = \text{chance of } e, \text{ according to } h_i$$

then conditionalizing on e favours h_1 over h_2 .

- (This condition is called the *Principal Principle* by David Lewis.)
- This, of course, generalizes: provided that one's credence function satisfies the PP, conditionalizing on the results of a sequence of repeated experiments

Application to our example

- Suppose we flip the coin and get the result:
HHHTTTHH
- Chance of this result obtaining, if h_1 is true, is higher than the chance of it obtaining if h_2 is true.
- If our credence function satisfies

$$Cr(e|h_i) =_{df} \frac{Cr(e \& h_i)}{Cr(h_i)} = \text{chance of } e, \text{ according to } h_i$$

then conditionalizing on e favours h_1 over h_2 .

- (This condition is called the *Principal Principle* by David Lewis.)
- This, of course, generalizes: provided that one's credence function satisfies the PP, conditionalizing on the results of a sequence of repeated experiments
 - raises credence in hypotheses that posit chances in close agreement with the observed relative frequencies.

Application to our example

- Suppose we flip the coin and get the result:
HHHTTTHH
- Chance of this result obtaining, if h_1 is true, is higher than the chance of it obtaining if h_2 is true.
- If our credence function satisfies

$$Cr(e|h_i) =_{df} \frac{Cr(e \& h_i)}{Cr(h_i)} = \text{chance of } e, \text{ according to } h_i$$

then conditionalizing on e favours h_1 over h_2 .

- (This condition is called the *Principal Principle* by David Lewis.)
- This, of course, generalizes: provided that one's credence function satisfies the PP, conditionalizing on the results of a sequence of repeated experiments
 - raises credence in hypotheses that posit chances in close agreement with the observed relative frequencies.
 - lowers credence in hypotheses that posit chances far from the observed relative frequencies.

The Principal Principle

- The PP says that my degree of belief in a proposition A should mesh with my beliefs about the chance of A .

$$Cr(A) = \sum_i x_i Cr(ch(A) = x_i).$$

The Principal Principle

- The PP says that my degree of belief in a proposition A should mesh with my beliefs about the chance of A .

$$Cr(A) = \sum_i x_i Cr(ch(A) = x_i).$$

- e.g. If my credence is equally divided between
 - h_1 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of heads.
 - h_2 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of tails.

then my credence in heads should be

$$Cr(H) = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

The Principal Principle

- The PP says that my degree of belief in a proposition A should mesh with my beliefs about the chance of A .

$$Cr(A) = \sum_i x_i Cr(ch(A) = x_i).$$

- e.g. If my credence is equally divided between
 - h_1 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of heads.
 - h_2 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of tails.

then my credence in heads should be

$$Cr(H) = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

- cf. Papineau,

The 'Principal Principle' says that you should match your credences to the objective probabilities.

The Principal Principle

- The PP says that my degree of belief in a proposition A should mesh with my beliefs about the chance of A .

$$Cr(A) = \sum_i x_i Cr(ch(A) = x_i).$$

- e.g. If my credence is equally divided between
 - h_1 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of heads.
 - h_2 : This coin toss is biased 2 to 1 in favour of tails.

then my credence in heads should be

$$Cr(H) = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

- cf. Papineau,

The 'Principal Principle' says that you should match your credences to the objective probabilities.

- (When you know what the objective probabilities are).

Chance, Credence, Frequency



Chance, Credence, Frequency

- Our account involves two things that have been called 'probability':

Chance, Credence, Frequency



- Our account involves two things that have been called 'probability':
 - credence, or degree of belief (of an ideally rational agent)

Chance, Credence, Frequency



- Our account involves two things that have been called 'probability':
 - credence, or degree of belief (of an ideally rational agent)
 - chance, which is associated, not with agents, but with *chance set-ups* such as a coin toss.

Chance, Credence, Frequency



- Our account involves two things that have been called 'probability':
 - credence, or degree of belief (of an ideally rational agent)
 - chance, which is associated, not with agents, but with *chance set-ups* such as a coin toss.
- Chances are the sorts of things one can have degrees of belief about.

Chance, Credence, Frequency



- Our account involves two things that have been called 'probability':
 - credence, or degree of belief (of an ideally rational agent)
 - chance, which is associated, not with agents, but with *chance set-ups* such as a coin toss.
- Chances are the sorts of things one can have degrees of belief about.
- To take these as rival 'interpretations of probability' can only obscure matters.

Chance, Credence, Frequency



- Our account involves two things that have been called 'probability':
 - credence, or degree of belief (of an ideally rational agent)
 - chance, which is associated, not with agents, but with *chance set-ups* such as a coin toss.
- Chances are the sorts of things one can have degrees of belief about.
- To take these as rival 'interpretations of probability' can only obscure matters.
- Relative frequency plays a role: relative frequencies in sequences of repeated experiments provide evidence that is used to revise credences about chances.

Chance, Credence, Frequency



- Our account involves two things that have been called ‘probability’:
 - credence, or degree of belief (of an ideally rational agent)
 - chance, which is associated, not with agents, but with *chance set-ups* such as a coin toss.
- Chances are the sorts of things one can have degrees of belief about.
- To take these as rival ‘interpretations of probability’ can only obscure matters.
- Relative frequency plays a role: relative frequencies in sequences of repeated experiments provide evidence that is used to revise credences about chances.
- We should resist temptation to recast probabilistic inferences in a quasi-deductivist vein, say, by adding an extra assumption, such as “Assume your data are typical.”

Evidence for QM



- On the usual interpretation, from QM we can calculate, via the Born rule, chances of outcomes of experiments.

Evidence for QM



- On the usual interpretation, from QM we can calculate, via the Born rule, chances of outcomes of experiments.
- We can use relative frequency data to estimate chances of experimental outcomes, independently of any physical theory about the numerical values of those chances.

Evidence for QM



- On the usual interpretation, from QM we can calculate, via the Born rule, chances of outcomes of experiments.
- We can use relative frequency data to estimate chances of experimental outcomes, independently of any physical theory about the numerical values of those chances.
- Much of the evidence we have for quantum mechanics is of this sort: evidence that the Born-rule chances are at least approximately correct.

The Everett Interpretation



The Everett Interpretation



- When an experiment is performed, the universe branches, with every outcome with nonzero amplitude realized on some branch.

The Everett Interpretation



- When an experiment is performed, the universe branches, with every outcome with nonzero amplitude realized on some branch.
- No *obvious* sense in which I can have degrees of belief that, say, spin-up will be *the* result.

The Everett Interpretation



- When an experiment is performed, the universe branches, with every outcome with nonzero amplitude realized on some branch.
- No *obvious* sense in which I can have degrees of belief that, say, spin-up will be *the* result.
- No obvious sense in which I can talk about the chances of outcomes.

So who needs probabilities, anyway?



So who needs probabilities, anyway?



- An Everettian can paint a coherent world-picture in which nothing like chances of outcomes of experiments occurs.

So who needs probabilities, anyway?



- An Everettian can paint a coherent world-picture in which nothing like chances of outcomes of experiments occurs.
- The worry: Inability to make sense of statistical data providing support for QM.

So who needs probabilities, anyway?



- An Everettian can paint a coherent world-picture in which nothing like chances of outcomes of experiments occurs.
- The worry: Inability to make sense of statistical data providing support for QM.
- This is the *Everettian Evidential Problem*.

Deutsch and Decision Theory



Deutsch and Decision Theory



- David Deutsch argued: a rational agent who believes in [Everettian] QM will act *as if* she is maximizing expected utility, with Born rule weights acting like probabilities.

Deutsch and Decision Theory



- David Deutsch argued: a rational agent who believes in [Everettian] QM will act *as if* she is maximizing expected utility, with Born rule weights acting like probabilities.
- This is either
 - A substitute for probability-talk, in an Everettian context, or

Deutsch and Decision Theory



- David Deutsch argued: a rational agent who believes in [Everettian] QM will act *as if* she is maximizing expected utility, with Born rule weights acting like probabilities.
- This is either
 - A substitute for probability-talk, in an Everettian context, or
 - A way of making sense of probability, in an Everettian context.

Does this solve (or dissolve) the Everettian Evidential Problem?



Does this solve (or dissolve) the Everettian Evidential Problem?



- ① Link needed between decision theory and confirmation.

Does this solve (or dissolve) the Everettian Evidential Problem?



- ① Link needed between decision theory and confirmation.
 - This can be done!
- ② Deutsch-Wallace arguments conclude: *a rational agent who is convinced of Everettian quantum mechanics will maximize expected utility, weighted by Born-rule weights.*

Does this solve (or dissolve) the Everettian Evidential Problem?



- ① Link needed between decision theory and confirmation.
 - This can be done!
- ② Deutsch-Wallace arguments conclude: *a rational agent who is convinced of Everettian quantum mechanics will maximize expected utility, weighted by Born-rule weights.*
 - Principles of Rationality + Substantive physical assumption \Rightarrow Born-rule decisions

Does this solve (or dissolve) the Everettian Evidential Problem?



- ① Link needed between decision theory and confirmation.
 - This can be done!
- ② Deutsch-Wallace arguments conclude: *a rational agent who is convinced of Everettian quantum mechanics will maximize expected utility, weighted by Born-rule weights.*
 - Principles of Rationality + Substantive physical assumption \Rightarrow Born-rule decisions
 - Principles of Rationality alone won't do; it is not irrational to entertain theories with probabilities that differ from Born rule probs.

The substantive assumption



- In Wallace's version:
Equivalence. Outcomes with equal Born-rule weights have equal probability.

The substantive assumption



The substantive assumption



- In Wallace's version:
Equivalence. Outcomes with equal Born-rule weights have equal probability.

The substantive assumption



- In Wallace's version:
Equivalence. Outcomes with equal Born-rule weights have equal probability.
- Why accept this?

The substantive assumption



- In Wallace's version:
Equivalence. Outcomes with equal Born-rule weights have equal probability.
- Why accept this?
- Is this an empirically testable assumption?

The substantive assumption



- In Wallace's version:
Equivalence. Outcomes with equal Born-rule weights have equal probability.
- Why accept this?
- Is this an empirically testable assumption?
- Need: an evidential link between frequencies and Born-rule branch weights, that does not depend on an argument that takes Everettian QM for granted.





- Suppose we needed a DW argument in order to have our relative frequency data count as confirming a theory that posits Born-rule branch weights. Then the best we could hope for is:

An agent who accepts Everettian QM will act as if she takes the statistical evidence to support QM.



- Suppose we needed a DW argument in order to have our relative frequency data count as confirming a theory that posits Born-rule branch weights. Then the best we could hope for is:

An agent who accepts Everettian QM will act as if she takes the statistical evidence to support QM.

- The picture that we seem to be stuck with:



- Suppose we needed a DW argument in order to have our relative frequency data count as confirming a theory that posits Born-rule branch weights. Then the best we could hope for is:

An agent who accepts Everettian QM will act as if she takes the statistical evidence to support QM.

- The picture that we seem to be stuck with:
 - Someone can come to accept Everettian QM only through a process of conversion.



- Suppose we needed a DW argument in order to have our relative frequency data count as confirming a theory that posits Born-rule branch weights. Then the best we could hope for is:

An agent who accepts Everettian QM will act as if she takes the statistical evidence to support QM.

- The picture that we seem to be stuck with:
 - Someone can come to accept Everettian QM only through a process of conversion.
 - Along with acceptance of the theory comes standards of confirmation on which the statistical evidence counts in favour of the theory.



- Suppose we needed a DW argument in order to have our relative frequency data count as confirming a theory that posits Born-rule branch weights. Then the best we could hope for is:

An agent who accepts Everettian QM will act as if she takes the statistical evidence to support QM.

- The picture that we seem to be stuck with:
 - Someone can come to accept Everettian QM only through a process of conversion.
 - Along with acceptance of the theory comes standards of confirmation on which the statistical evidence counts in favour of the theory.
 - Someone who does *not* accept Everettian quantum mechanics is not obliged to regard this evidence as confirmatory for Everettian QM.

Reductio ad Kuhn



- Suppose we needed a DW argument in order to have our relative frequency data count as confirming a theory that posits Born-rule branch weights. Then the best we could hope for is:

An agent who accepts Everettian QM will act as if she takes the statistical evidence to support QM.

- The picture that we seem to be stuck with:
 - Someone can come to accept Everettian QM only through a process of conversion.
 - Along with acceptance of the theory comes standards of confirmation on which the statistical evidence counts in favour of the theory.
 - Someone who does *not* accept Everettian quantum mechanics is not obliged to regard this evidence as confirmatory for Everettian QM.

The Sirens' Song



The Sirens' Song



- In Bayes' theorem,

$$Cr(h|e) = \frac{Cr(e|h)}{Cr(e)} Cr(h),$$

we're tempted to interpret $Cr(e|h)$ as meaning:
the credence I would have in e if I were to accept h.

The Sirens' Song



- In Bayes' theorem,

$$Cr(h|e) = \frac{Cr(e|h)}{Cr(e)} Cr(h),$$

we're tempted to interpret $Cr(e|h)$ as meaning:
the credence I would have in e if I were to accept h .

- It will be equal to this only if I can come to accept h via some process that leaves $Cr(e|h)$ unchanged.

The Sirens' Song



- In Bayes' theorem,

$$Cr(h|e) = \frac{Cr(e|h)}{Cr(e)} Cr(h),$$

we're tempted to interpret $Cr(e|h)$ as meaning:
the credence I would have in e if I were to accept h .

- It will be equal to this only if I can come to accept h via some process that leaves $Cr(e|h)$ unchanged.
- This is not satisfied by a sudden conversion!

A Riposte



The Sirens' Song



- In Bayes' theorem,

$$Cr(h|e) = \frac{Cr(e|h)}{Cr(e)} Cr(h),$$

we're tempted to interpret $Cr(e|h)$ as meaning:
the credence I would have in e if I were to accept h .

- It will be equal to this only if I can come to accept h via some process that leaves $Cr(e|h)$ unchanged.
- This is not satisfied by a sudden conversion!

A Riposte



A Riposte



- General:
Probability is an obscure and mysterious concept; the
Everettian is no worse off than the non-Everettian.

A Riposte



- General:
Probability is an obscure and mysterious concept; the Everettian is no worse off than the non-Everettian.
- Specific:
Orthodoxy adopts an undefended Principal Principle; the Everettian can adopt a parallel undefended principle regarding branch weights.

Is Probability mysterious?



Is Probability mysterious?



- Two sources of confusion:

Is Probability mysterious?



- Two sources of confusion:
 - Taking probability to be unambiguous, and assuming that we have to choose one sense to fit all uses of the word.

Is Probability mysterious?



- Two sources of confusion:
 - Taking probability to be unambiguous, and assuming that we have to choose one sense to fit all uses of the word.
 - Identification of the objective sense of probability with a frequency concept.

Is the Principal Principle mysterious?



Is the Principal Principle mysterious?



- Consider an analogous problem: How to justify the rule to maximize expected utility?

Is the Principal Principle mysterious?



- Consider an analogous problem: How to justify the rule to maximize expected utility?
- Savage's approach

Is the Principal Principle mysterious?



- Consider an analogous problem: How to justify the rule to maximize expected utility?
- Savage's approach
 - Impose rationality constraints on preferences between wagers.
 - Prove a representation theorem: an agent whose preferences satisfy the Savage axioms acts as if she is maximizing expected utilities.
 - It is only via this representation that we ascribe credences and utilities to our agent, and we do so in such a way that the condition of maximizing expected utility is automatically satisfied.

De Finetti and chances



De Finetti and chances

- In a similar way, we can uncover implicit beliefs about chances in an agent's credences.

De Finetti and chances



De Finetti and chances

- In a similar way, we can uncover implicit beliefs about chances in an agent's credences.

De Finetti and chances

- In a similar way, we can uncover implicit beliefs about chances in an agent's credences.
- An agent treats a sequence of experiments as *exchangeable* if permutation of the sequence of results does not change the credence.

De Finetti and chances

- In a similar way, we can uncover implicit beliefs about chances in an agent's credences.
- An agent treats a sequence of experiments as *exchangeable* if permutation of the sequence of results does not change the credence.
- e.g. HHHTTTHHTHH and HHTHTHHTHH are equiprobable.

De Finetti and chances

- In a similar way, we can uncover implicit beliefs about chances in an agent's credences.
- An agent treats a sequence of experiments as *exchangeable* if permutation of the sequence of results does not change the credence.
- e.g. HHHTTTHHTHH and HHTHTHHTHH are equiprobable.
- De Finetti proved: if an agent's credences make an indefinitely extendible sequence exchangeable, then they can be represented as a mixture of credences on which the experiments have independent, identical probability distributions.

De Finetti and chances

- In a similar way, we can uncover implicit beliefs about chances in an agent's credences.
- An agent treats a sequence of experiments as *exchangeable* if permutation of the sequence of results does not change the credence.
- e.g. HHHTTTHHTHH and HHTHTHHTHH are equiprobable.
- De Finetti proved: if an agent's credences make an indefinitely extendible sequence exchangeable, then they can be represented as a mixture of credences on which the experiments have independent, identical probability distributions.
- That is, the credences are as if the agent believes that each toss has the same chance, whose value may be unknown to the agent, and the agent's credences about these chances mesh with her credences about outcomes in the way prescribed by the Principal Principle.

De Finetti and chances

- In a similar way, we can uncover implicit beliefs about chances in an agent's credences.
- An agent treats a sequence of experiments as *exchangeable* if permutation of the sequence of results does not change the credence.
- e.g. HHHTTTHHTHH and HHTHTHHTHH are equiprobable.
- De Finetti proved: if an agent's credences make an indefinitely extendible sequence exchangeable, then they can be represented as a mixture of credences on which the experiments have independent, identical probability distributions.
- That is, the credences are as if the agent believes that each toss has the same chance, whose value may be unknown to the agent, and the agent's credences about these chances mesh with her credences about outcomes in the way prescribed by the Principal Principle.
- Combined with Savage Thm, this is a representation of your preferences as maximizing your *epistemic expectation* of the

De Finetti and chances

- In a similar way, we can uncover implicit beliefs about chances in an agent's credences.
- An agent treats a sequence of experiments as *exchangeable* if permutation of the sequence of results does not change the credence.
- e.g. HHHTTTHHTHH and HHTHTHHTHH are equiprobable.
- De Finetti proved: if an agent's credences make an indefinitely extendible sequence exchangeable, then they can be represented as a mixture of credences on which the experiments have independent, identical probability distributions.
- That is, the credences are as if the agent believes that each toss has the same chance, whose value may be unknown to the agent, and the agent's credences about these chances mesh with her credences about outcomes in the way prescribed by the Principal Principle.
- Combined with Savage Thm, this is a representation of your preferences as maximizing your *epistemic expectation* of the

Deterministic Chances



- Even in a deterministic theory, there *might* be a limit to the information about the initial state that is accessible to agents placing bets.
- My credences will be mixtures of probability functions that are invariant under conditionalization on all *accessible* information.
- These probability functions will play the role of objective chance.

Lewis on Chances



Like it or not, we have this concept. We think that a coin about to be tossed has a certain chance of falling heads, or that a radioactive atom has a certain chance of decaying within the year, quite regardless of what anyone may believe about it and quite regardless of whether there are any other similar coins or atoms. As philosophers we may well find the concept of objective chance troublesome, but that is no excuse to deny its existence, its legitimacy, or its indispensability.

Deterministic Chances



- Even in a deterministic theory, there *might* be a limit to the information about the initial state that is accessible to agents placing bets.
- My credences will be mixtures of probability functions that are invariant under conditionalization on all *accessible* information.
- These probability functions will play the role of objective chance.

Lewis on Chances



Like it or not, we have this concept. We think that a coin about to be tossed has a certain chance of falling heads, or that a radioactive atom has a certain chance of decaying within the year, quite regardless of what anyone may believe about it and quite regardless of whether there are any other similar coins or atoms. As philosophers we may well find the concept of objective chance troublesome, but that is no excuse to deny its existence, its legitimacy, or its indispensability.

In conclusion



- The Evidential Problem is one that Everettians should take seriously.
- What is needed: either a way of making sense of probability in an Everettian multiverse, or a surrogate for probability-talk, on which observed relative frequencies that closely match Born-rule chances still counts as evidence in favour of the theory, achieved in a way that does not presuppose the correctness of QM.
- Without this, the threat looms that the Everett interpretation will be empirically self-undermining: it will cut away much of the reason we have for taking quantum mechanics seriously in the first place.

No Signal

VGA-1

No Signal

VGA-1

No Signal

VGA-1

