

Decision-based Probabilities in the Everett Interpretation: Comments on Wallace and Greaves*

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Abstract

It is often objected that the Everett interpretation of QM cannot make adequate sense of quantum probabilities, in one or both of two senses: either it cannot make sense of probability at all, or cannot explain why probability should be governed by the Born rule. David Deutsch has attempted to meet these objections. He argues not only that rational decision under uncertainty makes sense in the Everett interpretation, and that under reasonable assumptions, the credences of a rational agent in an Everett world should be constrained by the Born rule.

David Wallace has recently developed and defended Deutsch's proposal, and greatly clarified its conceptual basis. In this note I outline some concerns about the Deutsch argument, as presented by Wallace, and about related proposals by Hilary Greaves. In particular, I argue that the argument is circular, at a crucial point.

1 Preamble

It is often objected that the Everett view of quantum theory cannot make adequate sense of quantum probabilities, in one or both of two senses: either it cannot make sense of probability at all, or cannot explain why probability should be governed by the Born rule. David Deutsch (1999) has attempted to meet these objections. He argues not only that rational decision under uncertainty (of the kind traditionally associated with probability) makes sense in the Everett interpretation; but also that under reasonable assumptions, the credences of a rational agent in an Everett world should be constrained by the Born rule.

*This note is prompted by several recent papers by David Wallace and Hilary Greaves. I hope it will be clear to those who know those papers that while I focus, of course, on aspects of Wallace's and Greaves's arguments that I find problematic, I am very much indebted to their discussions throughout.

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In two recent papers (2003, 2005b), David Wallace has developed and defended Deutsch's proposal, and greatly clarified its conceptual basis. In this note, however, I want to outline some concerns about the latest form of the Deutsch-Wallace (DW) argument, and related matters. In particular, I want to argue that the argument is circular, at a crucial point. Similar objections have been raised to various other proposals to derive meaningful probabilities in the Everett context. The present objection is related to reservations about the DW argument expressed by Barnum *et al* (2000) and by Lewis (2003), though I think it develops these reservations in a new and more forceful way.

Most of my concerns turn on a feature of the Everett view that Wallace takes to be crucial to the DW argument. As he notes, the argument is based on symmetry considerations. He argues that it is stronger than the usual kind of symmetry-based attempts to derive probabilities, because the symmetry isn't broken by a single *actual* outcome (which, if one knew it, would trump the symmetry-based probabilities as a guide to action). Here is Wallace's own summary of the point from another paper:

I will not attempt to summarise these decision-theoretic proofs here, since the details are somewhat involved, but the underlying principle is essentially that of symmetry: if there is a physical symmetry between two possible outcomes there can be no reason to prefer one to another. Such arguments have frequently been advanced in non-quantum contexts but ultimately fall foul of the problem that the symmetry is broken by one outcome rather than another actually happening (leading to a requirement for probability to be introduced explicitly at the level either of the initial conditions or of the dynamics to select which one happens). They find their natural home – and succeed! – in Everettian quantum mechanics, where all outcomes occur and there is no breaking of the symmetry. (Wallace, 2005a, §3.6)

As I'll explain below, I have two main concerns related to this feature of the model. Together, they suggest that this supposed advantage is at best twofold: the source of the symmetry is also the source of the deepest reasons for scepticism about the fate probability in the Everett interpretation.

I think that the concerns I am going to identify also create difficulties for Hilary Greaves's proposed interpretation of Everettian probabilities (Greaves 2004). However, I shall be relying on Greaves's discussion and conclusions in other ways. In particular, I follow Greaves in rejecting what Wallace refers to as the *Subjective-uncertainty (SU) viewpoint*. Wallace characterises this viewpoint as follows:

Given that what it is to have a future self is to be appropriately related to a certain future person, and that in normal circumstances I expect to become my future self, so also in Everettian splittings I should expect to become *one* of my future selves. If there is more than one of them I should be uncertain as to which I will become;

furthermore, this subjective uncertainty is compatible with my *total knowledge* of the wavefunction and its dynamics. (2005b, §2)

The arguments Greaves presents against this viewpoint seem to me to be convincing, but for present purposes I shall simply presuppose that she is right. Wallace himself considers the possibility that SU might have to be rejected – he calls the alternative *Objective-determinism (OD)* – and my objections focus on the version of the DW argument he takes to be relevant in that case.

2 First concern

A standard difficulty for symmetry-based probabilities is that different ways of carving up the relevant space of possible outcomes may yield different symmetries and hence different probabilities. In the classical case, there's scope to argue that one particular carve-up is to be preferred, precisely because it does yield assessments of probability that match the observed long(ish) run frequencies. But that response is off the menu, in the Everett case, for the very reason that's supposed to constitute the advantage, viz., that there is no unique outcome or observed frequency.

So the 'multiple carve-up' problem would seem to be serious, for the DW argument, if other carve-ups were available. As Greaves (2004, §5.2) notes, one other possibility might seem to be what she calls the "egalitarian" proposal, which accords equal weight to all branches. In my view, Greaves is right about the problem this alternative would pose, if it were a genuine alternative. Fortunately for the DW argument, and as Greaves explains, it turns out not to be a serious possibility, for reasons to do with decoherence and the approximate nature of branches, amongst other things.¹

Still, the lesson seems to be that the DW argument would have trouble with the multiple carve-up problem, if egalitarianism about branches were a live option – if we shifted to a model in which branches were more sharply defined, as it were (and of some tractable cardinality, perhaps).

If this is correct, it also seems to imply that the DW argument has similar trouble, if anyone can propose some reasonably elegant alternative to the Born rule as a rule weighting branches. If there's such alternative available, then it can't be true that it is uniquely rational to assign one's credences according to the Born rule – after all, the same symmetry argument, starting with the alternative weights, would show that it is uniquely rational to use those weights, instead.

In her survey of these issues, Greaves (2004) suggests that we might turn this point around – with egalitarianism off the menu, the Born rule might be the only non-trivial option available:

¹As Wallace puts it, "The point . . . is not that there is no *precise* way to define the number of descendants Rather, the point is that there is *not even an approximate way* to make such a definition." (Wallace, 2005b, §9; see also Greaves 2004, §5.3)

The failure of Egalitarianism (section 5.2) raises an important question: are there any coherent rationality strategies that are at all plausible and that also violate the Born rule? If not, we may hope to . . . defend the Born rule by sheer process of elimination. (2004, §5.4.2)

Greaves goes on to argue that no reasonable alternative is available: “It does seem that the only way we can come up with an [alternative] strategy is by brute force: that is, by specifying a preference ordering over Acts on a case-by-case basis, without appeal to any general governing rationale.”

On the face of it, however, there’s an easy way to produce such alternatives: just use the weights provided by the Born rule itself, *applied to a different initial state vector*. This could be done in a systematic way, apparently: we could imagine someone – call her Heretic – whose rule was that you started with the state vector $|\psi\rangle$, applied some given operator \widehat{O}_{dd} , and then used the Born rule on the resulting state vector $|\psi'\rangle = \widehat{O}_{dd}|\psi\rangle$.

This may sound like a trivial suggestion. After all (it might be objected), the DW claim is only that *if* you know the initial state vector, then your rational credences are uniquely constrained. *Of course* it follows that if we postulate a different initial state vector, we’ll infer different rational credences.

But this misses the point of the objection. At the moment, what’s at issue is the validity of the DW inference from a set of assumed weights to rational credences. We’ve seen that inference is challenged by the possibility of ‘multiple carve-ups’ – different ways of assigning weights to branches or sets of branches. We repel one specific such challenge, by dismissing egalitarianism, but the DW inference remains vulnerable to the general objection. And the present point is that the QM formalism itself seems to generate alternative weightings *ad nauseum*, simply by considering alternative initial states.²

2.1 The case against equivalence

In Wallace’s most recent development of the DW argument in (Wallace 2005b), a principle he calls **equivalence** plays a crucial role. The objection outlined

²We might want to impose a minimal consistency constraint, to the effect that the same branches receive non-zero weighting in the alternative state $|\psi'\rangle$ as in the original state $|\psi\rangle$. Howard Barnum has pointed out to me that it isn’t possible to meet this constraint in a perfectly general way. In an unpublished paper (Barnum, 1990) in which he considers a similar “shuffling” of the state vector, he shows that there is no non-trivial mapping \widehat{O}_{dd} that my Heretic could use which preserves the extremal properties – viz., that the weight attached to a measurement result corresponding to an eigenvector orthogonal to the state must be zero, and that attached to getting a result corresponding to an eigenvector proportional to the state must be one. But Heretic could avoid this difficulty, presumably, by the simple expedient of announcing that her alternative recipe applies only in the cases in which the measurement in question is not extremal, in this sense, for either $|\psi\rangle$ or $|\psi'\rangle$. As we’ll see below, the question is really in what sense it could be rational to be guided by one quantum state rather than the other, in the Everett framework. To the extent that this is a serious issue, it seems bad enough if it only “bites” in non-extremal cases.

above appears to undermine the DW argument at precisely this point – in other words, it undermines **equivalence**.

As Wallace explains (2005b, §6), ‘**Equivalence** has the form of a principle of pure rationality: it dictates that any agent who does not regard equally-weighted events as equally likely is in some sense being irrational.’ He offers an argument for **equivalence**, which, as he stresses, makes essential use of the Everett interpretation:

I wish to argue that the Everett interpretation necessarily plays a central role in any such defence [of **equivalence**]: in other interpretations, **equivalence** is not only unmotivated as a rationality principle but is actually absurd.³

Why? Observe what **equivalence** actually claims: that if we know that two events have the same weight, then we must regard them as equally likely *regardless of any other information we may have about them*. Put another way, if we wish to determine which event to bet on and we are told that they have the same weight, we will be uninterested in any other information about them.

But in any interpretation which does not involve branching — that is, in any non-Everettian interpretation — there is a further piece of information that cannot but be relevant to our choice: namely, *which event is actually going to happen?* If in fact we know that E rather than F will actually occur, *of course* we will bet on E , regardless of the relative weights of the events. (Wallace 2005b, §6)

Wallace’s central argument for **equivalence** goes as follows:

In fact, a very simple and direct justification of **equivalence** is available. Consider, for simplicity, a Stern-Gerlach experiment . . . : an atom is prepared in a superposition $|+x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|+z\rangle + |-z\rangle)$ and then measured along the z axis. According to the result of the measurement, an agent receives some payoff. *Ex hypothesi* the agent is indifferent *per se* to what goes on during the measurement process and to what the actual outcome of the experiment is; all he cares about is the payoff.

We now consider two possible games (that is, associations of payoffs with outcomes):

Game 1: The agent receives the payoff iff the result is spin up.

Game 2: The agent receives the payoff iff the result is spin down.

³[Wallace’s footnote] In this section I confine my observations to those interpretations of quantum mechanics which are in some sense “realist” and observer-independent (such as collapse theories or hidden-variable theories). I will not consider interpretations (such as the Copenhagen interpretation, or the recent variant defended by Fuchs and Peres 2000) which take a more ‘operationalist’ approach to the quantum formalism. It is entirely possible, as has been argued recently by Saunders (2003), that an approach based on Deutsch’s proof may be useful in these interpretations.

In each game, the weight of the branch where the agent receives the payoff is 0.5; **equivalence**, in this context, is then the claim that the agent is indifferent between games 1 and 2.

To see that this is indeed the case, we need to model the games explicitly. Let $|\text{'up';reward}\rangle$ and $|\text{'down';no reward}\rangle$ be the quantum states of the two branches on the assumption that game 1 was played: that is, let the post-game global state⁴ if game 1 is played be

$$|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{'up';reward}\rangle + |\text{'down';no reward}\rangle). \quad (1)$$

Similarly, if game 2 is played then the quantum state is

$$|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{'down';reward}\rangle + |\text{'up';no reward}\rangle). \quad (2)$$

Why should an agent be indifferent between a physical process which produces $|\psi_1\rangle$ and one which produces $|\psi_2\rangle$?

Well, recall that the agent is indifferent *per se* to the result of the experiment. This being the case, he will not object if we erase that result. Let $|\text{'erased',reward}\rangle$ indicate the state of the branch in which the reward was given post-erasure and $|\text{'erased',no reward}\rangle$ the post-erasure state of the no-reward branch. Then (game 1+erasure) leads to the state

$$|\psi_{1,e}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{'erased',reward}\rangle + |\text{'erased',no reward}\rangle) \quad (3)$$

and (game 2+erasure) to the state

$$|\psi_{2,e}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\text{'erased',reward}\rangle + |\text{'erased',no reward}\rangle) \quad (4)$$

— that is, (game 1+erasure) and (game 2+erasure) lead to the same state. If (game 1+erasure) and (game 2+erasure) are just different ways of producing the same physical state — different ways, moreover, which can be made to differ only over a period of a fraction of a second, in which the agent has no interest — then the agent should be indifferent between the two. Since he is also indifferent to erasure, he is indifferent between games 1 and 2, as required by **equivalence**. (Wallace 2005b, §9)

Against this background, consider our Heretic. Suppose for the sake of argument that while agreeing that the initial state of the atom is the superposition $|\psi\rangle = |+_x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|+_z\rangle + |-_z\rangle)$, she weights the branches for decision theory

⁴[Wallace's footnote] More precisely: the global state relative to the pre-game agent: there are of course all manner of other branches which are already effectively disconnected from the agent's branch.

purposes as if it were $|\psi'\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}|+_z\rangle + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{3}}|-_z\rangle$. (In other words, she assigns subjective probabilities in the way that an Orthodox person would, following Wallace’s principle **equivalence**, if the initial state were actually $|\psi'\rangle$.)

Clearly, Heretic will prefer Game 2 to Game 1, and will be (rightly) unmoved by the consideration that once the chosen game is over, thanks to erasure, she will be unable to tell whether it was actually Game 1 or Game 2 that was played. In one sense, of course, she is equally happy to win by either path. But she thinks she is twice as likely to win by Game 2 as by Game 1, so she should not weight them equally, for decision purposes, *contra* **equivalence**.

This means that unless it has *already been assumed*, implicitly, that rational choice is constrained by the Born rule, then it is perfectly possible to make sense of someone who violates **equivalence**. At least, it is possible to do so *modulo* the assumption that rational choice of this kind makes sense at all, in the Everett context, but DW can hardly dispute that assumption, in this context.

To put it another way, the objection seems to establish the following: if we assume that rational choice under uncertainty makes sense in the Everett context, and don’t assume what we are trying to establish – viz., that rational choice should be guided by probabilities derived from the Born rule – then it is easy to make sense of a rational agent whose (symmetry-driven) credences differ from those assigned by the Born rule, and violate **equivalence**.

So the multiple carve-up problem seems to be a real difficulty. It is no help knowing the real initial state vector, because the symmetry argument that is supposed to justify the Born rule is already undermined by the existence of alternative carve-ups. What would be needed would be some primitive assumption to the effect that carve-up given by the real state vector was privileged. However, this seems to amount to assuming by fiat what the DW argument was supposed to show.

In fact, the consequences may be even worse than this. If the DW argument worked, it would seem to establish not only the Born rule, but also, more basically, the coherence of rational decision under uncertainty in the Everett context. If the objection above is correct in claiming that the Born rule is effectively assumed as a primitive, in the DW argument, then the effect isn’t simply to undermine the claim to have *derived* the Born rule; it is to challenge the coherence of rational decision in an Everett world, in a fairly precise sense. What it challenges is the idea that there could be any rational basis for choosing between the weights associated with alternative initial state vectors, as one’s guide to such decisions.⁵

The upshot seems to be something like this: in the Everett context we can make sense of a minimal coherence condition of the kind provided by Dutch book argument – failing which, apparently, an agent can be made to be worse off in all future branches.⁶ But there seems to be no basis for any rational

⁵At least within the scope of the variation permitted by the considerations noted in fn. 2 above.

⁶Though it is worth asking to what extent these arguments themselves depend on the assumption that well-informed agents can make sense of choice of betting quotients, in the Everett context.

preference between credences beyond that – no reason for choosing one initial state vector rather than another, as it were, if one’s weightings are to be given by the Born rule.

If this is correct, then even the proposal to assume the Born rule as a primitive (as recommended by Greaves 2004, for example) seems to be in trouble. We have not been told what the content of such an assumption would be – what difference it makes. It is no use saying that its content consists precisely in the way that it guides our choices in cases of decision under uncertainty. The point is that we haven’t been given any understanding of what difference those choices make (within the circle of the alternatives permitted by coherence in the minimal sense).

Another way to put this is to say that if the link between the quantum amplitudes and decision probabilities is taken as primitive, then we lack an sense as to how there could be a single, correct initial state vector, in a given situation. It doesn’t seem to be helpful to say that this is simply a postulate of the theory. When we have real frequencies of outcomes, we have some sense of what correctness might mean. Here, the point is that this sense seems to have gone missing. All possibilities seem to be on a par (extremal cases aside, perhaps).

It is natural to think that if we are to find a solution to this problem, we will need to look to the epistemology of the Everett model – at this point, surely, we should hope to find something that will distinguish alternative hypotheses about the initial state. My second concern, below, focusses on this issue. Before coming to that, however, I want to raise another issue about Wallace’s argument for **equivalence**.

2.2 Same-State Rational Indifference

As we have seen, Wallace’s argument for **equivalence** relies on an argument which first appears in this passage:

[R]ecall that the agent is indifferent *per se* to the result of the experiment. This being the case, he will not object if we erase that result. Let $|‘erased’,reward\rangle$ indicate the state of the branch in which the reward was given post-erasure and $|‘erased’,no\ reward\rangle$ the post-erasure state of the no-reward branch. Then (game 1+erasure) leads to the state

$$|\psi_{1,e}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|‘erased’,reward\rangle + |‘erased’,no\ reward\rangle) \quad (5)$$

and (game 2+erasure) to the state

$$|\psi_{2,e}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|‘erased’,reward\rangle + |‘erased’,no\ reward\rangle) \quad (6)$$

— that is, (game 1+erasure) and (game 2+erasure) lead to the same state. If (game 1+erasure) and (game 2+erasure) are just different

ways of producing the same physical state — different ways, moreover, which can be made to differ only over a period of a fraction of a second, in which the agent has no interest — then the agent should be indifferent between the two. Since he is also indifferent to erasure, he is indifferent between games 1 and 2, as required by **equivalence**. (Wallace 2005b, §9)

Let’s focus on the principle appealed to in this passage, which we might formalise as follows:

Same-State Rational Indifference (SSRI): A rational agent should be indifferent between two options that give rise to the same global state (relative to the pre-game agent).

In the previous subsection, we saw how our agent Heretic seemed to have grounds for rejecting SSRI: believing she had a better chance of winning via Game 2 than Game 1, she prefers Game 2, despite the fact that the two games lead to (effectively) the same global final state. The point I want to make now is that Heretic’s case illustrates a general reason why SSRI must be rejected, by anyone who wants to make sense of (some analogue of) rational decision under uncertainty, in an Everett world. If a rational agent’s pre-game preferences are constrained by the global final state in this way, she is bound to be indifferent between the possible (local, in-branch) *outcomes* of the game or measurement in question, because all of them reflect the same global final state.

Thus SSRI ensures that once a bet – any bet! – has been made, a rational agent is indifferent between the possible outcomes. This seems to be a *reductio* of the attempt to apply the decision calculus, which relies on differential preferences between outcomes – without differential preferences, betting behaviour cannot track credences. As it stands, then, SSRI seems to be a “home-goal” for the project of making sense of rational decision in the Everett context.

Does Wallace’s argument for **equivalence** actually require SSRI? The obvious thought is that we might avoid it by arguing for the required indifference between Game 1 and Game 2 not in terms of the equivalence of the global states resulting from each game, but in terms of the pairwise equivalence of the two possible outcomes of each game. Thus, modifying Wallace’s terminology in the obvious way, we would argue that the agent should be indifferent between the post-erasure winning outcomes of Game 1 and Game 2, viz., $|\text{‘erased’}, \text{reward}\rangle_1$ and $|\text{‘erased’}, \text{reward}\rangle_2$, respectively; and also between the corresponding losing outcomes, $|\text{‘erased’}, \text{no reward}\rangle_1$ and $|\text{‘erased’}, \text{no reward}\rangle_2$, respectively.

At this point, we want to conclude that the agent should hence be indifferent between Game 1 and Game 2. However, it seems obvious that this depends on the very matter at issue: namely, whether the agent should assign equal weight, *for such decision purposes*, to the two different measurement outcomes on which success depends, in the two versions of the game.

In essence, then, it seems to me that Wallace’s argument seeks to avoid circularity by moving to the “global” level; but that at that level it invokes a

principle (SSRI) which defeats his general project of making sense of rational decision under uncertainty in the Everett world.⁷

3 Second concern

As I noted above, it is natural to think that if we are to find a solution of what I termed the multiple carve-up problem, we will need to look to the epistemology of the Everett model. It is at this point that we might hope to find something to distinguish alternative hypotheses about the initial state. But this brings me to my second concern.

Suppose I accept the Everett model. Whatever outcome of a quantum measurement I observe in “my” branch, I should believe that each of the other possible outcomes has occurred in some other branch. In other words, I should take it that what I have observed is only one part or aspect of the overall outcome of the process in question. Doesn’t the principle of total evidence require me to take that into account, at this point? If so, then – in the absence of any further facts about *relative frequencies* of the various outcomes – there seems to be no way in which the evidence can confirm any particular hypothesis about the relative weights of the various branches. For the total evidence (in this sense) is the same in all cases. (In a sense, this appeals to a kind of epistemological analogue of SSI.)

It might be objected that this argument ignores something like my normal entitlement to regard myself as typical – this entitlement, the objector would say, enables me to infer something further about the total evidence, viz., that it is likely to be similar to the evidence I actually have. But the notion of typicality rests on frequency comparisons. If such comparisons don’t make sense in the Everett world, as Wallace and Greaves maintain, this response seems to be off the agenda.

3.1 Greaves on Everettian epistemology

Greaves herself offers a defence of the epistemology of the Everett model. Her argument is based on the distinctive interpretation she proposes of the Born probabilities, as the weightings that a rational agent should give to the interests of each of her multiple descendants in an Everett world – as she puts it, the Born probabilities provide a “caring measure”.

On the face of it, this proposal encounters the difficulty identified above: if the practical significance of the state vector is to be linked to a caring measure in this way, we are entitled to ask what it means for one particular state to be the “correct” state – how does the ontology of the Everett picture make caring measure better than another. (Again, a single-history ontology has some prospect of an answer in terms of actual frequencies, but that option isn’t available here.)

Greaves’s proposal, in effect, is that we can get the constraint we need from epistemology. She argues that the “caring” framework provides a close analogue

⁷This doesn’t imply that the SSRI isn’t defensible, in the Everett context, of course.

of conditionalisation, sufficient to ensure we have good reason to afford high credence to the conventional quantum state ascriptions, given the abundance of experimental evidence already accumulated. In her own words, she proposes that “a fairly strong case can be made for the following philosophical conjecture:

If the rational Everettian cares about her future successors in proportion to their relative amplitude-squared measures, then (given our actual experimental data) she should regard (Everettian) quantum mechanics as empirically confirmed.” (2004, §2.3)

If this argument were successful, it would represent progress. It would provide an *epistemological* sense in which a particular initial quantum state might reasonably be privileged – regarded as distinctively “correct” – by observers in our situation. With that sense in place, it might be argued that the Orthodox proposal to base one’s decision probabilities (or caring measure) on this preferred state (via the Born rule), was at least simpler than Heretic’s proposal to begin with a different initial state (systematically derived from the “correct” initial state).

However, there seem to be two major difficulties with Greaves’s proposal. The first, which turns on the consideration at the beginning of this section, she seems to anticipate herself:

In particular, it is worrying that the Dutch Book argument [for conditionalisation] has nothing to say against an agent who insists that the observation of A or $\neg A$ is *irrelevant* to his belief in the theory, and hence that he will retain his old degrees of belief (2004, §2.3)

The agent Greaves has in mind here is someone who does not change his mind as evidence accumulates, because he insists that it tells him nothing new. He observes A , reasons that $\neg A$ has occurred in the other branch, and concludes that the total state of the world is exactly what he predicted it would be, with certainty, before the experiment. Since this reasoning is insensitive to the weight he ascribes to A , his observations cannot bear on that matter – in other words, they are insensitive to his choice of initial state. If the suggestion at the beginning of this section about the role of the principle of total evidence is correct, this is precisely the kind of agent we ought to be. If so, then from an Everettian point of view, our accumulated experimental data tells us very little about the “true” quantum state.

The second difficulty with Greaves’s proposal emerges in the light of the structure of the argument in this note. In effect, our first concern, in §2, offered a sceptical conclusion about decision-theoretic reasoning in an Everett world. We argued that from a decision-theoretic point of view, the Everett model provides no sense in which – if we do allow our decision probabilities (or caring measure) to be guided by the Born rule – we could think that one of a range of initial states was any better than another, as the input to the Born rule. A sceptic in the grip of this conclusion lacks any sense of what it means for a particular

choice of betting quotients to be “right”, or “appropriate”, over and above the minimal consistency constraints required for coherence.

The hope was to alleviate the sceptic’s decision-theoretic “nihilism” by appealing to the epistemology of the Everett interpretation. By Greaves’s path, however, the relevant epistemology depends squarely on the decision theory. The defence of conditionalisation depends on a Dutch Book argument, just as it does in the classical case; but the Dutch Book argument cannot get off the ground, unless the agent concerned can be assumed to have betting quotients. It is not clear that that’s true, of our sceptic.

Thus the structure of the second difficulty for Greaves’s proposal is as follows: in the present context, we need to make sense of the epistemology of the Everett view, to provide a necessary foundation for its decision theory. But Greaves’s route to the epistemology depends on a decision-theoretic argument. Hence it seems inadmissible, as a solution to the sceptical difficulty identified in §2.

4 Conclusion

The two concerns above are related, apparently, because both stem from the feature that Wallace identifies as the source of the unique power of the appeal to symmetry in the Everett case, viz., that there is no unique outcome to spoil the symmetry. In both cases, the objection is that in the absence of frequencies, that feature inevitably severs the link between weights and outcomes, and puts all of a wide class of assignments of weights on a par (predictively, for the purposes of action, in the first case; and retrodictively, for the purpose of epistemology and confirmation, in the second).

To give the penultimate word to Greaves herself,

the worry is this: it may be that if . . . we decide to understand quantum mechanics along Everettian lines, . . . we lose the empirical reason we had for believing *quantum mechanics* in the first place. (2004, §2.2)

I’ve argued that this worry is more serious than Wallace or Greaves realise. In the version of Everett to which they both subscribe, in which there are no helpful facts about relative frequencies of branches, the internal symmetries of quantum mechanics generate a fatal indeterminacy. The central ontological fact of the Everett world, viz., the identity of the quantum state itself, seems to lose practical and empirical significance, within wide margins.⁸

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