

Title: Subjective Probability and Many Worlds

Date: Sep 22, 2007 10:00 AM

URL: <http://pirsa.org/07090072>

Abstract: Probability is often regarded as a problem for the many-worlds interpretation: if all branches of the splitting wavefunction are equally real, what sense does it make to say that the branches have different probabilities? In the decision-theoretic approach due to Deutsch and Wallace, probabilities acquire a meaning through the preferences of a rational agent. This talk reviews the decision-theoretic approach to probability in classical physics and quantum mechanics and shows that its application to the many-world interpretation creates a new difficulty for the latter.

Subjective probability and many worlds

Rüdiger Schack

Royal Holloway, University of London

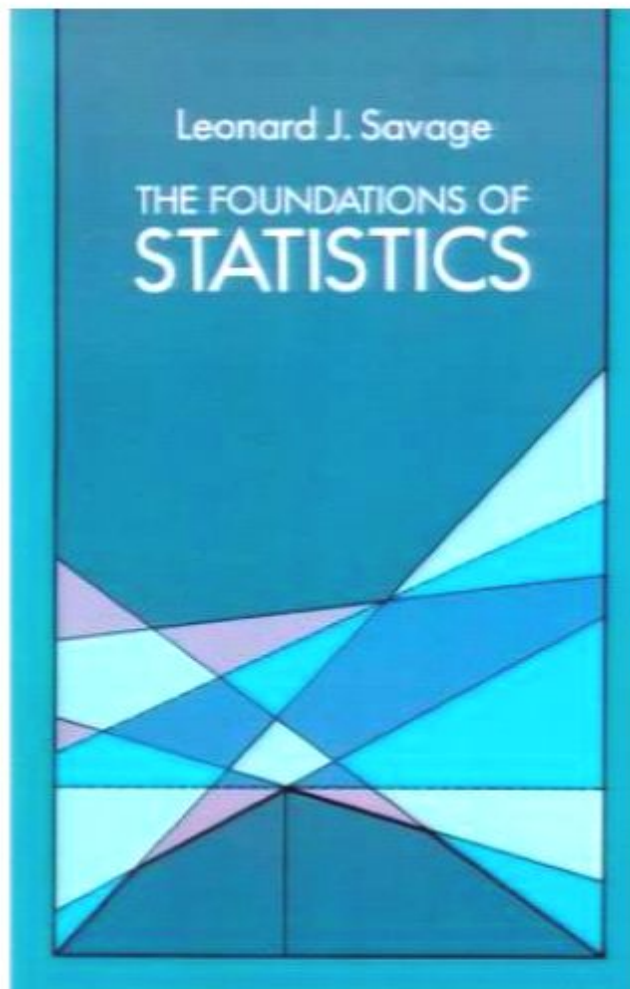
Decision theory and Everett

Deutsch (1999)

Barnum, Caves, Finkelstein, Fuchs, RS (1999)

Wallace (2002,2003,2004)

Decisions, acts, and consequences



Buy or Sell?

Worth \$1 if E is true

ticket price $\$q$

Buy or Sell?

Worth \$1 if E is true

ticket price $\$q$

Operational definition of probability:

A assigns $\Pr(E) = q$ to the event E



A regards $\$q$ as the **fair price** for the ticket.

Dutch book coherence

A 's probability assignments (i.e., ticket valuations) are **incoherent** if they can lead to a sure loss.

Coherence alone implies

- (i) $\Pr \geq 0$
- (ii) $\Pr(E) = 1$ if A believes that E is certain to occur.
- (iii) $\Pr(E \vee F) = \Pr(E) + \Pr(F)$ if A believes that E and F are mutually exclusive.
- (iv) $\Pr(E \wedge F) = \Pr(E|F) \Pr(F)$

Single trial versus long run

The usual argument: If A does not obey the probability rules, she will lose **in the long run**.

The **Dutch book** argument: If A does not obey the probability rules, she will lose **here and now**.

Rule (i)

(i) $P \geq 0$

Worth \$1 if E is true

fair price $\$q < 0$

A is willing to sell the ticket for a negative amount of money. Sure loss!

Rule (ii)

(ii) $P(E) = 1$ if A believes that E is certain to occur.

Worth \$1 if E is true

fair price $\$q < \1

A is willing to sell a ticket—which is definitely worth \$1 to her—for less than \$1. Sure loss!

Rule (iii)

(iii) $P(E \vee F) = P(E) + P(F)$ if A believes that E and F are mutually exclusive.

Let $H = E \vee F$, $E \wedge F = \emptyset$.

Worth \$1 if H is true

fair price $\$q$

Worth \$1 if E is true

fair price $\$r$

Worth \$1 if F is true

fair price $\$s$

E.g., A would buy the blue ticket for $\$q$ and sell the red tickets for $\$r + \s . If $q > r + s$, sure loss!.

Rule (ii)

(ii) $P(E) = 1$ if A believes that E is certain to occur.

Worth \$1 if E is true

fair price $\$q < \1

A is willing to sell a ticket—which is definitely worth \$1 to her—for less than \$1. Sure loss!

Rule (iii)

(iii) $P(E \vee F) = P(E) + P(F)$ if A believes that E and F are mutually exclusive.

Let $H = E \vee F$, $E \wedge F = \emptyset$.

Worth \$1 if H is true

fair price $\$q$

Worth \$1 if E is true

fair price $\$r$

Worth \$1 if F is true

fair price $\$s$

E.g., A would buy the blue ticket for $\$q$ and sell the red tickets for $\$r + \s . If $q > r + s$, sure loss!.

Rule (iv)

$$(iv) \quad P(E \wedge F) = P(E|F)P(F)$$

Worth \$1 if $E \wedge F$

Worth $\$P(E|F)$ if $\neg F$

price $\$P(E|F)$

Worth \$1 if $E \wedge F$

price $\$P(E \wedge F)$

Rule (iv)

$$(iv) \quad P(E \wedge F) = P(E|F)P(F)$$

Worth \$1 if $E \wedge F$ Worth $\$P(E F)$ if $\neg F$	price $\$P(E F)$
---	------------------

Rule (iv)

$$(iv) \quad P(E \wedge F) = P(E|F)P(F)$$

Worth \$1 if $E \wedge F$

Worth $\$P(E|F)$ if $\neg F$

price $\$P(E|F)$

Worth \$1 if $E \wedge F$

price $\$P(E \wedge F)$

Rule (iv)

$$(iv) \quad P(E \wedge F) = P(E|F)P(F)$$

Worth \$1 if $E \wedge F$

Worth $\$P(E|F)$ if $\neg F$

price $\$P(E|F)$

Worth \$1 if $E \wedge F$

price $\$P(E \wedge F)$

Worth $\$P(E|F)$ if $\neg F$

price $\$P(E|F)P(\neg F)$

Rule (iv)

$$(iv) \quad P(E \wedge F) = P(E|F)P(F)$$

Worth \$1 if $E \wedge F$

Worth $\$P(E|F)$ if $\neg F$

price $\$P(E|F)$

Worth \$1 if $E \wedge F$

price $\$P(E \wedge F)$

Worth $\$P(E|F)$ if $\neg F$

price $\$P(E|F)P(\neg F)$

Coherence implies

$$\$P(E|F) = \$P(E \wedge F) + P(E|F)P(\neg F)$$

Rule (iv) follows using $P(\neg F) = 1 - P(F)$.

Dutch book in many worlds

Buy (or sell) **now**.

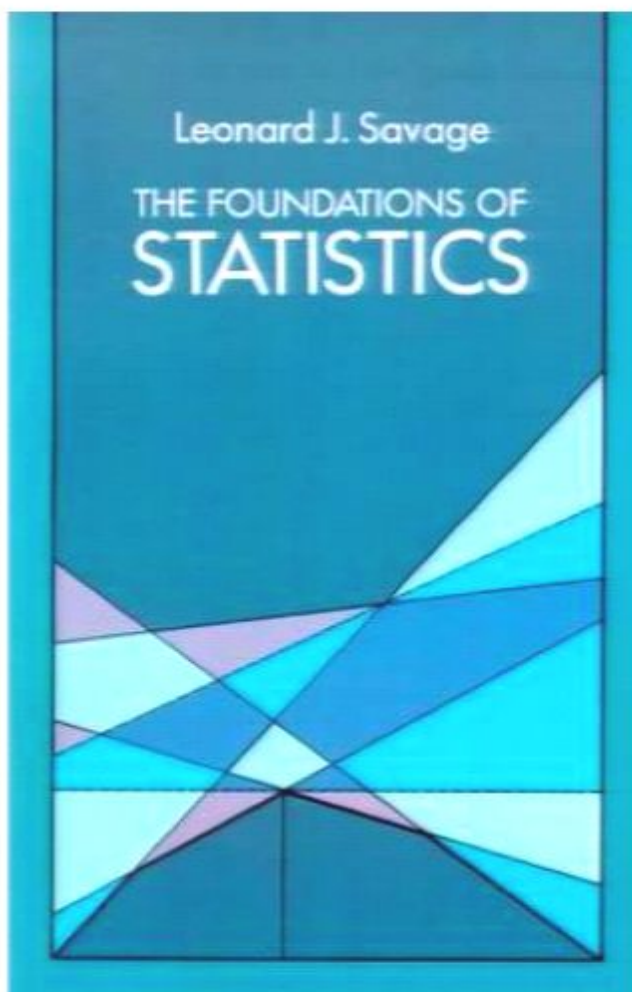
Branch 1: payoff₁

Branch 2: payoff₂

Branch 3: payoff₃

Coherence: at least one payoff is non-negative.

Probabilities as subjective degrees of belief



Dutch book in many worlds

Buy (or sell) **now**.

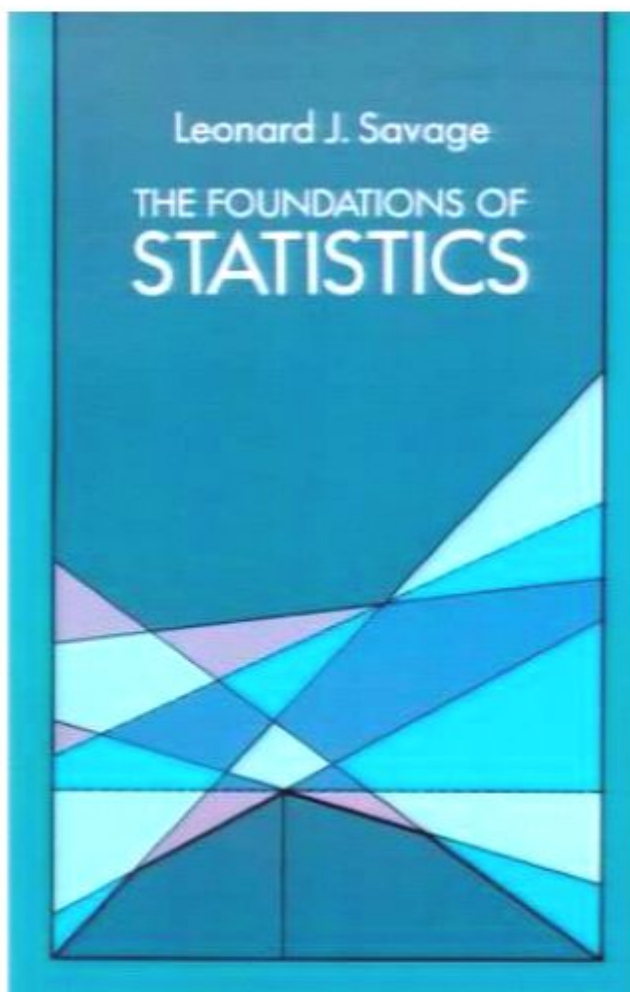
Branch 1: payoff₁

Branch 2: payoff₂

Branch 3: payoff₃

Coherence: at least one payoff is non-negative.

Probabilities as subjective degrees of belief

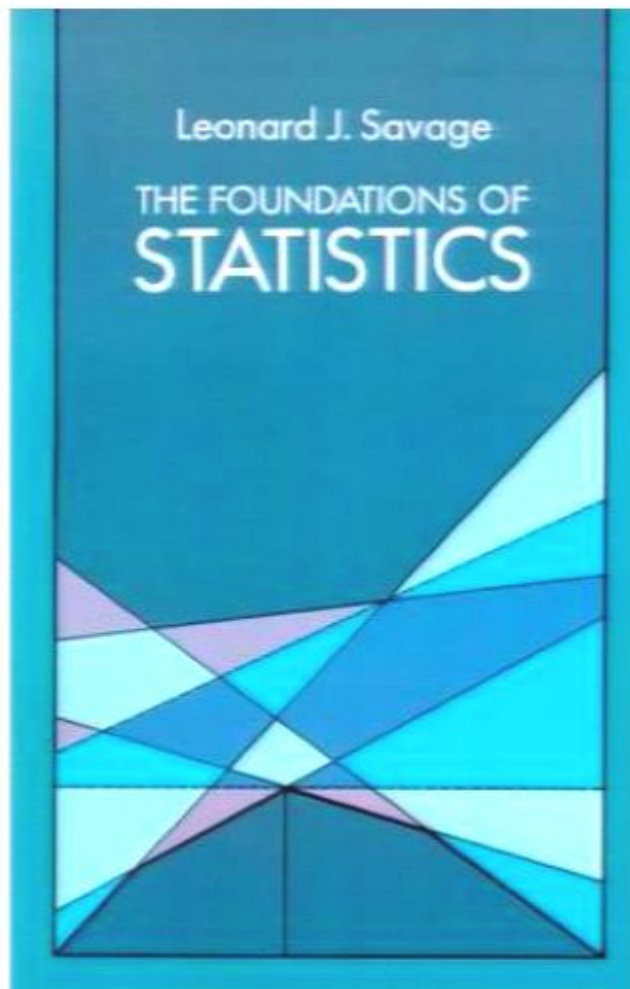


Connection to frequency

Let $x_k \in \{0, 1\}$ be binary random variables.

$p^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$ form an **exchangeable sequence** if

Probabilities as subjective degrees of belief



Connection to frequency

Let $x_k \in \{0, 1\}$ be binary random variables.

$p^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$ form an **exchangeable sequence** if

Connection to frequency

Let $x_k \in \{0, 1\}$ be binary random variables.

$p^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$ form an **exchangeable sequence** if

(i) (**symmetry**) $p^{(n)}$ is permutation invariant;

Connection to frequency

Let $x_k \in \{0, 1\}$ be binary random variables.

$p^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$ form an **exchangeable sequence** if

- (i) (**symmetry**) $p^{(n)}$ is permutation invariant;
- (ii) (**extendibility**) $p^{(n)}$ is the marginal of $p^{(n+1)}$.

Connection to frequency

Let $x_k \in \{0, 1\}$ be binary random variables.

$p^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$ form an **exchangeable sequence** if

- (i) (**symmetry**) $p^{(n)}$ is permutation invariant;
- (ii) (**extendibility**) $p^{(n)}$ is the marginal of $p^{(n+1)}$.

For given N , we say that $p^{(N)}(x_1, \dots, x_N)$ is **exchangeable** if it is part of an exchangeable sequence.

De Finetti's representation theorem (binary case)

$p^{(N)}(x_1, \dots, x_N)$ is exchangeable

if and only if

$$p^{(N)}(x_1, \dots, x_N) = \int_0^1 P(q) dq q^k (1 - q)^{N-k}$$

where k is the number of zeroes in (x_1, \dots, x_N) .

De Finetti's representation theorem (binary case)

$p^{(N)}(x_1, \dots, x_N)$ is exchangeable

if and only if

$$p^{(N)}(x_1, \dots, x_N) = \int_0^1 P(q) dq q^k (1 - q)^{N-k}$$

where k is the number of zeroes in (x_1, \dots, x_N) .

Teaching elementary probability

Question: Find the probability that, in a family with two children, exactly one child is a boy.

Teaching elementary probability

Question: Find the probability that, in a family with two children, exactly one child is a boy.

Answer: $1/3$.

Proof: There are three possibilities:
(0) no boys, (1) one boy, (2) two boys.

Teaching elementary probability

Question: Find the probability that, in a family with two children, exactly one child is a boy.

Answer: $1/3$.

Proof: There are three possibilities:
(0) no boys, (1) one boy, (2) two boys.

They are equally likely: $\Pr(0) = \Pr(1) = \Pr(2)$

Teaching elementary probability

Question: Find the probability that, in a family with two children, exactly one child is a boy.

Answer: $1/3$.

Proof: There are three possibilities:

(0) no boys, (1) one boy, (2) two boys.

They are equally likely: $\Pr(0) = \Pr(1) = \Pr(2)$

They are exhaustive: $\Pr(0) + \Pr(1) + \Pr(2) = 1$

Teaching elementary probability

Question: Find the probability that, in a family with two children, exactly one child is a boy.

Answer: $1/3$.

Proof: There are three possibilities:
(0) no boys, (1) one boy, (2) two boys.

They are equally likely: $\Pr(0) = \Pr(1) = \Pr(2)$

They are exhaustive: $\Pr(0) + \Pr(1) + \Pr(2) = 1$

Hence $\Pr(1) = 1/3$.

Teaching elementary probability

The conventional reply: There **really** are four possibilities:

- (0) no boys: GG
- (1) one boy: GB or BG
- (2) two boys: BB

Teaching elementary probability

The conventional reply: There **really** are four possibilities:

- (0) no boys: GG
- (1) one boy: GB or BG
- (2) two boys: BB

They are equally likely:

$$\Pr(GG) = \Pr(GB) = \Pr(BG) = \Pr(BB)$$

They are exhaustive:

$$\Pr(GG) + \Pr(GB) + \Pr(BG) + \Pr(BB) = 1$$

Hence

$$\Pr(\text{1 boy}) = \Pr(GB) + \Pr(BG) = 1/4 + 1/4 = 1/2$$

Teaching elementary probability

Both are correct!

They just start from different prior probabilities

$$(1) \Pr(0 \text{ boys}) = \Pr(1 \text{ boys}) = \Pr(2 \text{ boys}) = 1/3$$

$$(2) \Pr(GG) = \Pr(GB) = \Pr(BG) = \Pr(BB) = 1/4$$

Empiricist approach

There are 2,588,192 two-children families in the UK. Of these, 1,270,110 have exactly one boy.

$$\text{Thus } \Pr(\text{one boy}) = \frac{1,270,110}{2,588,192} = 49.07\%.$$

Empiricist approach

There are 2,588,192 two-children families in the UK. Of these, 1,270,110 have exactly one boy.

$$\text{Thus } \Pr(\text{one boy}) = \frac{1,270,110}{2,588,192} = 49.07\%.$$

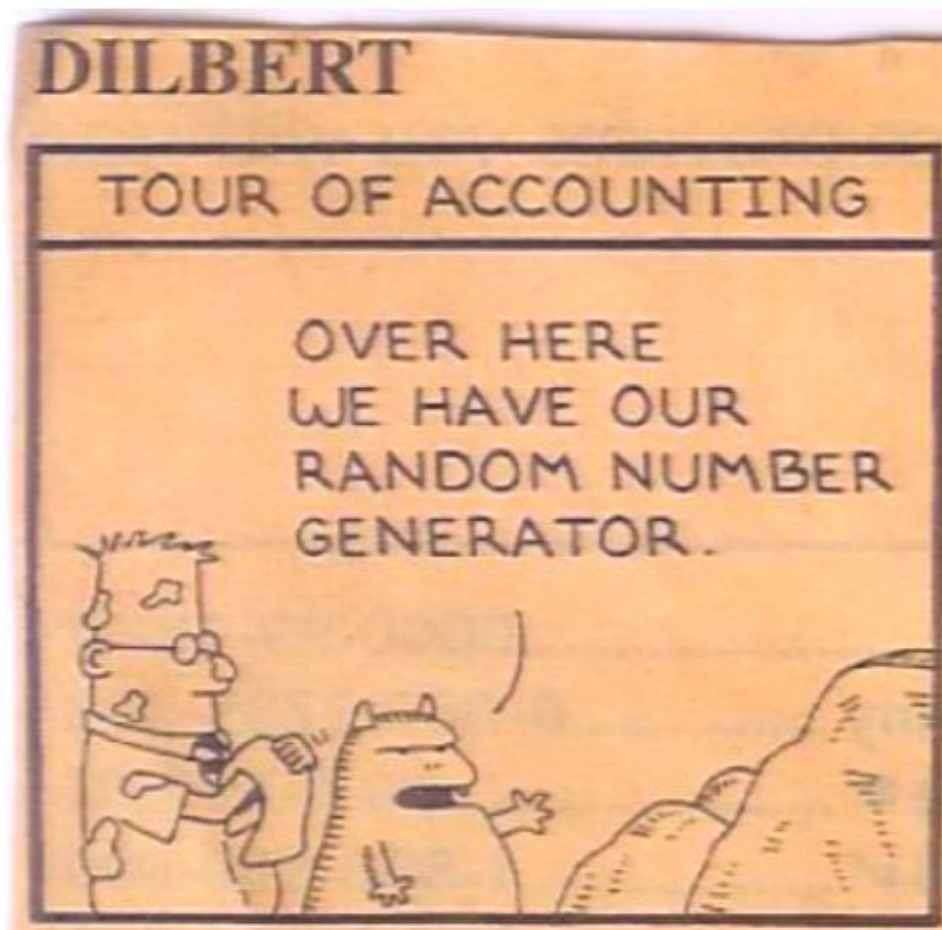
Correct only when we select a family **at random** from all two-children families.

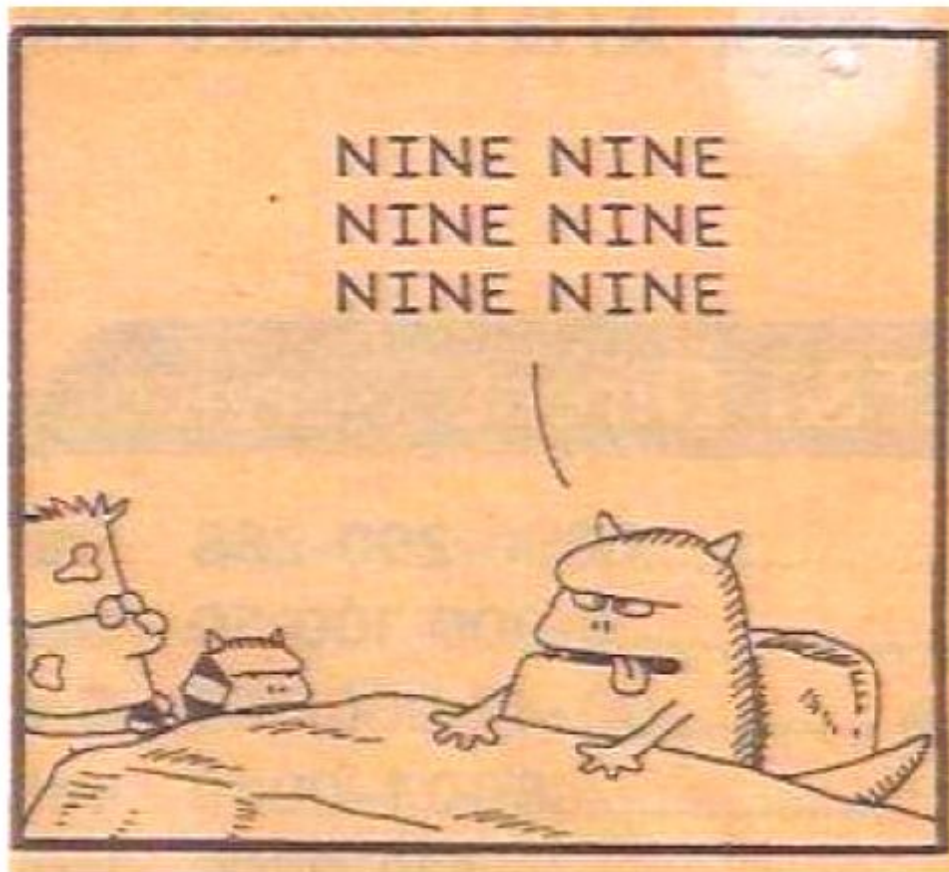
Empiricist approach

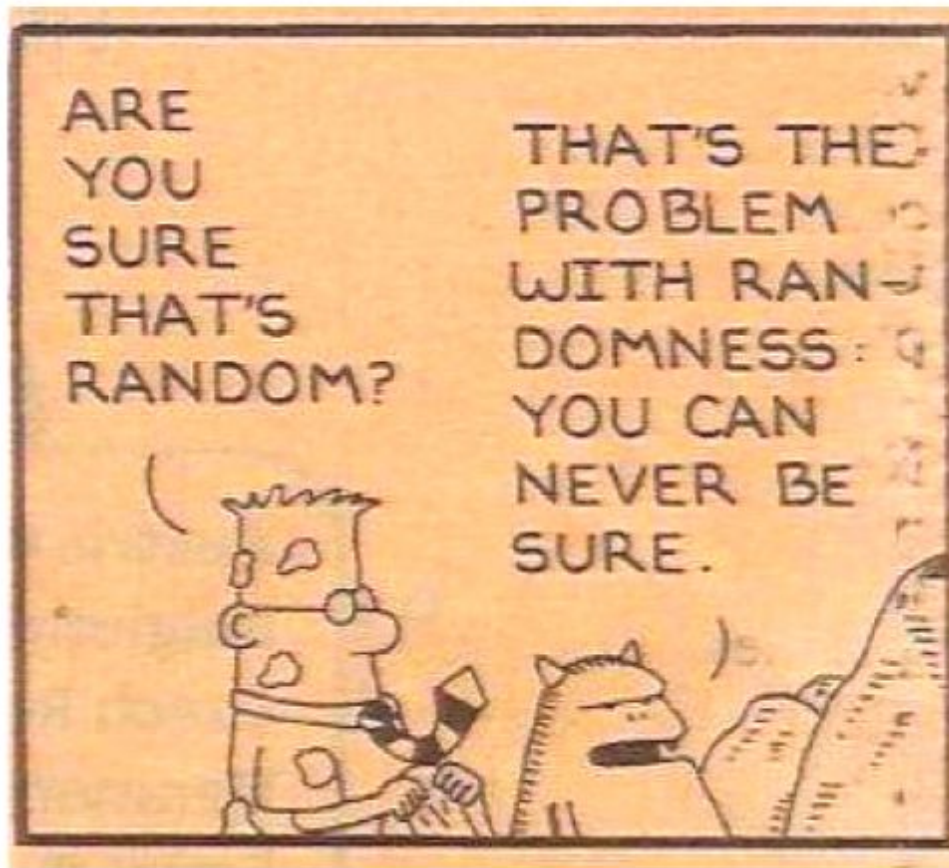
Real situation: the proportion $\frac{1,270,110}{2,588,192} = 49.07\%$

Prior probability: all families are **equally likely** to be selected

Pr(one boy) DEPENDS ON BOTH.







A category distinction

Real situations, “facts”

versus

Probabilities = an agent's degrees of belief

Surely this probability is objective



$$\Pr(15) = 1/37$$

Last Updated: Sunday, 5 December, 2004, 05:40 GMT

 [E-mail this to a friend](#)

 [Printable version](#)

'Laser scam' gamblers to keep £1m

A group of gamblers who won more than £1m at the Ritz Casino by using laser technology have been told by police they can keep their winnings.

The trio - a Hungarian woman and two Serbian men - were arrested in March but police have apparently decided that they did not break the law.



A laser scanner was allegedly used by the gamblers

A laser scanner linked to a computer was allegedly used to gauge numbers likely to come up on the roulette wheel.

Chance AND Probability: the Principal Principle (PP)

$$\Pr \left(E \mid \text{chance}(E) = q \right) = q .$$

where

E is an event,

$q \in [0, 1]$, and

\Pr is an agent's degree of belief.

PP attempts to give empirical content to chance

Flip a coin N times, let q be the chance of Heads, and let $Pr(q)$ be an agent's (subjective) prior for one flip.

Prior for N flips:

$$p^{(N)}(x_1, \dots, x_N) = \int_0^1 Pr(q) dq q^k (1 - q)^{N-k}$$

Now use frequency data to update $Pr(q)$.

Chance of exactly what?

In a classical, deterministic theory, only situations corresponding to chance = 0 or 1 can be unambiguously defined.

Chance of exactly what?

In a classical, deterministic theory, only situations corresponding to chance = 0 or 1 can be unambiguously defined.

Case 1: initial microstate given: **chance = 0 or 1**

Chance of exactly what?

In a classical, deterministic theory, only situations corresponding to chance = 0 or 1 can be unambiguously defined.

Case 1: initial microstate given: **chance = 0 or 1**

Case 2: agent has nontrivial degrees of belief about the initial microstate: **chance is subjective**

Chance of exactly what?

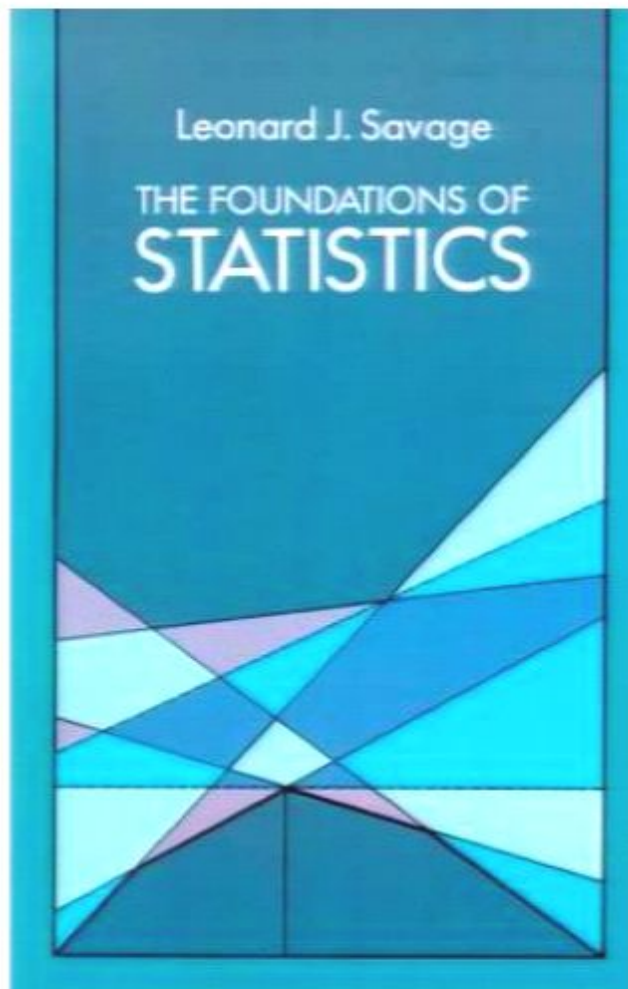
In a classical, deterministic theory, only situations corresponding to chance = 0 or 1 can be unambiguously defined.

Case 1: initial microstate given: **chance = 0 or 1**

Case 2: agent has nontrivial degrees of belief about the initial microstate: **chance is subjective**

Case 3: the chances of different microstates are specified: **infinite regress**

Savage's program in quantum mechanics?



Savage's program in quantum mechanics!

- Quantum states represent an agent's (decision-theoretic) degrees of belief (Caves, Fuchs, RS)
- Gleason's theorem
- The quantum de Finetti theorem
- Wallace's quantum version of Savage's axioms
- Etc.

Gleason's theorem

Assume there is a function h from the one-dimensional projectors acting on a Hilbert space of dimension greater than 2 to the unit interval, with the property that for each orthonormal basis $\{|\psi_k\rangle\}$,

$$\sum_k h(|\psi_k\rangle\langle\psi_k|) = 1 .$$

Then there exists a density operator ρ such that

$$h(|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) = \langle\psi|\rho|\psi\rangle .$$

Exchangeability for quantum systems

A state $\rho^{(N)}$ of N systems is **exchangeable** if it is a member of an exchangeable sequence $\rho^{(n)}$, i.e.,

(i) (symmetry) each $\rho^{(n)}$ is **invariant under permutations** of the n systems on which it is defined; and

(ii) (extendibility) $\rho^{(n)} = \text{tr}_{n+1} \rho^{(n+1)}$ for all n , where tr_{n+1} denotes the partial trace over the $(n+1)$ th system.

Quantum de Finetti Theorem

$\rho^{(N)}$ is exchangeable

if and only if

$$\rho^{(N)} = \int d\rho p(\rho) \rho^{\otimes N} = \int d\rho p(\rho) \rho \otimes \cdots \otimes \rho .$$

(Hudson, Moody 1976; Caves, Fuchs, RS 2002)

Exchangeability for quantum systems

A state $\rho^{(N)}$ of N systems is **exchangeable** if it is a member of an exchangeable sequence $\rho^{(n)}$, i.e.,

(i) (symmetry) each $\rho^{(n)}$ is **invariant under permutations** of the n systems on which it is defined; and

(ii) (extendibility) $\rho^{(n)} = \text{tr}_{n+1} \rho^{(n+1)}$ for all n , where tr_{n+1} denotes the partial trace over the $(n+1)$ th system.

Quantum de Finetti Theorem

$\rho^{(N)}$ is exchangeable

if and only if

$$\rho^{(N)} = \int d\rho p(\rho) \rho^{\otimes N} = \int d\rho p(\rho) \rho \otimes \cdots \otimes \rho .$$

(Hudson, Moody 1976; Caves, Fuchs, RS 2002)

Bayesian quantum tomography

$$\rho^{(N+M)} = \int d\rho \, p(\rho) \, \rho^{\otimes(N+M)}$$

measure N subsystems

get outcome $\vec{\alpha}$

$$\rho^{(M)} = \int d\rho \, p(\rho|\vec{\alpha}) \, \rho^{\otimes M}$$

$p(\rho|\vec{\alpha})$ given by a quantum Bayes rule.

Two kinds of quantum states

“Belief states” are used for decision making.

“Real states” are real.

A quantum Principal Principle

The “belief state” of a system, given that the “real state” is $|q\rangle$, is $|q\rangle$.

(This is the Deutsch-Wallace rationality constraint.)

Real state of exactly what?

In quantum theory, the situation giving rise to a putative real state $|q\rangle$ cannot be unambiguously defined.

Real state of exactly what?

In quantum theory, the situation giving rise to a putative real state $|q\rangle$ cannot be unambiguously defined.

(Case 1: there are no quantum microstates)

Real state of exactly what?

In quantum theory, the situation giving rise to a putative real state $|q\rangle$ cannot be unambiguously defined.

(Case 1: there are no quantum microstates)

Case 2: the agent's initial "belief state" is given: $|q\rangle$
is subjective

Real state of exactly what?

In quantum theory, the situation giving rise to a putative real state $|q\rangle$ cannot be unambiguously defined.

(Case 1: there are no quantum microstates)

Real state of exactly what?

In quantum theory, the situation giving rise to a putative real state $|q\rangle$ cannot be unambiguously defined.

(Case 1: there are no quantum microstates)

Case 2: the agent's initial "belief state" is given: $|q\rangle$
is subjective

Real state of exactly what?

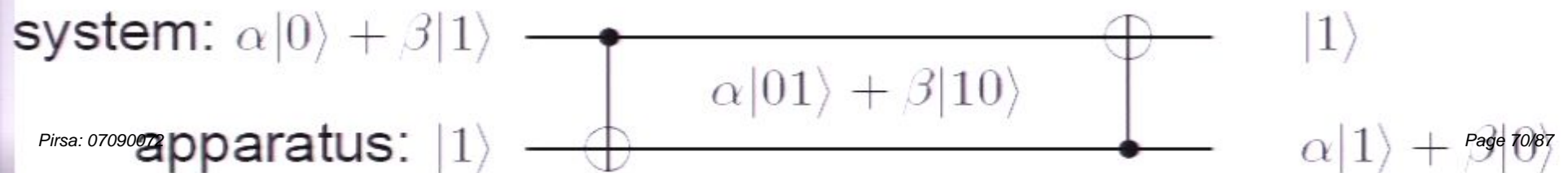
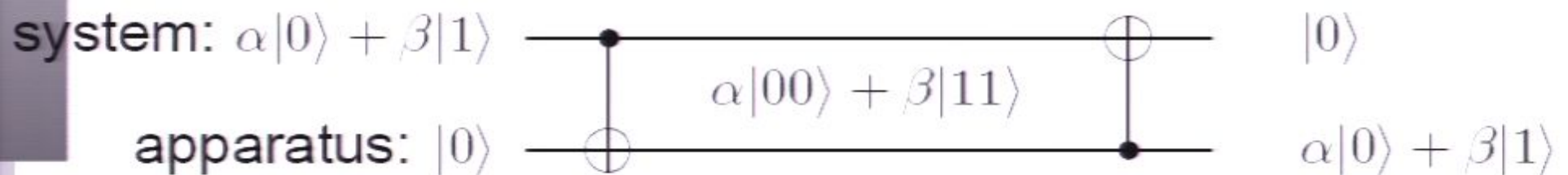
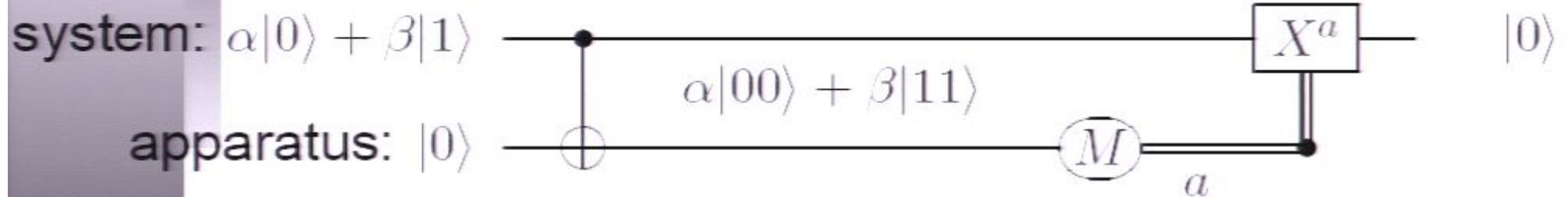
In quantum theory, the situation giving rise to a putative real state $|q\rangle$ cannot be unambiguously defined.

(Case 1: there are no quantum microstates)

Case 2: the agent's initial "belief state" is given: $|q\rangle$
is subjective

Case 3: the initial "real state" is given: infinite
regress

Quantum state preparation



Real state of exactly what?

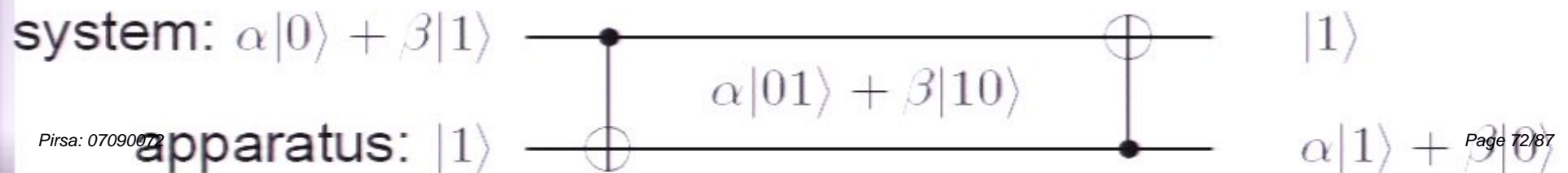
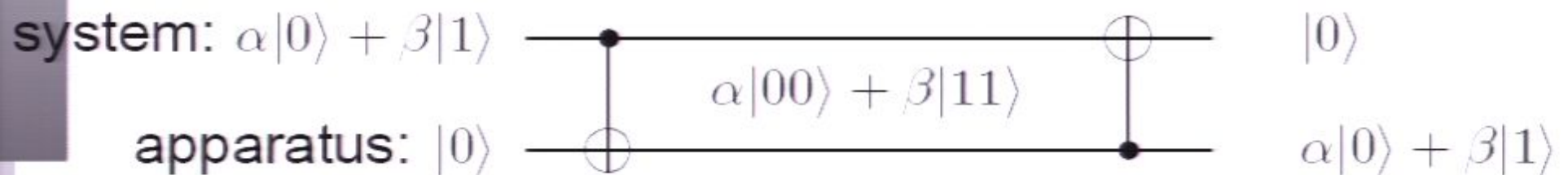
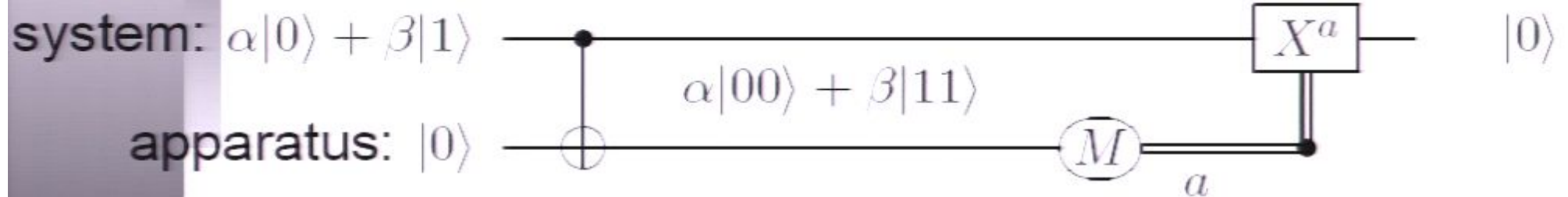
In quantum theory, the situation giving rise to a putative real state $|q\rangle$ cannot be unambiguously defined.

(Case 1: there are no quantum microstates)

Case 2: the agent's initial "belief state" is given: $|q\rangle$
is subjective

Case 3: the initial "real state" is given: infinite
regress

Quantum state preparation



Real state of exactly what?

In quantum theory, the situation giving rise to a putative real state $|q\rangle$ cannot be unambiguously defined.

(Case 1: there are no quantum microstates)

Case 2: the agent's initial "belief state" is given: $|q\rangle$
is subjective

Case 3: the initial "real state" is given: infinite
regress

From Probabilism to Quantum Bayesianism

Any probabilistic argument starts from a judgment in the form of a prior probability assignment.

Conclusions

- Decision-theoretic approach to q.m.: YES
- Decision-theoretic approach to many worlds: NO

Real state of exactly what?

In quantum theory, the situation giving rise to a putative real state $|q\rangle$ cannot be unambiguously defined.

(Case 1: there are no quantum microstates)

Case 2: the agent's initial "belief state" is given: $|q\rangle$
is subjective

Real state of exactly what?

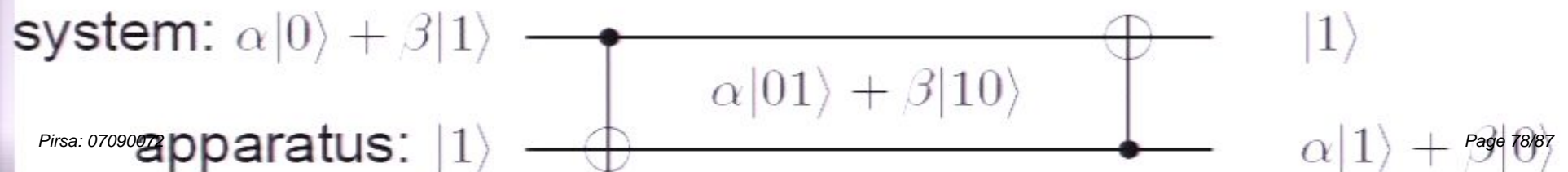
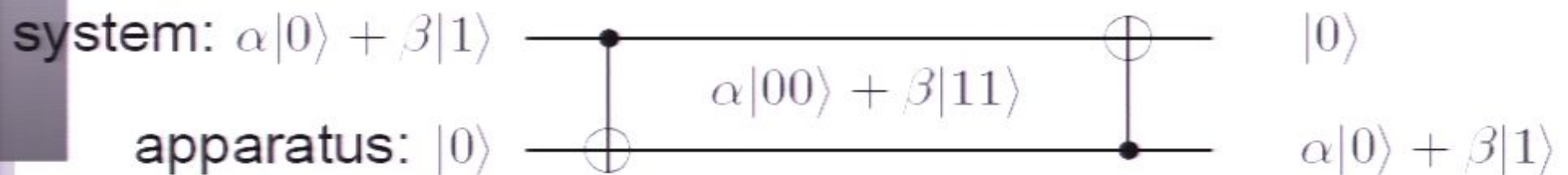
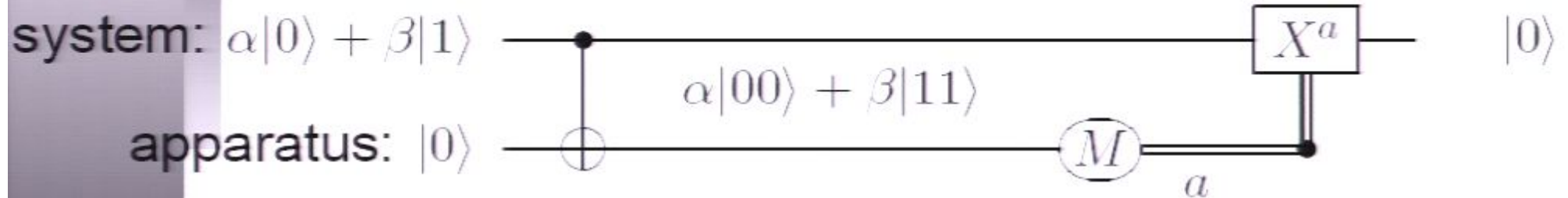
In quantum theory, the situation giving rise to a putative real state $|q\rangle$ cannot be unambiguously defined.

(Case 1: there are no quantum microstates)

Case 2: the agent's initial "belief state" is given: $|q\rangle$
is subjective

Case 3: the initial "real state" is given: infinite
regress

Quantum state preparation



Chance AND Probability: the Principal Principle (PP)

$$\Pr(E \mid \text{chance}(E) = q) = q .$$

where

E is an event,

$q \in [0, 1]$, and

\Pr is an agent's degree of belief.

Surely this probability is objective



$$\Pr(15) = 1/37$$

Chance of exactly what?

In a classical, deterministic theory, only situations corresponding to chance = 0 or 1 can be unambiguously defined.

Case 1: initial microstate given: **chance = 0 or 1**

Case 2: agent has nontrivial degrees of belief about the initial microstate: **chance is subjective**

Case 3: the chances of different microstates are specified: **infinite regress**

Conclusions

- Decision-theoretic approach to q.m.: YES
- Decision-theoretic approach to many worlds: NO



Real state of exactly what?

In quantum theory, the situation giving rise to a putative real state $|q\rangle$ cannot be unambiguously defined.

(Case 1: there are no quantum microstates)

Case 2: the agent's initial "belief state" is given: $|q\rangle$
is subjective

Case 3: the initial "real state" is given: infinite
regress

A quantum Principal Principle

The “belief state” of a system, given that the “real state” is $|q\rangle$, is $|q\rangle$.

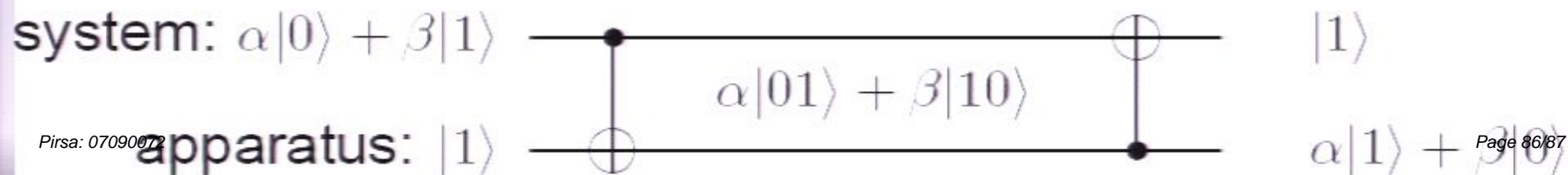
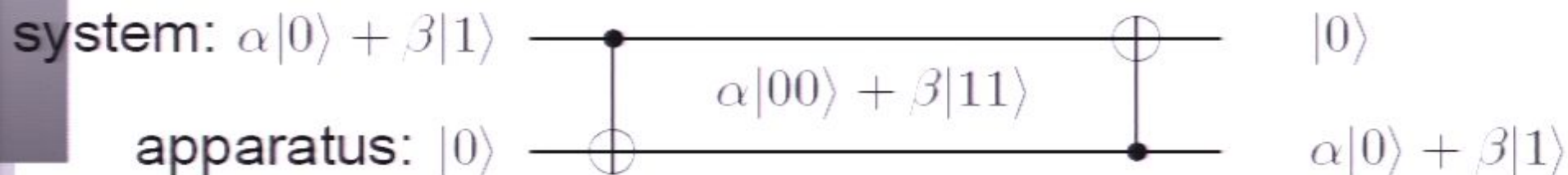
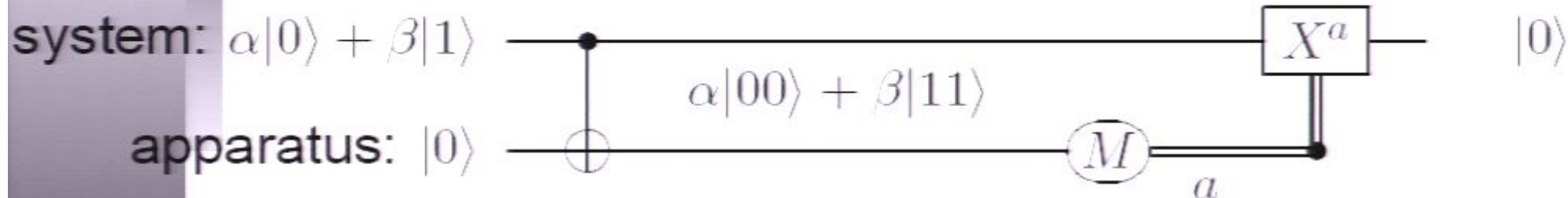
(This is the Deutsch-Wallace rationality constraint.)

From Probabilism to Quantum Bayesianism

Any probabilistic argument starts from a judgment
in the form of a prior probability assignment.



Quantum state preparation



Real state of exactly what?

In quantum theory, the situation giving rise to a putative real state $|q\rangle$ cannot be unambiguously defined.

(Case 1: there are no quantum microstates)

Case 2: the agent's initial "belief state" is given: $|q\rangle$
is subjective

Case 3: the initial "real state" is given: infinite
regress