



A modesty proposal

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Abstract

Accuracy-first epistemology aims to show that the norms of epistemic rationality can be derived from the effective pursuit of accuracy. This paper explores the prospects within accuracy-first epistemology for vindicating “modesty”: the thesis that ideal rationality permits uncertainty about one’s own rationality. I argue that accuracy-first epistemology faces serious challenges in accommodating three forms of modesty: uncertainty about what priors are rational, uncertainty about whether one’s update policy is rational, and uncertainty about what one’s evidence is. I argue that the problem stems from the representation of epistemic decision problems. The appropriate representation of decision problems, and corresponding decision rules, for (diachronic) update policies should be a generalization of decision problems and decision rules for (synchronic) coherence. I argue that extant accounts build in conflicting assumptions about which kinds of information about the believer should be used to structure epistemic decision problems. In particular, extant accounts of update build in a form of epistemic consequentialism. Related forms of epistemic consequentialism have been shown to generate problems for accuracy-first epistemology’s purported justifications of probabilism, conditionalization, and the principal principle. These results are vindicated only with nonconsequentialist epistemic decision theories. I close with suggestive examples of how, with a fully nonconsequentialist representation of epistemic decision problems, accuracy-first epistemology can allow for rational modesty.

Keywords Accuracy · Higher-order evidence · Conditionalization · Epistemic decision theory

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1 Background

1.1 Accuracy-first epistemology

According to accuracy-first epistemology, the norms of epistemic rationality are the norms of effective pursuit of accuracy. Accuracy-first epistemologists, as I use the term, endorse the following principles:¹

Alethic vindication The ideal credence function at a world w is the omniscient credence function at that world: the credence function v_w such that for all relevant propositions P ,

$$v_w(P) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } P \text{ is true at } w \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Perfectionism The epistemic utility of a credence function is represented by its closeness (by some appropriate measure) to the ideal credence function.

Epistemic decision theory An agent is epistemically rational just in case her credences and their evolution conform to appropriate epistemic decision rules (e.g. maximize expected epistemic utility; avoid epistemic utility dominance).

Combining alethic vindication with perfectionism yields the result that the epistemic utility of a credence function is its *gradational accuracy*: its proximity to the truth, by some appropriate measure. Let \mathcal{W} be a set of worlds, F be a boolean algebra over \mathcal{W} , \mathcal{C}_F be the set of credence functions over F , and $\mathcal{P}_F \subset \mathcal{C}_F$ be the set of probability functions over F . **Global accuracy measures** ($\alpha : \mathcal{C}_F \times \mathcal{W} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$) assess the inaccuracy of credence functions at worlds. **Local accuracy measures** ($\alpha_l : \mathcal{C}_F \times F \times \mathcal{W} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$) assess the inaccuracy of credences in individual propositions at worlds. There is controversy over the class of appropriate accuracy measures; they are typically held to have the properties of *truth-directedness*, *separability*, and *strict propriety*.

Truth-directedness For credence functions c and c' , if for all $p \in F$, either $c'(p) \geq c(p) \geq v_w(p)$ or $c'(p) \leq c(p) \leq v_w(p)$, and for some $p \in F$, $c'(p) > c(p) \geq v_w(p)$ or $c'(p) < c(p) \leq v_w(p)$, then $\alpha(c, w) > \alpha(c', w)$.

That is, if c 's credences in propositions are at least as close as c' 's to the omniscient credence function at w , and closer for some proposition, then c has a higher accuracy score at w than does c' . This ensures that anything that counts as an accuracy score is appropriately related to the truth.

Separability $\alpha(c, w) = \sum_{p \in F} \alpha_l(c, p, w)$.

That is, the global accuracy of c is the sum of the local accuracies of the credences c assigns to individual propositions.

Strict propriety For every $c \in \mathcal{P}_F$ and every $c' \in \mathcal{C}_F$ such that $c' \neq c$, $\sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}} c(w)\alpha(c, w) > \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}} c(w)\alpha(c', w)$.

¹ E.g. Joyce (1998, 2009), Greaves and Wallace (2006), Leitgeb and Pettigrew (2010a, b), Pettigrew (2016a), Schoenfield (2015, 2017), Fitelson (manuscript).

59 That is, any accuracy measure is such that all probabilistic credence functions uniquely
60 maximize expected epistemic utility relative to themselves.

61 I will assume that if accuracy-first epistemology is correct, then ideally rational
62 agents are not ignorant of the correct epistemic decision rules or of which functions
63 are accuracy measures. For example: if maximizing expected utility is necessary for
64 rationality, then ideally rational agents accept that maximizing expected utility is
65 necessary for rationality; if epistemic utility functions must be truth-directed, they
66 know that epistemic utility functions must be truth-directed. Rational uncertainty of
67 rational decision rules is very, very hard to make sense of, as the literature on normative
68 uncertainty demonstrates.²

69 I will also assume that rational agents choose epistemic options that maximize
70 expected accuracy.

71 1.2 Modesty

72 Whether an agent is rational is a contingent fact that depends on the state of her hard-
73 ware. For example, agents who are rational at t may have their hardware malfunction
74 at t' , or may receive (misleading) evidence that their hardware is malfunctioning at t .
75 Example:

76 **Agnosticillin.** Jane currently has credence .5 in hypothesis h , on the basis of
77 total evidence e . Then she's told by a reliable friend that her tea was almost
78 certainly drugged with agnosticillin. People drugged with agnosticillin will tend
79 to have credences that are too high or too low given their evidence. Agnosticillin
80 is in no way introspectively detectable. Agnosticillin does not hamper people's
81 ability to detect their own credences and Jane knows what her credences are.
82 Jane is lucky: she was not drugged, but she has no way of knowing this. Jane is,
83 in fact, an ideally rational agent.

84 Assessment: Jane should be uncertain about whether her credence in h is rational
85 on her evidence.

86 Cases like this have been used to motivate the *Modesty* thesis:

87 *Modesty.* Ideally rational agents can be uncertain of their own rationality.

88 Note that this thesis is neutral with respect to whether rational higher-order uncertainty
89 should impact first-order credences. It is endorsed by both "level-bridgers" and "level-
90 splitters." Level-bridgers (e.g., Christensen 2007, 2009, 2010; Elga 2007, 2013a;
91 Horowitz 2014) believe that there are rational constraints on combinations of lower-
92 and higher-order credences, so that higher-order uncertainty can impact what first-
93 order credences are rationally permissible. Level-splitters (e.g., Williamson 2011,
94 2014, Weatherson manuscript; Lasonen-Aarnio 2010) accept the possibility of rational
95 higher-order uncertainty but treat it as irrelevant to first-order uncertainty.³

² See Sepielli (2014) for an illustration of the demands of characterizing how rational uncertainty about norms of practical rationality might be possible.

³ Modesty is not wholly uncontroversial, however; it is denied by, e.g., Titelbaum (manuscript).

Note also that even if an ideal agent is disposed to satisfy reflection-like principles that demand coherence between lower-order and higher-order credences,⁴ they may be stably modest. Suppose Jane is disposed to level-bridge in the face of higher-order evidence. Since she has no more reason to suppose her credence is too low than that it's too high, she has no reason to adjust her credence in h in response to her higher-order evidence. But she is also in no position to be confident that her response to her higher-order evidence is rational. After all, she reasons, suppose she should have had credence .7 in h . Then, upon receipt of her higher-order evidence, she should not have adjusted her credences, and should have ended up with credence .7 in h , instead of her actual credence of .5. Similarly for any other credal assignment.

Modesty may be generated by uncertainty about the demands of rationality in general, or about the demands of rationality given one's evidence, or about what one's evidence is, or about one's own epistemic states. There are different varieties of uncertainty about the demands of rationality in the Bayesian tradition:

1. *Prior uncertainty* uncertainty about which ur-priors are rational
2. *Update uncertainty* uncertainty about what update policy is rational, given a body of evidence
3. *Evidence uncertainty* uncertainty about what one's evidence is

Each of these forms of uncertainty is normative uncertainty.⁵ A fourth form of uncertainty that may yield modesty is not a form of normative uncertainty, but is relevant to our discussion:

4. *Introspective uncertainty* uncertainty about what one's credences are or how one updates

The focus of this paper is modesty that is generated by normative (epistemological) uncertainty rather than introspective uncertainty. We therefore focus on the modified thesis:

Transparent Modesty Ideally rational agents can be uncertain of their own rationality without being uncertain of their own doxastic attitudes.

1.3 Epistemic options

We assumed that a rational agent A must prefer credences that maximize expected epistemic utility by A 's own lights. Given strict propriety, if A 's credence function is probabilistic, then A will prefer her own current credence function over all other credence functions. So, one might ask, why should A ever update on new evidence? Wouldn't that involve moving to a credence function that A expects to be worse?

It depends on what *epistemic options* are available to the agent.⁶ Strict propriety requires probabilistic agents to prefer their own credence functions over all alternative

⁴ E.g. Christensen's (2010) Rational Reflection principle or Elga's (2013b) New RatRef principle.

⁵ It may not be obvious that evidence uncertainty counts as normative. I assume that it is. Evidence is a normative category: it's information that the agent is required to take into account.

⁶ So-called because the analogy to practical decision theory is illuminating; epistemic decision theorists do not presuppose epistemic voluntarism.

132 options if all of the alternative options are credence functions. But what if there are
133 other epistemic options?

134 Greaves and Wallace (2006) propose a different kind of epistemic option: what I'll
135 call *credal gambles*. Credal gambles are functions from worlds to credence functions.
136 Insofar as the agent doesn't know which world is actual, she may not know which
137 credence function she will end up with if she takes a credal gamble.

138 Credal gambles can have higher expected utility by the lights of a probabilistic
139 credence function than the option of maintaining that credence function, as the example
140 below illustrates:

141 **Toy example.** Suppose there are exactly two possible worlds: w_1 , where h is
142 true, and w_2 , where h is false. Suppose A is uncertain about h . She has the option
143 of maintaining her current (probabilistic) credence function, which she knows
144 is not maximally accurate. (After all, she is uncertain about h ; if her credences
145 were maximally accurate, she would be certain either about h or its negation—
146 whichever was true.) And she has the option of taking a credal gamble, which
147 will involve adopting credence 1 in h and 0 in $\neg h$ if w_1 is actual, and adopting
148 credence 0 in h and 1 in $\neg h$ if w_2 is actual. Then the expected accuracy of the
149 credal gamble is maximal. So it must have higher expected utility for A than the
150 option of maintaining her current credences.

151 Therefore, strict propriety does not have the result that rational agents will never prefer
152 to change their credences. Rational agents will prefer favorable credal gambles over
153 maintaining their own credence functions.

154 One might worry: shouldn't rational agents always prefer—and take—the credal
155 gamble that maps each world to the omniscient credence function at that world?
156 Truth-directedness guarantees that this credence function maximizes accuracy. But it
157 is uncontroversial that an agent is not irrational for failing to be omniscient. Greaves
158 and Wallace argue that not all credal gambles are epistemic options. For example, the
159 credal gamble that assigns the omniscient credence function of each world to each
160 world is not (or not always) an epistemic option.

161 Greaves and Wallace restrict epistemic options (which they call “available acts”)
162 to a specific set of credal gambles. To do so, they localize update policies to specific
163 learning experiences. Suppose A expects at t to undergo some learning experience at
164 some later t' , but isn't sure what she'll learn. Let \mathcal{E} be the set of propositions that she
165 thinks might be her total evidence upon undergoing this learning experience. Greaves
166 and Wallace stipulate that \mathcal{E} must be a partition. Credal gamble U is an epistemic option
167 for A at t just in case, for all $e \in \mathcal{E}$, for all $w, w' \in e$, $U(w) = U(w')$. In other words:
168 U is an epistemic option for A at t just in case there's a function $U_{\mathcal{E}} : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ such
169 that for all $w \in W$, if $w \in e$, then $U(w) = U_{\mathcal{E}}(e)$. Intuitively: the credence function
170 that U has you adopt is a function of your total evidence. It doesn't involve you being
171 sensitive to information that you don't possess. The natural interpretation of epistemic
172 options is that they represent the agent's plan for how to update her credences: if she
173 learns e_1 , she'll update to c_1 . If she learns e_2 , she'll update to c_2 . And so on.

174 Greaves and Wallace (2006) prove that if a rational agent prefers to maximize
175 expected accuracy relative to a strictly proper accuracy measure, then the agent will

176 prefer optional credal gambles that update by conditionalization on the agent's total
177 evidence.

178 2 The puzzle

179 2.1 Does accuracy-first epistemology permit prior uncertainty?

180 The central question of this paper is: Is rational transparent modesty compatible with
181 accuracy-first epistemology?

182 An agent's ur-priors can be metaphorically characterized as the credences she
183 assigns before receiving any evidence. Can a rational agent be transparently modest
184 about her ur-priors? If some ur-priors are rationally impermissible, then accuracy-first
185 epistemology says that their impermissibility is entailed by the fact that they violate
186 some epistemic decision rule for the pursuit of accuracy.

187 For example, Pettigrew (2016b) argues that the correct decision rule for ur-prior
188 selection is Maximin. Maximin requires rational agents to choose an option whose
189 worst possible outcome is no worse than the worst possible outcome of any other
190 option. Given a sigma algebra F of relevant propositions, there is exactly one proba-
191 bility function that satisfies Maximin with respect to accuracy: one that assigns equal
192 credence to all of the strongest non-empty elements of F . In other words, Pettigrew
193 argues, this credence function will satisfy a principle of indifference.

194 We assumed that rationality requires knowledge of the correct epistemic decision
195 rules and knowledge of what constitutes accuracy. So again, the rational agent can
196 immediately deduce which ur-priors are rationally permissible.⁷ So accuracy-first
197 epistemology rules out rational prior uncertainty.

198 2.2 Does accuracy-first epistemology permit update uncertainty?

199 For the same reasons, accuracy-first epistemology rules out rational update uncer-
200 tainty (uncertainty about what update policy is rational, given a body of evidence),
201 except insofar as the relevant uncertainty boils down to either evidence uncertainty or
202 introspective uncertainty.

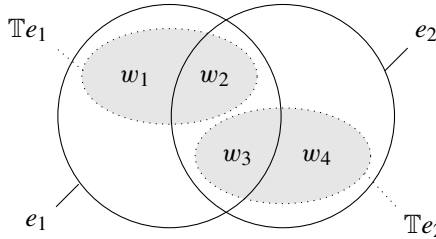
203 2.3 Does accuracy-first epistemology permit evidence uncertainty?

204 Schoenfield (2017) argues that accuracy-first epistemology rules out rational evidence
205 uncertainty. The argument runs as follows:

206 Recall Greaves and Wallace's condition on epistemic options: A 's learning expe-
207 rience is represented by the set of propositions \mathcal{E} that A might learn at t . A credal
208 gamble is an epistemic option just in case, for all $e \in \mathcal{E}$, U assigns the same credence
209 function to all worlds in e . What credence function the rational agent ends up with at
210 a world will be a function of what her total evidence is at that world.

⁷ Here I assume that accuracy-first epistemology requires ideally rational agents' certainties to be closed under entailment. This follows from probabilism.

211 Greaves and Wallace presuppose that \mathcal{E} is a partition. But let's suppose that in some
 212 circumstances an agent can regard it as possible that she learn e and possible that she
 213 learn $e' \neq e$ where e and e' are compatible. In such cases, if the agent's total evidence
 214 is e , her total evidence does not entail the proposition that e is her total evidence. Call
 215 this latter proposition $\mathbb{T}e$.



216
 217 If e and e' are compatible but not identical, can they warrant different updates?
 218 Intuitively, yes. But this is impossible given the definition of an epistemic option. For
 219 reductio, suppose $U_{\mathcal{E}}(e) \neq U_{\mathcal{E}}(e')$. Select an arbitrary $w \in e \cap e'$. By the definition
 220 of epistemic options, $U(w) = U_{\mathcal{E}}(e)$ and $U(w) = U_{\mathcal{E}}(e')$. Contradiction.

221 So if the agent's predicted evidence is nonpartitional, then U cannot be a function
 222 of her evidence propositions. It must be a function of a partition over W .

223 Greaves and Wallace assume the widely accepted thesis that the correct theory of
 224 epistemic rationality will make an agent's rational update policy a function of the total
 225 evidence she receives and her priors. What credence should she adopt in $w \in e \cap e'$? It
 226 depends on what total evidence she in fact receives from her learning experience in w .
 227 In all worlds where an agent's total evidence is e , epistemic options should assign the
 228 same credence function. But that means that the optional credal gambles will be those
 229 that are functions, not of \mathcal{E} , but of $\mathbb{T}\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbb{T}e : e \in \mathcal{E}\}$. Even if \mathcal{E} is nonpartitional, $\mathbb{T}\mathcal{E}$
 230 is partitional.

231 But note: for any partition Π such that all epistemic options assign uniform credence
 232 functions within the cells of Π , the epistemic option that maximizes expected accuracy
 233 will be one that is omniscient about the propositions in Π .⁸

234 So, Schoenfield concludes, accuracy-first epistemology requires that A prefer
 235 that if her total evidence is e , she be certain of $\mathbb{T}e$. Schoenfield shows that given
 236 Greaves and Wallace's characterization of credal gambles as epistemic options, the
 237 update policy that maximizes expected accuracy is not, *pace* Greaves and Wal-
 238 lace, conditionalization: where c^* is the agent's prior credence function, and where

239
$$c^*(x | y) =_{df} \frac{c^*(x \wedge y)}{c^*(y)},$$

240 *Conditionalization* Given total evidence e , adopt $c_e = c^*(\cdot | e)$.

241 Instead, Schoenfield shows, maximizing expected accuracy requires conditionalizing,
 242 not on one's total evidence e , but on $\mathbb{T}e$ —even if e doesn't entail $\mathbb{T}e$. Following Hild
 243 (1998), call this rule “auto-epistemic conditionalization” or ‘A-E conditionalization’:

244 *A-E conditionalization* Given total evidence e , adopt $c_e = c^*(\cdot | \mathbb{T}e)$.

⁸ If the partition is maximally fine-grained, then all credal gambles are epistemic options, and then only the policy of updating to omniscience maximizes expected utility.

Author Proof

245 So, given Greaves and Wallace's characterization of epistemic options, accuracy-first
246 epistemology rules out rational evidence uncertainty.

247 Objection: Greaves and Wallace's result, and Schoenfield's generalization, only
248 require that rational agents synchronically prefer, in advance, to update in certain
249 ways on their total evidence. For all that, the agent may update in a different way, and
250 end up with a probabilistic credence function that both maximizes expected utility by
251 its own lights and exhibits evidence uncertainty.

252 Reply: insofar as accuracy-first epistemology is capable of supporting evidentialism
253 at all, it will have to make an agent's epistemic rationality sensitive to the agent's
254 evidence. How is A 's credence function specifically constrained by e ? The constraint
255 may come not from coherence but from update: conforming to a diachronic update
256 policy that, by A 's lights prior to receiving e , maximized expected accuracy. Or it may
257 be that update policies can be reinterpreted synchronically, such that when A already
258 has total evidence e , the fact that c_e maximizes expected utility with respect to other
259 credal gambles over \mathcal{E} by the lights of some prior credence function constrains A
260 to have c_e . Update policies are the only moving part in the apparatus that is sensitive to
261 evidence at all.

262 2.4 Whither transparent modesty?

263 Problem: Accuracy-first epistemology seems to rule out all forms of transparent mod-
264 esty. But examples like the Agnosticillin case suggested that transparent modesty is
265 possible. A preview: I'll argue that with a different decision framework, epistemic
266 decision theory can rescue evidence uncertainty. (It may be that prior uncertainty
267 and update uncertainty are lost causes for epistemic decision theory—at it might be
268 that that fact ultimately reveals epistemic decision theory to be untenable.) To make
269 sense of evidence uncertainty, it's helpful to look to the analogy with introspective
270 uncertainty.

271 3 Lessons from introspective uncertainty

272 3.1 First pass

273 Does accuracy-first epistemology permit introspective uncertainty? At first pass: no.

274 Suppose some epistemic option U^* will sometimes generate a credence function
275 with introspective uncertainty. That is, for some proposition p , it'll assign credence
276 n , but will assign credence less than 1 to the proposition (*):

277 (*) My credence in p is n .

278 If the agent adopts this credence function in all worlds compatible with her evidence,
279 then (*) is true at every world compatible with her evidence. But if a proposition is true
280 at every world compatible with her evidence, then any credal gamble that maximizes
281 expected accuracy with respect to her prior will have the agent assign it credence 1.

282 So accuracy-first epistemology seems to rule out the possibility of introspective
283 uncertainty.

284 **3.2 Second pass**

285 The argument for why introspective uncertainty would be prohibited depended on what
 286 Carr (2017) calls a “consequentialist” version of epistemic decision theory. Conse-
 287 quentialist epistemic decision theory functions identically to practical decision theory,
 288 except that it imposes restrictions on the space of options (to include only epistemic
 289 options) and utility functions (to include only accuracy measures). The logical space
 290 of its decision problems is the space of possible worlds. We can represent its decision
 291 problems, as usual, using partitions of options and partitions of possible states of the
 292 world. Both options and states are possible worlds propositions. The possible states,
 293 orthogonal to the agent’s acts, that the agent is uncertain about must be coarse enough
 294 to be compatible with multiple epistemic options. Decision problems can be repre-
 295 sented with decision matrices, where columns represent possible states of the world
 296 and rows represent possible acts. A simple example:

	s_1	s_2
c_1	w_1	w_2
c_2	w_3	w_4

297

298 Here, w_1 and w_2 are worlds in which the agent adopts c_1 , while w_3 and w_4 are worlds
 299 in which the agent adopts c_2 .

300 Contrast consequentialist epistemic decision theory with nonconsequentialist epis-
 301 temic decision theory—a form of decision theory tacitly,⁹ employed by many
 302 accuracy-first epistemologists and necessary for results like Joyce’s (1998; 2009)
 303 accuracy-dominance argument for probabilism, Greaves and Wallace’s (2006)
 304 expected utility argument for conditionalization, Pettigrew’s (2012; 2013) various
 305 arguments for the principal principle, and so on. These results do not hold up in con-
 306 sequentialist epistemic decision theory, and probabilism, conditionalization, and the
 307 principal principle are all subject to rational violations (Greaves 2013; Caie 2013; Carr
 308 2017; for discussion, see Konek and Levinstein (2019).

309 Nonconsequentialist epistemic decision theory is nonconsequentialist in the sense
 310 that it does not assess credence functions in terms of the epistemic utility gained
 311 as a consequence of the agent’s adoption of those credence functions. Each option
 312 is assessed at all worlds—including worlds in which that option is not selected. This
 313 requires using a finer grained logical space, which allows for a different representation
 314 of epistemic options and epistemic decision problems.

⁹ N.B. the cited papers don’t mention the ways in which the nonconsequentialist decision theories used differ from traditional practical decision theories, and in later work Pettigrew (2018) endorses consequentialist epistemic decision theory.

	w_1	w_2	w_3	w_4
c_1	$\langle c_1, w_1 \rangle$	$\langle c_1, w_2 \rangle$	$\langle c_1, w_3 \rangle$	$\langle c_1, w_4 \rangle$
c_2	$\langle c_2, w_1 \rangle$	$\langle c_2, w_2 \rangle$	$\langle c_2, w_3 \rangle$	$\langle c_2, w_4 \rangle$

315

316 The logical space needed for this basic form of nonconsequentialist epistemic decision
 317 theory is a set of world–credence function pairs. Hence c_1 can be assessed as more or
 318 less accurate than c_2 at w_4 —a world in which the agent in fact adopts c_2 . Each option
 319 is assigned an accuracy score at all worlds, *including worlds in which it is not selected*.
 320 The epistemic value of a credence function in a world is therefore not determined by
 321 the consequences (causal or constitutive) of the epistemic act performed by the agent
 322 in that world—hence nonconsequentialist.¹⁰

323 Distinguish between a *credence function* (a mathematical object; notation: c)
 324 versus an *agent's act of possessing or adopting a credence function* at a time (a
 325 proposition: the set of worlds in which the relevant agent adopts the credence function
 326 at the relevant time; notation: Δc). Each is assessable for accuracy: c 's accuracy *at*
 327 a world versus Δc 's accuracy *in* a world.

328 We can define an accuracy measure for Δc as follows: for a set of worlds $s \subseteq \Delta c$,
 329 $\alpha^*(\Delta c, s) = \alpha(c, w)$ for all $w \in s$. If $s \not\subseteq \Delta c$, or if $\alpha(c, w)$ isn't uniform across s ,
 330 then $\alpha^*(\Delta c, s)$ is undefined. Note that while c has a defined inaccuracy score at every
 331 world, Δc does not. $\alpha^*(\Delta c, \{w\})$ is defined only if w is a world in which the agent
 332 adopts c .

333 3.3 Interpretations of nonconsequentialist decision theory

334 Nonconsequentialist epistemic decision theory diverges from traditional practical decision
 335 theories by redrawing the logical space of its decision problems.¹¹ Its new decision
 336 problems stand in need of interpretation. I will sketch out two possible interpretations;
 337 this paper remains agnostic about which, if either, represents a better understanding
 338 of the formalism.

339 3.3.1 Interpretation #1: Evaluation of free-floating mathematical objects

340 We needn't think of the formalism that nonconsequentialist epistemic decision theory
 341 uses as representing a decision theory for agents. Instead, we can think of it as a tool
 342 for assessing “free-floating” credence functions for accuracy. Each credence function,
 343 understood as a mathematical object rather than an instantiated doxastic state, exists at

¹⁰ The irrelevance of causal consequences makes a difference in cases of epistemic act-state dependence; such cases are discussed in all papers *ibid*. Here, we are not concerned with such cases and are restricted to constitutive consequences—a less familiar notion, and less obvious in how they distinguish consequentialism from nonconsequentialism.

¹¹ Briggs (2009) defends a form of practical analogue of nonconsequentialist epistemic decision theory and argues that choosing options that are dominated within this form of decision problem reveals incoherence, while mere Dutchbookability does not.

344 each world (like all other mathematical objects). A credence function may maximize
 345 expected accuracy by some agent's lights even if the act of her adopting that credence
 346 function would not maximize expected accuracy.

347 This conception clarifies the sense in which the theory is nonconsequentialist. Cre-
 348 dence functions, qua mathematical objects, do not enter into causal relations and
 349 therefore cannot have causal consequences (unlike acts of possessing or adopting
 350 credence functions).

351 3.3.2 Interpretation #2: decision theory without self-locating information

352 Another way to understand the distinction between consequentialist and nonconse-
 353 quentialist decision theories: in consequentialist decision theories, decision problems
 354 are organized in terms of self-locating information: an agent A 's options at a time t
 355 carve up the logical space in terms of the possible consequences of A 's selecting each
 356 option at t . Nonconsequentialist epistemic decision theory doesn't organize decision
 357 problems in this way. It doesn't make use of self-locating information about who A
 358 is. In particular, it doesn't partition logical space into options in terms of *de dicto*
 359 propositions about which act A performs in each world.

360 Instead, the options partition logical space orthogonally to the question of which
 361 options the agent selects in each world. If we were to imagine a decision theory
 362 appropriate for the Gods in Lewis (1979), who know various *de dicto* facts about the
 363 world but don't know which of the two Gods they are, it might be formally the same
 364 as nonconsequentialist epistemic decision theory. Indeed, to remove all self-locating
 365 information from the decision problem, the decision problem doesn't even assume
 366 that the agent exists in all of the worlds relevant to the decision. A 's epistemic options
 367 do not partition W ; they partition the enriched logical space $\mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{C}$.

368 Note that the *de se* interpretation of nonconsequentialism needn't require that agents
 369 forget, or even pretend to forget, who they are, even temporarily. It's just that *this*
 370 *information isn't used* in constructing decision problems in the way that it is in con-
 371 sequentialist epistemic decision theory.¹²

372 For ease of exposition, it's helpful to distinguish the agent of the decision problem
 373 from her "counterparts" in each world.¹³ A can think about herself *de se* as the agent
 374 of the decision problem; she can also think about herself *de dicto* or *de re* in terms
 375 of her counterparts in each world. A can assess the value (accuracy) of an option (c)
 376 at a world in which A 's counterpart's credence function is $c' \neq c$. Importantly for
 377 present purposes: What credence A 's counterpart has within w is no more relevant to

¹² A comparison: consider practical decision theory using expected utility theory. Suppose I'm uncertain about the state of the world, and also uncertain about whether my credences over the different possible states of the world are rational. Expected utility theory tells me that only my first-order uncertainty is relevant to the decision problem. It *ignores* the extra information about the fact that I'm uncertain about the rationality of my state of first-order uncertainty. (One might, e.g., construct a different decision theory that recommends hedging more in cases when you doubt the rationality of your first-order credences than in cases where you're confident of their rationality.) But we needn't assume expected utility theory requires the agent to forget about this information.

¹³ This paper is neutral about the existence or nature of trans-world identity; it does not rely on a Lewis (1971)-style conception of counterparts.

378 which credence function A can assess at w than what credence function anyone else
379 has within w .

380 So: c may assign n to p . But within some world–credence function pairs compatible
381 with the c option are worlds in which A 's counterparts don't assign credence n to p —
382 that is, worlds in which (*) is false. And so it won't necessarily maximize expected
383 accuracy to be certain of (*). Within nonconsequentialist epistemic decision theory,
384 then, introspective uncertainty is not rationally prohibited.

385 4 An objection to Greaves and Wallace

386 Nonconsequentialist epistemic decision theory allows for the construction of decision
387 problems for free-floating credence functions, or decision problems without
388 self-locating information about any agent. On one interpretation, the objects of
389 evaluation—free-floating credence functions—are orthogonal to any agent's credence
390 function at any world. On another, the agent A 's credal options are represented as
391 orthogonal to her counterparts' possible credences. So A 's counterparts' credences
392 play no more distinguished role in the decision problem than any other person's cre-
393 dences.

394 How can we generalize nonconsequentialist epistemic decision theory from cre-
395 dence functions to credal gambles—that is, synchronic to diachronic rationality, or
396 from mere internal coherence to evidence-sensitive rationality?

397 Greaves and Wallace's epistemic decision theory for update assumes and builds
398 on Joyce's (1998) accuracy-based argument for probabilism. Joyce's result is only
399 successful if interpreted as nonconsequentialist, and Greaves and Wallace's result
400 requires elements of nonconsequentialist decision theory. In particular, they require
401 each credal gamble to be evaluable in worlds where the agent doesn't select that credal
402 gamble. This is not merely necessary to ensure that introspective uncertainty is ratio-
403 nally permissible, which is itself controversial. Without this assumption, Carr (2017)
404 shows, there are counterexamples to Greaves and Wallace's conditionalization result:
405 cases where consequentialist epistemic decision theory requires violating conditional-
406 ization. Worse, Greaves and Wallace's result also depends on the assumption of strict
407 propriety.¹⁴ But within consequentialist epistemic decision theory, there are no strictly
408 proper accuracy measures.¹⁵

409 However, Greaves and Wallace's decision theory for update looks consequentialist
410 in crucial ways. Their treatment of agent's credence functions is nonconsequen-
411 tialist: the identity of the agent does not structure the decision problems with
412 respect to the available credence functions. But their treatment of agent's evidence
413 is consequentialist: the agent's identity does structure the decision problems with
414 respect to the partition of evidence (as I explain below). Greaves and Wallace's

¹⁴ Greaves and Wallace call strictly proper accuracy measures "everywhere strongly stable."

¹⁵ Carr (2017, p. 521, fn. 23). This point assumes that consequentialist epistemic decision theory is committed to interpreting Strict Propriety in consequentialist terms: as saying that all *acts of adopting* a probabilistic credence function maximize expected α^* , rather than that all probabilistic credence functions maximize expected α . To motivate strict propriety as a requirement on accuracy measures within consequentialist epistemic decision theory, we need a consequentialist notion of strict propriety. But that notion is unsatisfiable.

415 decision theory therefore cobbles together assumptions from two fundamentally dif-
 416 ferent forms of epistemic decision theory, in ways that are hard to interpret or
 417 justify.

418 A problem for Greaves and Wallace's decision theory, then, is that it uses an unmotivated
 419 hybrid of consequentialist and nonconsequentialist epistemic decision theories.
 420 It excludes self-locating information about the agent's counterparts' *credences*, but
 421 it includes self-locating information about the agent's counterparts' *evidence*. In the
 422 context of coherence, it evaluates free-floating credence functions. But in the con-
 423 text of update, it evaluates functions from propositions about *some individual's* total
 424 evidence to *free-floating* credence functions. It's hard to see what could justify these
 425 pairings.

426 The upshot: whenever we use an *even partly* consequentialist epistemic decision
 427 theory, we are forced to give up elements of Bayesianism and other plausible epistemic
 428 principles. With purely consequentialist epistemic decision theory, we're forced to give
 429 up probabilism,¹⁶ conditionalization,¹⁷ and the principal principle.¹⁸ With Greaves
 430 and Wallace's hybrid of consequentialist and nonconsequentialist epistemic decision
 431 theories, we're likewise forced to give up conditionalization.

432 The distinction between consequentialist and nonconsequentialist epistemic deci-
 433 sion theory is sometimes understood in terms of whether the theory considers the
 434 causal consequences of the believer's epistemic acts. Cases where a proposition's
 435 truth value depends on the agent's credal acts are hard problems for epistemic deci-
 436 sion theory, and for epistemology in general. But the problem is, I suggest, more
 437 general. First and most obviously, similar problems arise for cases where a credal
 438 act *constitutively*, rather than causally, verifies or falsifies credences therein (as in
 439 the case of higher-order credences). Second, for proponents of evidential decision
 440 theory, the problems arise for propositions that are causally independent, but not
 441 probabilistically independent, of credal acts.¹⁹ Third, the cases that motivate Trans-
 442 parent Modesty, e.g. Agnosticillin above and Unmarked Clock below, aren't cases
 443 where the relevant propositions' truth value depends on the agent's credal act. Never-
 444 theless, I claim, these are of a kind with problems for consequentialism. What unites
 445 these problems is that they arise where epistemic decision theories treat the objects
 446 of epistemic evaluation as elements in the system that those objects aim to repre-
 447 sent. Yes, we believers exist in the worlds that we form beliefs about, and we form
 448 beliefs about ourselves and the consequences of our acts. But that doesn't mean that
 449 either believers or credal acts are the appropriate objects of epistemic decision the-
 450 ory.

¹⁶ As Caie (2013) shows.

¹⁷ As Carr (2017) shows.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, fn. 27.

¹⁹ See Carr (2017).

451 5 Epistemic decision theory for update

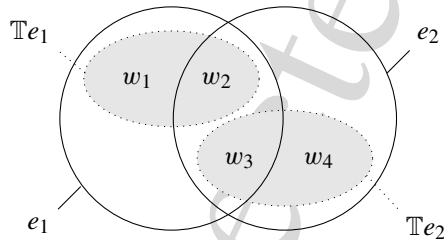
452 5.1 Generalization of nonconsequentialist decision theory

453 How might the nonconsequentialist representation of decision problems generalize
 454 from probabilism to conditionalization—that is, from evaluations of coherence to
 455 evaluations of evidence-sensitive rationality or rational update?

456 A's epistemic options should be functions of the total evidence A might receive.
 457 But because self-locating information is removed from the decision problems, A's
 458 epistemic options need not be functions of the total evidence that A's counterparts
 459 might receive. Crucially, in order for her decision problem to exclude self-locating
 460 information, it must be that whatever total evidence A's counterparts receive plays no
 461 more distinguished role in the decision problem than any other person's total evidence.
 462 How can this be possible?

463 We have to formally distinguish A's evidence from the evidence her counterparts
 464 receive in any possible world. (Just as we distinguished A's optional credences from the
 465 credences A's counterparts take within any possible world). But for update planning,
 466 A may still be uncertain about what evidence she will receive. So the state space for
 467 her decision problem cannot merely be \mathcal{W} : it must be $\mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{E}$. So the logical space for
 468 nonconsequentialist decision problems should be generalized to $\mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{C}$.

469 Return to the toy example of nonpartitioned evidence, defined over possible worlds:



470
 471 A decision problem for this example might be represented as follows:

$$\langle w_1, e_1 \rangle \quad \langle w_2, e_1 \rangle \quad \langle w_3, e_1 \rangle \quad \langle w_2, e_2 \rangle \quad \langle w_3, e_2 \rangle \quad \langle w_4, e_2 \rangle$$

472 U_1	$\langle w_1, e_1, c_1 \rangle$	$\langle w_2, e_1, c_1 \rangle$	$\langle w_3, e_1, c_1 \rangle$	$\langle w_2, e_2, c_2 \rangle$	$\langle w_3, e_2, c_2 \rangle$	$\langle w_4, e_2, c_2 \rangle$
U_2	$\langle w_1, e_1, c_3 \rangle$	$\langle w_2, e_1, c_3 \rangle$	$\langle w_3, e_1, c_3 \rangle$	$\langle w_2, e_2, c_4 \rangle$	$\langle w_3, e_2, c_4 \rangle$	$\langle w_4, e_2, c_4 \rangle$

473 Credal gambles, in this space, are functions from $\langle w, e \rangle$ pairs to credence functions.

474 5.2 Choice points

475 Greaves and Wallace's framework for assessing the expected accuracy of credal gambles
 476 rules out evidence uncertainty because of their representation of epistemic decision
 477 problems. I've argued that the appropriate representation of decision problems,
 478 and corresponding decision rules, for update policies should be a generalization of
 479 decision problems and decision rules used in the assessment of (synchronic) coherence.

480 Generalizing our representation of decision problems leaves open questions about
 481 how to generalize the corresponding representation of epistemic options, accuracy,
 482 and decision rules. Indeed, we're even left with choice points about the logical space
 483 for the decision problems. Finally, the epistemic decision problems, with their distinct
 484 representation of evidence that A receives from evidence that A 's counterparts receive,
 485 stand in need of philosophical interpretation.

486 My aim in this paper is to motivate a new framework for understanding epistemic
 487 decision problems for update policies, and to show that it accommodates rational
 488 transparent modesty. I will not take a stand on how these different choice points are
 489 best resolved. Below I'll explore some options, and then finally show how different
 490 options will yield the result that transparently modest update policies may be rationally
 491 permissible.

492 5.2.1 Epistemic options

493 The most conservative generalization of Greaves and Wallace's epistemic options,
 494 tailored for nonconsequentialist epistemic decision problems, will make epistemic
 495 options the set of credal gambles that assign uniform credence functions to all $\langle w, e \rangle$
 496 pairs that share an e coordinate.

497 Let $\mathbb{L}e_i$ be the proposition that includes all $\langle w, e \rangle$ pairs that have e_i as their e coordi-
 498 nate. Let $\mathbb{L}\mathcal{E}$ be the set of all propositions $\mathbb{L}e_i$ such that $e_i \in \mathcal{E}$, where \mathcal{E} , as usual,
 499 represents the set of total evidence (possible worlds) propositions that A may learn as
 500 the result of her learning experience. $\mathbb{L}e$ propositions represent the agent's evidence,
 501 rather than the evidence her counterparts receive in each possible world. $\mathbb{L}\mathcal{E}$ forms a
 502 partition even when \mathcal{E} does not. (This is by design; as we saw, the assumption that possi-
 503 ble learned evidence would need to be partitional entailed that rational agents exhibit
 504 no evidence uncertainty.) Then epistemic options may be represented as functions from
 505 $\mathbb{L}\mathcal{E}$ to credence functions. Alternatively, epistemic options may be more restricted.

506 We also face the question of whether the credence functions assigned by epis-
 507 temic options are credence functions over possible worlds propositions or $\langle w, e \rangle$ -
 508 propositions.

509 5.2.2 Accuracy measures

510 In the form of nonconsequentialist epistemic decision theory that is often presupposed
 511 in accuracy-first epistemology, the logical space for decision problems is not the space
 512 of possible worlds, but a space of world-credence function pairs. But the accuracy of a
 513 credence function c is not measured according to its proximity to the indicator function
 514 of a $\langle w, c \rangle$ -pair. Instead, c 's accuracy is measured according to its proximity to the
 515 indicator function of w . Here, there is no reason for c range over $\langle w, c \rangle$ propositions;
 516 instead, it can simply range over possible worlds propositions.

517 Our generalization for update must be tweaked: A is uncertain of what evidence
 518 she might receive (before receiving it; here I don't presuppose evidence uncertainty),
 519 and the evidence that she might receive is represented as orthogonal to the evidence
 520 that her counterparts receive across possible worlds. So A 's credence function must
 521 range over $\langle w, e \rangle$ -propositions. I discuss interpretations of this uncertainty below.

522 Here, we face a choice point over whether accuracy is to be measured according
 523 to proximity to possible worlds or $\langle w, e \rangle$ -pairs. If we choose the former, simpler
 524 option, and if epistemic options assign credence functions that are defined over $\langle w, e \rangle$ -
 525 propositions, then we must give up strict propriety.

526 Let p be a $\langle w, e \rangle$ -proposition. Define $\mathbb{S}p$ as the set of $\langle w, e \rangle$ -pairs such that if
 527 any pair in p has w_i as its world coordinate, then every pair with w_i as its world
 528 coordinate is in $\mathbb{S}p$. In other words, if p doesn't rule out a world, then $\mathbb{S}p$ contains all
 529 pairs that contain that world. These propositions are the analogues of possible worlds
 530 propositions in the new decision space: they do not make finer-grained distinctions.
 531 Any two credence functions that assign all the same probabilities to the \mathbb{S} -propositions
 532 that they are assigned over will have the same accuracy as each other at every world.
 533 Therefore neither will assign the other greater or lesser expected accuracy than itself.
 534 We can at best impose the weaker propriety constraint, adapted to the new space:

535 *Propriety.* For every $c \in \mathcal{P}_F$ and every $c' \in \mathcal{C}_F$ such that $c' \neq c$, $\sum_{\langle w, e \rangle \in \mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{E}} c(w, e)$
 536 $\alpha(c, w) \geq \sum_{\langle w, e \rangle \in \mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{E}} c(w, e) \alpha(c', w)$.

537 5.2.3 Logical space

538 Evidence is factive. For this reason, we might not treat all $\langle w, e \rangle$ pairs as possible, but
 539 instead rule out all $\langle w, e \rangle$ -pairs such that $w \notin e$. Alternatively, we might allow such
 540 points in our logical space. Should these points be doxastic possibilities for agents?
 541 If not, we may separately derive a rational prohibition on assigning positive credence
 542 to any $\langle w, e \rangle$ -pair where $w \notin e$.

543 5.2.4 Epistemic decision rules

544 Different variants of dominance avoidance and expected accuracy maximization may
 545 be appropriate depending on how the parameters for epistemic options, accuracy mea-
 546 sures, and logical space are set.

547 5.2.5 Philosophical interpretation

548 Nonconsequentialist decision theories face a general challenge for how they should be
 549 philosophically interpreted.²⁰ Our extension faces these interpretive problems and oth-
 550 ers. In particular, we need a philosophical interpretation of what attitudes the believer
 551 takes toward $\langle w, e \rangle$ -propositions. One suggestion: the agent's interaction with her
 552 evidence comes in two forms:

- 553 1. *Causal-normative role* What evidence she actually receives should determine how
 554 she updates.
- 555 2. *Beliefobject role* What evidence she might receive is a fact about the world that she
 556 can think about (in the same way that she can think about what evidence anyone
 557 else might receive).

²⁰ See Carr (2017) for discussion.

558 For the purposes of update, these two roles may come apart. The first role is essentially
 559 self-locating; the second is not. The e coordinate satisfies the first role; facts about her
 560 counterparts' evidence in each w satisfy the second role.

561 The most conservative use of our framework will make the e component relevant
 562 only in the context of epistemic decision-making. Otherwise it will be invisible. In
 563 this case, it should have limited impact on the agent's credences in possible worlds
 564 propositions. The extent of the impact will be affected by choices of epistemic options,
 565 accuracy measures, logical space, and epistemic decision rules.

566 6 Proof of concept

567 Again, my aim is to introduce a representation of nonconsequentialist decision prob-
 568 lems appropriate for update. I will not argue for any particular selections for the above
 569 choice points or show that given these selections, some update strategy or other is
 570 rational.

571 I also aim to show that this representation of epistemic decision theory, unlike
 572 Greaves and Wallace's, is capable of accommodating rational evidence uncertainty
 573 and hence transparent modesty. Below, I consider a few examples:

574 6.1 Example 1

575 First: suppose epistemic options are all and only functions from $\mathbb{L}\mathcal{E}$ propositions to
 576 credence functions. Suppose further that accuracy is measured relative to worlds, and
 577 that the logical space does not contain $\langle w, e \rangle$ -pairs where $w \notin e$. Rational agents
 578 maximize expected accuracy, where the expected accuracy of an epistemic option U
 579 relative to a prior c^* is represented as follows:

$$580 \sum_{\langle w, e \rangle \in \mathcal{W} \times \mathcal{E}} c^*(w, e) \mathbf{a}(U(w, e), w)$$

581 Now, one of the most compelling examples of rational evidence uncertainty is
 582 Williamson's (2011; 2014) case of the unmarked clock. Here is a simplified version:

583 **Unmarked clock.** Jane is about to look at an "irritatingly austere" clock where
 584 the minutes and hours are entirely unmarked. The clock's minute hand moves
 585 in discrete one-minute steps. Jane knows that she will not be able to discern
 586 which exact minute the clock is pointing to: her visual evidence will not be
 587 fine-grained enough. Instead, she knows, what visual evidence she receives will
 588 leave a margin of error: if the clock in fact reads 4:21, she will only receive the
 589 evidence that the clock reads either 4:20, 4:21, or 4:22. In general, iff the time
 590 reads n , her evidence will be that the clock's reading is in $n \pm 1$ minute. Before
 591 seeing the clock, Jane sees every possible setting of the clock as equiprobable.

592 Suppose there are 720 worlds: one for each reading of the clock. Let w_i be the
 593 world in which the clock reads i . Jane knows that at each w_i , she has evidence
 594 $e_i = \{w_{i-1}, w_i, w_{i+1}\}$.

595 How should Jane respond to whatever evidence she receives? Many²¹ accept that,
 596 if Jane's evidence is e_i , Jane should conditionalize on e_i , becoming certain of it, but
 597 uncertain of which world in e_i is actual. Because it will be an open possibility, after
 598 learning e_i , that w_{i-1} is the actual world, it will be an open possibility for her that
 599 her evidence is not e_i but e_{i-1} . Indeed, if she conditionalizes on her prior, she will
 600 give each world in e_i equal probability, and so will be $2/3$ confident that e_i is not her
 601 evidence. Hence she will exhibit evidence uncertainty and, assuming she introspects
 602 her credences, will be transparently modest: uncertain of what her evidence is, and
 603 therefore whether her credences are rational on her evidence.

604 Jane's evidence is nonpartitional. Given Greaves and Wallace's representation of
 605 decision problems, the update strategy that is rational for Jane is A-E conditionaliza-
 606 tion. This will require her to be certain not just of her evidence, but of the specific
 607 reading of the clock. This follows from the fact that for every e_i , the proposition $\mathbb{T}e_i$
 608 is equivalent to $\{w_i\}$.

609 Can our framework do better? Given the assumptions above, the Greaves and
 610 Wallace result entails that, within our new epistemic decision problems, any epis-
 611 temic option that maximizes expected utility within this framework will be one that
 612 assigns credences over \mathbb{S} -propositions that are updated by conditionalization on $\mathbb{L}e$.
 613 (Other propositions do not impact accuracy.) Suppose that Jane's prior (before seeing
 614 the clock) distributes credence equally among the possible $\langle w_i, e_j \rangle$ -pairs. Then the
 615 epistemic option that maximizes expected accuracy will assign equal probability to
 616 $\langle w_{i-1}, e_i \rangle$, $\langle w_i, e_i \rangle$, and $\langle w_{i+1}, e_i \rangle$. Since all three are worlds where e_i is true, and
 617 w_{i-1} and w_{i+1} are both worlds where $\mathbb{T}e_i$ is false, this epistemic option will be certain
 618 of $\mathbb{S}e_i$ but only have credence $1/3$ that $\mathbb{T}e$, as desired.²²

²¹ Williamson (2011, 2014), Christensen (2010), Elga (2013a).

²² This case shows that the new framework can accommodate Modesty—but what *Transparent Modesty*? To see how transparency might be achieved, let's elaborate on Williamson's example. Initially we partitioned worlds only according to the minute hand of the clock. That's not fine-grained enough to represent propositions about the agent's credences, as needed for transparency.

Suppose w_7 is actual. For appropriate fine-graining, we'll divide this into three worlds, compatible with three possibilities that she allows for what her credences will be conditional on w_7 .

- w_7^h her credence function is centered too high: it assigns positive credence to $\{w_7, w_8, w_9\}$
- w_7^l her credence function is centered too low: it assigns positive credence to $\{w_5, w_6, w_7\}$
- w_7^j her credence function is centered just right: it assigns positive credence to $\{w_6, w_7, w_8\}$

So from the initial space of 720 possibilities, we can divide each possibility in our old partition into three worlds: ones where her credences the clock reads i and her credences are centered too high, too low, or just right. So upon updating on e_7 , Jane's credence function now leaves nine worlds open, and she suffers introspective uncertainty. But now, perhaps, Jane expects to undergo a second, *introspective* learning experience. Suppose this second learning experience is partitional, and one of cell of the partition is $\{w_6^h, w_7^j, w_8^l\}$ —the set of remaining worlds where her credence function is centered on 7 (as it actually is). Since this learning experience is partitional, she can update as Greaves and Wallace predicted, and be certain of her own credences, without thereby being certain of her evidence in the learning experience. She can therefore satisfy *Transparent Modesty* with respect to her total evidence. Note that on this picture, what justifies transparency isn't that it's always required for maximum accuracy, but rather that it's a rational response to specifically introspective evidence.

619 **6.2 Example 2**

620 The epistemic option that will maximize expected utility within this framework, given
 621 the assumptions in the previous subsection, will update by conditionalization on $\mathbb{L}e$.
 622 This will not always coincide with conditionalization on e among possible worlds
 623 propositions. When a rational agent receives evidence e_1 , she'll update on $\mathbb{L}e_1$ —a
 624 strictly stronger proposition than e_1 (assuming factivity of evidence). Her resulting
 625 credences may therefore violate conditionalization with respect to possible worlds
 626 propositions.

627 It's not obvious that this is a bad result. Gallow (2014, unpublished) and Bronfman
 628 (2014) have argued that in cases where an agent's future evidence is expected to be
 629 nonpartitional, or cases where the agent does not know what her evidence is, updating
 630 by conditionalization is sometimes irrational. Consider the toy example from Sect. 2.4.

631 Suppose that the agent's prior c^* is divided evenly over w_1, \dots, w_4 . Then since w_2
 632 and w_3 are both compatible with two evidence propositions, in our finer logical space,
 633 they'll each have to divide into two $\langle w, e \rangle$ pairs; we'll again split the agent's credence
 634 evenly.

635

	$\langle w_1, e_1 \rangle$	$\langle w_2, e_1 \rangle$	$\langle w_3, e_1 \rangle$	$\langle w_2, e_2 \rangle$	$\langle w_3, e_2 \rangle$	$\langle w_4, e_2 \rangle$
c^*	1/4	1/8	1/8	1/8	1/8	1/4

636 The left three boxes correspond the $\mathbb{L}e_1$ and the right to $\mathbb{L}e_2$. If the agent conditionalizes
 637 on $\mathbb{L}e_1$, her credences will update to $c^*(\cdot \mid \mathbb{L}e_1)$, which differs in possible worlds
 638 propositions from updating by conditionalization on e_1 :

639

	w_1	w_2	w_3
$c^*(\cdot \mid \mathbb{L}e_1)$	1/2	1/4	1/4
$c^*(\cdot \mid e_1)$	1/3	1/3	1/3

640 Note that while this update violates conditionalization, it conforms to the alternative
 641 to conditionalization, ExCondi, defended in Gallow (unpublished). The extent of this
 642 consonance depends on the assignment of priors over the enriched logical space.

643 **6.3 General considerations**

644 So far, this framework places few constraints on rational responses to evidence. For
 645 example, if conditionalization on $\mathbb{L}e$ -propositions doesn't conform to conditional-
 646 ization over possible-worlds propositions, one might worry that update is utterly
 647 unconstrained. We can mitigate this worry, at least somewhat, by noting that at the
 648 level of possible worlds propositions, the resulting credence functions will conform
 649 to Jeffrey Conditionalization relative to some input partition. This partition will be
 650 non-trivial in any case where there are questions that $\mathbb{L}e$ is irrelevant to. Further con-
 651 straints may come from motivated restrictions on the distribution of priors over relevant
 652 $\langle w, e \rangle$ -propositions.

653 Other assumptions about the space of epistemic options, accuracy measures, logical
 654 space, epistemic decision rules, and philosophical interpretation may be warranted.
 655 There are possible restrictions on epistemic options that yield the result that con-
 656 formity to conditionalization over possible worlds propositions maximizes expected
 657 utility. There are other possible restrictions that instead require A-E conditionalization
 658 and prohibit evidence uncertainty. This representation of epistemic decision problems
 659 merely allows, rather than mandates, transparent modesty.

660 7 Conclusion

661 The primary ambitions of this paper have been negative. First, I argued that accuracy-
 662 first epistemology as traditionally understood seems unable to accommodate a widely
 663 held view among epistemologists, namely, Transparent Modesty. Various forms of
 664 higher-order uncertainty seem impossible within accuracy-first epistemology. Second,
 665 we saw that the reason one form of transparent modesty—evidence uncertainty—is
 666 ruled out is that the decision theory for update from Greaves and Wallace contains
 667 peculiar assumptions about the role of information about the believer in epistemic
 668 decision problems; these assumptions are in tension with each other. The Greaves
 669 and Wallace representation of decision problems for update turns out to involve an
 670 unmotivated mash-up of consequentialist and nonconsequentialist epistemic decision
 671 theories. Nonconsequentialist decision theory is needed to secure any of the classic
 672 accuracy-first results, but so far, no one has constructed a thoroughly nonconsequen-
 673 tialist decision framework for update. The final, positive part of the paper is only a
 674 first step in the direction of solving these problems. I suggest a general model for
 675 epistemic decision problems, and corresponding epistemic options, that can accom-
 676 modate nonconsequentialist update. This model does not build in the requirement that
 677 rational agents update by conditionalization to evidence certainty. With this general-
 678 ization, accuracy-first epistemology is able to accommodate, and perhaps ultimately
 679 vindicate, transparent modesty.

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