BOREDOM AND THE DIVIDED MIND

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Abstract: On one predominant conception of virtue, the virtuous agent is, among other things, wholehearted in doing what she believes best. I challenge this condition by exploring the connections between the emotion of boredom and the states of continence and incontinence. An easily bored person is susceptible to these forms of inner disharmony because of two familiar characteristics of boredom: that we are often bored by what it is that we know would be best to do, and that occurrent states of boredom tend to give rise to positive interest in performing actions that we know would be bad to do. Moreover, while a susceptibility to boredom can indicate a lack of attentiveness, or be evidence of a vice such as ingratitude, it is in others inseparable from a number of positive qualities of character, such as perspicacity, liveliness, and certain forms of intelligence. Given this, we should reject wholeheartedness as a condition on the virtues, and recognize those possessed by more divided minds as well.

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According to a predominant conception of virtue, rooted in Aristotle, the virtuous agent not only knows what action would be all things considered best to perform, but in lacking "base appetites" and finding "nothing pleasant against reason," he performs the best or right action wholeheartedly (NE 1152a).2 This purity or unity of his motivations and emotions with his practical judgment is taken to be the feature that that distinguishes him from, and renders him superior to, the enkratic or continent agent, who performs the best action but not without overcoming some reluctance in doing so. More generally, there has been a longstanding philosophical tradition of viewing inner harmony as a mark of the ideal human being;

¹ Though I will refer to this as the "best" or "right" action interchangeably, I do not mean to mask the fact that there are important reasons for not conflating the language of good and bad with the language of right and wrong. For a discussion of this point see, for example, Adams 2006.

² All references to Aristotle's Nichomachean Ethics (1999) will be referred to as 'NE.'

in contemporary philosophical literature, one way in which this tradition has taken shape is our tendency to regard inner harmony or coherence as essential to rationality, or by taking the standards of virtue and the norms of practical reason to coincide with, or reinforce one another.³ Against this background, genuine excellences of character cannot be constituted by or based upon an agent's motivational or emotional divergence from what she knows would be best to do: the gaps that can arise between one's knowledge of that action and one's motivations to do it is precisely where vice or weakness take hold of one's character.

In spite of its attractions, I shall argue that wholeheartedness does not deserve this lofty status. I suspect that our theoretical attraction to it has been encouraged by first of all, an overly narrow focus on what it takes to be a paradigmatically excellent *agent* when considering what it takes to be a paradigmatically excellent *person*,⁴ and second of all, by taking for granted that motivational or emotional disharmony with one's practical judgment is always an indication of one's irrationality. Given these standard assumptions of philosophical investigations in practical reason and moral psychology, we too hastily assume that there is nothing left worth either exploring or appreciating about the distinct ways in which a person's psychology can be divided.⁵

I propose we look again. When we examine more carefully why it is that some souls are divided, *in the particular way* in which they are divided, we will find that ambivalence toward the best action need not be evidence of an undesirable or unattractive quality in a person's character. On the contrary, this disharmony may be the very foundation of, or partly constitutive of, certain excellences of character that we enjoy and appreciate in one another, and which we might ourselves wish to possess.

³ See, for example, Smith 1994. John Broome (2007) argues for a more restricted claim that he calls the "enkratic condition": rationality requires that an agent intend to do what she believes she ought to do. And R. Jay Wallace puts the point this way: "If agent A has reason r to perform action X, and A is properly aware that r obtains, then A must be motivated to do X, on pain of irrationality" (1999, 217–218).

⁴ In other words, our conception of a good person has been too heavily shaped both by taking into consideration how we evaluate *actions* rather than agents (a common virtue ethicist's complaint), but also by evaluating a person's *agential* capacities, rather than her character as a whole (something that a virtue ethicist may still be guilty of). This might be the result of moral philosophy's predominant interest in providing theories that are "action-guiding." For a discussion of how this is too narrow to capture all of what is important to a philosophical study of ethics, see Stocker 1990.

⁵ One important difficulty in stating the difference between virtue and continence is that given a plurality of values, we would expect the virtuous agent—in being sensitive to this plurality—to be divided among conflicting but good options. My arguments here do not focus on emphasizing how the virtuous agent might be internally conflicted given a plurality of value. So a more precise way to characterize the difference between the virtuous agent and the continent agent is to maintain that the continent agent is ambivalent toward performing the best action, in spite of there being no, or comparably little, competing *value* in the other option available to her.

Here, I shall focus on just one explanation for this disharmony, which involves the contrasting emotions of boredom and interest. Both emotions are notable for the ways in which they tend to influence our motivations, and—important for my discussion here—for the ways in which they incline us to act against our better judgment. In particular, we can be reluctant to perform actions we know would be best to perform, simply because of how boring we find them; and out of occurrent feelings of boredom, we become attracted to performing actions we do not believe would be good to perform, at all. In spite of these tendencies, I shall argue that given the relationship between one's patterns of boredom and interest, and certain positive character traits, the bored enkratic or akratic may be no less excellent given these divisions in her soul. While there are many negative character traits commonly attributed to those who are easily bored—such as shallowness, or a lack of gratitude or appreciation—there are also a number of positive traits exhibited by the easily bored, and perhaps best exhibited by easily bored enkratics and akratics, in particular.

This leads to a conclusion that has broader consequences for philosophical studies of the virtues of character in general. One might be left with the impression that I am a champion of the motivationally divided as being in some sense superior to, or as having more attractive characters than, those who are wholehearted about doing the right or best thing. Perhaps a similar conclusion can be found in some interpretations of Kant, who seems to suggest that the less inclined one is to do what is right, the more praiseworthy he is for doing it.⁶ But in fact, as long as we understand the sort of psychic harmony necessary for virtue in a certain way, I do not believe we should accept that conclusion, either. Rather than determining which state is, overall, the better or best way to be, I hope my discussion encourages moving away from an understanding of the virtues that lends itself to this sort of ranking or hierarchical thinking, and toward adopting a more flexible, pluralistic approach: one that allows for the appreciation and celebration of a diversity of excellences of character—including those that may conflict with the requisites of others.

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I'll begin by determining what this particular kind of wholeheartedness or unity looks like when instantiated in a person, and elaborate on why the standard conception of virtue emphasizes its importance. Consider a suggestion from Julia Annas, who writes that the distinction between the disposition of virtue and the disposition of continence, self-control, or

⁶ I am thinking, in particular, of the passage in the Groundwork where Kant discusses the moral superiority of the sorrowing philanthropist. As I will discuss, I do not accept this conclusion, nor am I limiting my discussion to considerations of the moral quality of a person's character.

"encrasia," is one we should be well acquainted with. According to Annas, it is:

the everyday contrast between someone who does the right thing, but has to battle with his feelings to do so, and thus acts reluctantly and with a sense of pain and loss, and the person who does the right thing and whose feelings endorse the action, and who thus acts gladly and with pleasure. We all do recognize (mostly in our own case) the difference between the merely self-controlled . . . and the person who does not have to be self-controlled. And we take pleasure or the absence of it in acting to be the chief mark of this distinction. Aristotle draws the distinction in these terms, but it is clearly present in later authors even if they do not use the word, since it is regarded as a matter of common sense. (1993, 53)

Granting this as a familiar and commonsense contrast, we can nonetheless imagine at least two different interpretations of what it would take to maintain unity, or wholeheartedness, in doing the right thing. The first would be to take Annas at her word here and conclude that the virtuous agent always experiences pleasure, or positive interest, in doing the right or best thing. The enkratic agent, in contrast, experiences no pleasure in doing the right thing—and *this* is why she must exercise self-control in order to do it.

But there are cases in which the virtuous agent *shouldn't* take *pleasure* or *interest* in doing what is right. Taking Old Yeller out back to be shot might be the right thing to do, but it would seem callous or insensitive, if not insane, should one literally "act gladly," or take pleasure in doing this. So we should supplement this initial interpretation in order to accommodate cases like this, while still preserving the thought that there is a way of shooting Old Yeller that is *more* wholehearted, and a way that is less. I propose the following: depending on the details of the particular action in question, while the enkratic experiences *pain*, or *reluctance*, or some other negative reaction that must be overcome, the wholehearted agent—though not experiencing *positive* interest, pleasure or enthusiasm—does not experience these negative reactions, or at least does not experience them to the extent that she must rely on self-control in order to do what is right.

Now, why think that wholeheartedness is a defining mark of genuine excellences of character? One rather straightforward reason is that the wholehearted agent will more reliably perform (or at least attempt to perform) the best actions, for the right reasons: she is just less susceptible to acting against her better judgment, while the enkratic seems to always

⁷ One might think that the distinction between the virtuous agent and the enkratic agent collapses in cases like this—but if this is so, we will already have good reason to think that wholeheartedness is just not as essential to virtue as the standard conception maintains.

skirt the edge. But another consideration is that the wholehearted agent will not be subject to the inner turmoil and pain experienced by those whose emotions are less unified, and the avoidance of this tension makes the disposition of wholeheartedness preferable. For Annas, this tension renders the state of self-control, or enkrasia, a "lower stage" than the state of virtue, even though both the virtuous and the self-controlled agent may be just as reliable in their performance of the right actions. She writes, in approval:

What the ancients stress [in stressing wholeheartedness] is just the common thought that conflict and stress are signs of something's failing or going wrong, and that a state where these are absent is preferable to a state where they are present. Virtue is not just different from self-control; the harmony in the virtuous between action and feeling makes it *preferable* to self-control. (1993, 53–54)

In contrast to the inner harmony of the virtuous agent, the enkratic is susceptible to at least three distinct forms of conflict or stress. First, she is motivationally divided between the better and the worse in the first place. Second, she must exercise self-control in order to do the thing that is better. And third, because she is motivated to do the worse thing to begin with, she is likely to feel some regret or dissatisfaction even when she successfully does the better thing—the discontent that one can feel in turning down, for example, a desired drink or helping of dessert, even while knowing that it was better that one did so.

The virtuous agent, having no motivation to do the worse thing in the first place, gracefully transcends this inner conflict and stress. As John McDowell describes her, she renounces other options "without struggle," achieving a kind of alluring "sublimity" or "serenity" (1979, 27–28). Furthermore, we may even think of her as possessing substantive qualities of character, such as autonomy, self-confidence, sincerity, integrity and a distinct lack of self-alienation, in virtue of the harmony that resides within her soul.⁸

Moreover, as mentioned there is, as mentioned, a widely shared assumption that there is an important connection between rationality and inner harmony. Rosalind Hursthouse, for example, emphasizes the desirability of inner harmony by making explicit its connection to norms of practical rationality, and the connection between practical rationality and human nature. Denying that the virtuous agent's excellence over the merely continent agent consists in the reliability of her performance of the best action, Hursthouse writes:

⁸ One need not maintain a particularly rationalist picture of human psychology to take this inner harmony to be essential to a good human life. See, for example, Harry Frankfurt's discussions on the importance of *wholeheartedness* (2004).

The Aristotelian view of human nature is that, *qua* rational, it can be perfected by getting our inclinations into harmony with our reason. If my inclinations are not in harmony with my reason, and if getting them into harmony is something that human rationality can achieve, then the people whose inclinations are in harmony are, *ceteris paribus*, better human beings, closer to excellence (virtue), than I am. (2006, 104)

Nonetheless, as I proposed earlier, we need to look more closely at the distinct ways in which a person can fail to be wholehearted before concluding with Annas, McDowell, Hursthouse and the ancients, that inner harmony is not only different from, but in itself preferable to, or more excellent than, inner division. Echoing Aristotle, while there is only one way for a person to be virtuous there are a variety of ways in which human beings can miss the mark, and our evaluations of a person will differ depending on the particular way in which he falls short of the standard of wholeheartedness in particular.

In philosophical discussions of this variety, the opposing experiences of *boredom* and *interest* have been largely overlooked as explanations of why an agent may not be wholeheartedly motivated to perform what she knows to be the best action. Typically, our attention focuses on the misalignment or disproportionality of one's appetites, or on "hotter" emotions like anger and fear. No doubt this stems, in part, from Aristotle's observation that there are only two forms of akrasia: softness or weakness in regards to pleasure, and impetuousness. But this should strike us as a surprising omission once we reflect on how, in our everyday lives, boredom affects our motivations.¹¹ It seems that we are often disinclined to do what we

- (1) a mental state of
- (2) weariness,

⁹ The line of thought I will pursue here differs from the familiar suggestion (again, one found in Kantian thought) that we admire the person who must struggle to do the right thing more than the person who need not struggle because it shows an admirable strength of will. Annas considers and then rejects this proposal, suggesting that although we do admire the disabled for overcoming their disability, it would be "confused" to infer from this that the state of being disabled is preferable to, or as preferable as, the state of being able-bodied. I am inclined toward a more flexible stance when it comes to either sort of assessment, but I will not discuss this here.

¹⁰ "there is only one way to be correct. That is why error is easy and correctness is difficult, since it is easy to miss the target and difficult to hit it. And so for this reason also excess and deficiency are proper to vice, the mean to virtue; 'for we are noble in only one way, but bad in all sorts of ways.'" (NE 1106b32–35). Aristotle was sensitive to the fact that our evaluations of one another will differ depending on the *way* in which we fail to be virtuous: he observes, for example, that being overcome by one's appetites is more shameful than being overcome by one's spirit (*NE* 1149b).

¹¹ What exactly *is* boredom? I won't attempt to provide an analysis of it here. Instead, I will borrow from Wendell O'Brien's recent analysis of boredom that captures the features that are relevant for my arguments. He writes that boredom is:

know would be best simply because it is also something boring to do: we halfheartedly wait at the DMV to renew our licenses, politely endure conversations with the self-absorbed, and plod through the routine steps it takes to maintain an orderly home or office. And similarly, it seems that we are often positively interested in doing things that we simultaneously recognize are of very little value, or no value at all, to do. Think of a person who knows that it would be best to get a good night's rest before an important meeting she has in the morning, but finds herself engrossed by the inane television show she just put on. She may not believe that the show itself is any good, or that it would be good for her to continue watching it, but nonetheless be absorbed enough to stay up an hour or two longer than she knows would be best. Furthermore, one notable feature of the experience of boredom is its tendency to give rise to motivations to do things that we simultaneously recognize are not good to do, at all. Boredom renders us restless; out of restlessness, we eat though we are not hungry, fiddle with things until they break, vandalize just for the sake of it, and pick fights with one another.

But perhaps this omission is justifiable. Perhaps these cases are not really best understood in the way that I've described them—as instances in which considerations of interest and boredom conflict with considerations of value and disvalue, respectively. This thought would be consistent with the widespread philosophical thesis that positive and negative emotions are best understood as perceptions or construals of goodness and badness. And it would also be consistent with the particular kind of boredom that tends to draw both philosophical and literary attention: one that is typically associated with the experience of *disillusionment* or the *disenchantment* that accompanies a sort of widespread evaluative nihilism.

For example, this is how we might interpret Henry, the narrator of John Berryman's poem, "Dream Song 14," who reports to us that:

Life, friends, is boring . . . Peoples bore me, literature bores me, especially great literature, Henry bores me, with his plights & gripes as bad as Achilles,

- (3) restlessness, and
- (4) lack of interest in something to which one is subjected,
- (5) which is unpleasant or undesirable,
- (6) in which the weariness and restlessness are causally related to the lack of interest. (2014)

My discussion will emphasize the consequences of conditions 3–6.

¹² There are different ways to understand akrasia and enkrasia, and some philosophers deny that one could be motivated to do something that one does not see to be good *at all*, while nonetheless maintaining that weaker forms of akrasia are possible. The arguments I will offer here illustrate how even strong forms of akrasia in which the agent sees *nothing* good about what she wants may be possible.

who loves people and valiant art, which bores me. And the tranquil hills, & gin, look like a drag and somehow a dog has taken itself & its tail considerably away into the mountains or sea or sky, leaving behind: me, wag. (Berryman 1964)

Henry's boredom, we might think, is a result of his seeing the world as empty of anything of genuine value. Even supposedly "great" literature turns out to be not so great, after all. And his inability to see the world as containing value, we might think, just *is*, or is essentially characterized by, the experience of boredom.

If this were the only sense of boredom familiar to us, it would be natural to conclude that an agent couldn't be properly understood as being bored by what she genuinely takes to be good. And we could extend this thought to her actions: she couldn't be bored by what she genuinely believes is best for her to do. That it cannot sustain her interest is perhaps itself a sign that it *lacks* value for her.

Harry Frankfurt suggests something like this in his discussion of why it is particularly *bad* for human beings to be bored. When we are bored, Frankfurt claims, this is an indication that we do not find the objects of our boredom *valuable* or *important*.¹³ This suggestion nicely pairs with and is explained by a more general position, also maintained by Frankfurt, that what *gives* something value is a person's finding positive interest in it.¹⁴

Consider an implication of this understanding of the relationship between boredom, interest, and goodness. It suggests that a person's life would be unquestionably improved if she were, no matter her actual circumstances, *unborable*.¹⁵ If her positive interests and cares can themselves give rise to and create value for her, then a sustained interest in *anything* would create and maintain one's contact with some form of goodness.

¹³ "We do not care about any of it; none of it is *important* to us. As a natural consequence of this, our motivation to stay focused weakens; and we undergo a corresponding attenuation of psychic vitality" (Frankfurt 2004, 54).

¹⁴ "It is true that the beloved invariably is, indeed, valuable to the lover. However, perceiving that value is not at all an indispensable formative or grounding condition of the love. It need not be a perception of value in what he loves that moves the lover to love it. The truly essential relationship between love and the value of the beloved goes in the opposite direction. It is not necessarily as a result of recognizing their value and of being captivated by it that we love things. Rather, what we love necessarily *acquires* value for us *because* we love it," (Frankfurt 2004, 38–39).

¹⁵ I borrow this neologism from David Foster Wallace's novel, *The Pale King* (2011), in which a character remarks: "To be, in a word, unborable. . . . It is the key to modern life. If you are immune to boredom, there is literally nothing you cannot accomplish." Wallace presents the view that this immunity is not only the "key" to modern life, but constitutes a kind of virtue: "Enduring tedium over time in a confined space is what real courage is." I'll elaborate below on the particular sort of admirable "unborability" that Wallace seems to have in mind and why it differs from the form of unborability that I will discuss first, and which is not obviously admirable, or desirable.

But rather than being clearly attractive, there is something unsettling about the idea of being unqualifiedly unborable that this picture leaves unaccounted for. Consider John Rawls's example of a mathematician who takes pleasure in counting blades of grass in "various geometrically shaped areas such as park squares and well-trimmed lawns" (1999, 42). Rawls points out, quite rightly, that we would find such a person, as he puts it, "surprising." And he is surprising in a particular sort of way: it is difficult to imagine what it is like to *be* him, persistently engaged in this activity.

There are a number of features about grass counting that we might cite in an attempt to explain why this is. Undoubtedly, part of the explanation may be that this activity is pointless, or valueless. But the strangeness of the grass-counter cannot be wholly explained by these considerations alone. Stamp collecting and jigsaw puzzle solving may be pointless, but we understand a person's interest in doing either, even in light of his and our awareness of the pointlessness of these activities. And there may be nothing valuable about smashing the icicles that have been growing on the windowsill, or pulling a mean-spirited prank on one's colleague, but again, it is no stretch of imagination to understand a person being positively engrossed by these activities, in spite of their lack of value. Counting blades of grass in well-trimmed lawns stands out as distinct and surprising because not only is it in itself pointless and valueless to do, it is also—if any activity is—boring to do.

Given the dullness of grass counting, we might wonder whether Rawls's mathematician could really be fully attending to what he is doing, or whether his concentration is actually directed toward something else. Maybe his mind is elsewhere: contemplating proofs, or recollecting childhood memories. And so, although some small part of his mental energy is focused on the actual task of grass counting, the bulk of his attention is really directed elsewhere. Or perhaps he is—as Rawls suggests—a neurotic who uses grass counting to avoid the frustrations of engaging with other people.

But if we cannot explain his ability to sustain an interest in counting blades of grass in these ways (which each suggest that it isn't the task *itself* that he finds engaging), we may begin to suspect that it is his *experience* of that activity that is impoverished. This is because, as Bernard Williams puts the point, the experience of boredom can be "not just a tiresome effect, but a reaction almost perceptual in character" (1973, 95). And given this, it can—like other emotions such as anger and fear—have what amounts to veridicality, or fittingness conditions. A person's experience of boredom can indicate that she is accurately perceiving the features of her situation or her activity, and her *failing* to find certain things boring can suggest that she is not seeing those things as they really are. ¹⁶

¹⁶ By claiming that boredom is perceptual, or "quasi-perceptual," I mean to suggest that it is sensitive to the features of one's circumstances and because of this, that there are *limits* to what it is that we can find interesting, without suffering from a quasi-perceptual defect. This differs from a standard dispositional analysis of an emotion, because it involves a particular kind of

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Williams's discussion incorporates this quasi-perceptual aspect by emphasizing how the experience of boredom can mitigate a person's motivations by being an experience that is *responsive* to the features of her circumstances. According to Williams, Elina Makropulos, who has been given the capacity for an immortal life, doesn't become less and less invested in her life for no reason, as if her interests and cares have simply petered out over time. Nor is her boredom necessarily a matter of her no longer finding things to be of *value*. Rather, she becomes more and more emotionally withdrawn because after living too long as herself she senses that, "in the end, *it is the same*" (1973, 82, my emphasis). And this feature of her unending life, Williams thinks, not only explains but also justifies EM's boredom with it.

I will not evaluate Williams's argument that it would be intolerable because too tedious for any human being to be able to maintain her identity while living an unending life. Instead, I want to highlight just two features of his discussion that are germane to mine. First, that boredom isn't blind: it is an experience that one has in response to the features of one's situation. This explains why there is, at least for some for us, something unnerving about the idea of being *unborable*—being constantly engaged and fascinated with an activity or one's circumstances, regardless of the features of that activity or one's circumstances. Those of us who are unnerved want some assurance that if one is unborable, it is because one is engaged with things that are actually interesting. Second, that boredom need not always be a response that one has in recognition of a lack of value. Rather, it can simply be a response that one has when what one is doing or attending to is no longer interesting. Perhaps it has become lifeless and insipid in the way that an excellent song can fail to resonate simply because one has heard it too many times.

Importantly, this allows for the possibility of a person's finding boring the very thing that she simultaneously recognizes would be good, or even best for her to do. Her present sense that a certain activity is boring need

normative standard—a person's experience of boredom can be *merited* or not, given features of her circumstances or her activity. While I am not committed to any particular theory of the emotions, there are some that seem consistent with the picture I have in mind. For example, in their recent work on the emotions, Justin D'Arms and Daniel Jacobson (2003) offer the view that "base emotions" such as amusement, anger, contempt, and disgust are the products of "relatively discrete special-purpose mechanisms that are sensitive to some important aspect of human life" (138). Jealousy, for example, "monitors the social environment for potential losses of affection or allegiance" (140). On this picture, we can understand interest and boredom as monitoring one's environment for things such as novelty and repetitiveness. For D'Arms and Jacobson, this picture of the emotions supports the thought that such responses are governed by what they call "norms of fittingness": "considerations of fittingness are all and only those considerations about whether to feel shame, amusement, fear, and so forth that bear on whether the emotion's evaluation of the circumstances gets it right: whether the situation really is shameful, funny, fearsome, and so forth" (132). Something like this norm is what I will rely on when I discuss the idea that a person's boredom, or interest can be "veridical," "justified," or "fitting."

be no indication that it isn't something worth doing, or that she doesn't sincerely believe it to be so. Along the same lines, we can see why an occurrent experience of boredom can lead to a person's being interested in doing something she sees as not good to do, or even bad to do: it may simply be *interesting* to do—and perhaps interesting, in part, because of its particular kind of badness. The descriptions that I offered above, in which akrasia and continence are due to one's patterns of interest and boredom, can thus be vindicated.

Moreover, this also makes available an alternative interpretation of people like the narrator of Berryman's poem—one that I think is just as plausible as the first, and which allows for the sort of ambivalence that the poem seems to invoke. Rather than simply reading Henry as an evaluative nihilist who is bored in response to his belief that the world contains nothing of genuine value, we can also interpret him as somebody who sincerely believes there to be good things in the world—*genuinely* great literature, as he suggests—but who finds, to his dismay, that he is uninterested in engaging with such things any longer, in spite of their goodness.¹⁷

So far I have argued that a person's experience of boredom can be fitting or unfitting, given its quasi-perceptual nature. This explains, at least in part, why Rawls's grass-counter strikes us as so strange: he seems to be able to maintain positive interest in something that just isn't interesting. Again, perhaps his attention is directed inward, or perhaps he sees something that we don't: but importantly, these thoughts simply reinforce the idea that boredom and interest are reactions *to* something, and that to be able to maintain one's interest regardless of one's circumstances suggests either a lack of engagement with, or a distorted perception of, those circumstances.¹⁸

Life, friends, is boring. We must not say so.

After all, the sky flashes, the great sea yearns,
we ourselves flash and yearn
and moreover my mother told me as a boy
(repeatingly) 'Ever to confess you're bored
means you have no Inner Resources.' I conclude now I have no
inner resources, because I am heavy bored. (Berryman 1964)

¹⁷ Consider a section of the poem that I omitted above, in which Henry lays the fault with himself and not the world:

¹⁸ I do not mean to suggest that having one's perception of one's circumstances be distorted—either through the use of chemical substances or certain mental disabilities—is something to be avoided at all costs. Indeed, there is no doubt some good in temporarily and occasionally suspending such accuracy. I am suggesting, instead, that given that we value having accurate perceptions of the world it is one relatively important reason why we might find being unborable an unattractive way to be, in general.

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One might nonetheless wonder whether a person would live a better or more attractive life, or be a better or more appealing person, if she were never bored by, in particular, those things that she recognizes as best for her to do. Wouldn't it be preferable to be fully engaged by those actions and activities? To answer these questions we must first take into consideration what a person's patterns of boredom of interest can say about the sort of character or mind that she has, in general.

A common thought is that a notable proclivity toward boredom is revelatory only of unattractive or regrettable qualities of character or mind. For example, a person who is easily bored may be deficient in imagination, creativity, curiosity, or perhaps other forms of intelligence; or we might think that though she possesses these capacities, her bouts of boredom are brought on by a failure to exercise them. This latter thought in particular is one that we are likely to have of children who complain of boredom, but it can be extended to adults just as well, accompanying either advice or even criticism. This criticism can sometimes tend toward a moral criticism about one's inability to be fully grateful for what one has been provided. We might think that a person is simply overlooking something that deserves her attention, and her oversight is an indication of a shallow, or ungrateful character. 19

In many cases, this sort of evaluation seems exactly right. For example, a person may at first find the Nevada desert maddeningly boring. But imagine that in response to a friend's claim that she has been too dismissive and too parochial in her tastes, she attempts to scrutinize it more carefully the next time she drives through. As she pays closer attention to its details, she begins to notice certain streaks of color, patterns that have been carved into rock by the wind, and formations of clouds she hadn't noticed before, which a less attentive or perceptive person might never appreciate at all, and which she may not have noticed without taking her friend's suggestion seriously. She might conclude that really, she was mistaken in thinking the landscape so dull; it is in fact, quite interesting. We can also think of activities that may at first appear boring but are revealed to be interesting upon closer inspection and more serious engagement: weeding a garden, bird-watching, or reading through baseball statistics come to mind.

But although we are right to think that boredom can sometimes indicate a regrettable lack of attentiveness or perception on the part of the person who is bored, a person's particular patterns of boredom and interest can

¹⁹ For example, consider Henry's mother's advice to never confess to being bored, as it indicates a lack of "inner resources." In a memorable passage from Marilynne Robinson's Gilead, John Ames writes to his son, "I wish I had paid more attention to [water]. My list of regrets may seem unusual, but who can know that they are, really. This is an interesting planet. It deserves all the attention you can give it" (2004, 28). And in an episode of the television show Louie, Louis CK responds to his four-year-old's complaints of boredom during a car ride with the following remark: "you live in a great, big, vast world that you've seen none percent of. Even the inside of your own mind is endless; it goes on forever, inwardly, do you understand? The fact that you're alive is amazing. So you don't get to be bored."

also be explained by basic differences in taste, rather than a failure to possess or exercise certain mental capacities, or because of ingratitude or shallowness. A different person, preferring the bustle and grit of urban landscapes, might have noticed the very same details of the Nevada desert that her friend now finds interesting, and nonetheless still find it a bland backdrop only to be endured or ignored rather than enjoyed. Some people simply cannot find the natural world to be of any interest, and it seems possible that in at least some of these cases, it is not because of a lack of attention or shallowness in their values. Some become engrossed by the minutiae of historical baseball games; others just cannot bear the thought. In such cases, paying *more* attention to what one is bored by may only deaden the experience further.

And importantly, if a person *isn't* bored by what it is that she is doing or the situation that she finds herself in, it is sometimes because she hasn't scrutinized or attended to her activity or her environment enough. For example, a person may be able to watch and enjoy an episode of a boring sitcom that she has seen before only because she is presently exhausted, or mentally depleted. And we should not forget that, as a matter of empirical circumstance, there are also plenty of occasions in which the activity or the environment that a person is faced with is ill-equipped, or not equipped at all, to provide an engaged and lively human mind with anything of interest. If the world that a person experiences is an interesting place, it is only contingently so; if it is not interesting, heightened attentiveness or perspicacity is likely to only exacerbate one's boredom. And as we found in the case of Rawls's grass-counter, if a person were to exhibit sustained positive interest in something that is itself boring, we may be tempted to conclude that he is not completely or fully perceiving his activity or his environment.

So, while we tend to associate the experience of boredom with negative qualities of mind and character, this is only one half of the story. Although a person's boredom may indicate that he isn't fully aware of his situation or activity, or is lacking in creativity, curiosity, or gratitude, our assessment of him should be sensitive to what his situation or activity is actually like. And in cases where there is very little, or nothing, of interest in his environment or activity, his boredom may indicate that his mind is both discerning and attentive. His mental capacities may be of good quality, and he may be primed to exercise them; it is the world that yields nothing in return. And if such a person is unable to turn his attention toward something else, being bored by his activity or environment seems to be a perfectly warranted response. The advice or injunction to pay more attention in order to alleviate one's boredom, if good or plausible, must take for granted that there is something there, after all, for an attentive and perceptive person to be engaged by.

This brings us to considerations about the *excellences* of mind and character that are connected to a person's susceptibility to boredom. Sometimes

a person is easily bored precisely because her mental capacities are of a particularly high quality, or because rather than being incurious, apathetic, or lacking in imagination, she is *especially* curious, inquisitive, or imaginative. What can keep others fascinated for longer just cannot sustain her interest, because it takes *more* for her mind to be placated. Her capacities of discernment are so acute, and her mind so quick, that she can speedily observe and absorb the details of something, recall similar instances of that thing, more quickly arrive at the desire for something novel, and so be more susceptible to (and perhaps more averse to) the feeling of boredom when nothing interesting avails itself. It is a familiar observation that while some students are bored in class because unable to grasp the material or unwilling to engage with it, others are bored precisely because of a quick grasp, and a subsequent desire to move on to something new. And we recognize these characteristics in some people that we greatly admire because of their qualities of mind: for example, Sherlock Holmes's susceptibility to boredom—a feature of his character that Watson describes as a major, defining difference between them—is inseparable from the sharpness and intensity of his mind, and his high level of intellectual energy. ²⁰

These different relationships between one's tendencies toward boredom and the quality of one's character and mind can explain why some of us may be *ambivalent*, rather than simply critical, in our assessments of people who are easily bored. We wonder whether there is something more that they could do to more fully appreciate their present circumstances, and whether they are being too hasty in finding them uninteresting; we may disapprove and chastise them when their boredom leads them to do silly or reckless things. But nonetheless, we should also be sensitive to the possibility that a person's predisposition toward boredom may be evidence of either her (perfectly acceptable) tastes, or even of qualities of mind and character that we appreciate, enjoy, and even admire.²¹

²⁰ "you know how bored I have been since we locked up Colonel Carruthers. My mind is like a racing engine, tearing itself to pieces because it is not connected up with the work for which it was built. Life is commonplace, the papers are sterile" (Conan Doyle 1908, 224). One might, given my focus on the value of these mental qualities, wonder whether I am unfairly disvaluing other forms of intelligence, or less intelligent minds, in general. But I do not mean to suggest either than the sort of intelligence that, for example, Sherlock Holmes has, is the *only* form of intelligence. Nor am I committed to thinking that those who are less intelligent in general wouldn't possess other important virtues. However, these qualities are valuable, and given this, there is something to be said in favor of those who are easily bored.

So, in recognizing that boredom can be responsive to features of one's environment or activity, we arrive at a result that is the inverse of the one we began with—both of which seem to me to capture different truths about the relationship between a person's character and mind, and her susceptibility to boredom.

²¹ The disposition to desire novelty for its own sake that can accompany one's experience of boredom seems also to underlie (and perhaps may even be partly explained by) other valuable qualities, such as creativity and spontaneity. This can be gleaned from everyday experience, and there has been some recent work done in empirical psychology exploring this potential connection. See, for example, Gasper and Middlewood 2014.

As an example of this ambivalence, take the reactions that one might have toward the protagonist of Jane Austen's *Emma*. We recognize that Emma's meddling in others' affairs is largely the result of the fact that she is (though she herself doesn't seem to realize this) frequently bored by her life as a caretaker for her aging father. And we are primed by Austen to see her tendency toward boredom as a consequence of certain flaws in her character: her impatience with tasks that take time and persistence to complete, as well as her lack of interest in developing any of her talents seem to confirm that, being "handsome, clever and rich," she has gotten away in life without having to develop the qualities of fortitude or persistence (1816, 1). Impatient with the tasks deemed acceptable for her to perform, she becomes idle; her idleness feeds her imagination, and her imagination gets the better of her, making it difficult for her to see people as they really are, rather than as pieces in her matchmaking schemes and invented narratives. Given all of this, we are ready to find her heedless, immature, and irresponsible.

But at the same time, we might suspect that her scheming and impatience may in fact be the consequences of rather good qualities of mind and character such as cleverness, playfulness, sharpness, and liveliness. In her interactions and thoughts with others, we can't help but notice that Emma has a certain spark or vivacity about her; she's a firecracker. And we are told, for example, how she has from a very young age grasped things much more quickly than her older sister; and how with her governess and friend, Miss Taylor, married and moved away, she finds herself "in great danger of suffering from intellectual solitude." Austen continues, "She dearly loved her father, but he was no companion for her. He could not meet her in conversation, rational or playful" (Austen 1816, 6-7). Given this, one might begin to sense that she has been placed in circumstances that though perhaps another person (reserved and placid Jane Fairfax, for example) would find sufficiently absorbing, a person with Emma's positive qualities of mind would not. Given these qualities, she is in danger of finding her circumstances boring, and her boredom intolerable—no wonder, then, her tendencies toward mischief.

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In Section 2, I argued that while there may be forms of boredom that one feels in response to a lack of value in the object of one's boredom, that sometimes it is simply a response to the *boringness* of an activity, and not to its lack of value. This allows for a vindication of initial appearances: we are sometimes enkratic or akratic because of our experiences of boredom, and interest. And in Section 3, I argued that though we often think of the susceptibility to boredom as being revelatory of a vice or some other character flaw or mental deficiency, that this is too limited an assessment to capture the variety of ways in which we assess easily bored people. Under

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certain circumstances a person's boredom may be the result of a simple difference in taste, or her accurate assessment of her circumstances; moreover, her tendencies toward boredom may be inseparable from attractive qualities of character and mind.

I shall now make explicit the results we reach from bringing these two conclusions together. A person's ambivalence toward performing the best action, when explicable by her finding that action boring, as well as the motivations that she has to perform bad actions because of her occurrent experiences of boredom, need not be indications of a defective or unattractive mind or character. On the contrary, the positive qualities of character that a person's susceptibility to boredom can indicate may also be present—and may even be properly conditioned in a way I'll elaborate on—in those who are bored by what they know would be best to do.

To illustrate this, let's consider two alternative cases of grass counting. Victoria and Edith, both graduate students in biology, are counting blades of grass for a research project. So, unlike a grass counter who simply—somehow—finds this task engrossing in itself, Victoria and Edith are engaging in this activity because it is instrumentally valuable for them to do so. Let's imagine also that in order to do this task successfully, neither can simultaneously distract themselves from what they are doing, in the way that a person might listen to the radio or daydream in order to alleviate the boredom they might otherwise experience. If Edith and Victoria are to count blades of grass successfully, they must exert their full attention to what it is that they are doing.

Edith, in finding this task exceedingly boring, experiences some motivational resistance toward performing it. Though she recognizes that she has decisive reason to continue counting blades of grass, her boredom with grass counting renders her less than wholehearted about doing it. While she loves her work in general, she cannot love this aspect of it. Half an hour into the day, she finds that she must muster self-control in order to resist the temptation to get up and stretch her legs, get another cup of coffee, or check her email, all the while recognizing that she has little or no reason to do these things. After all, it is not as though her legs really are cramped, or that she really wants a cup of coffee, or that she needs to check her email; and she is fully aware that these actions will just delay the work that will have to be done anyway.

Victoria, like Edith, knows that the best thing for her to do is to count blades of grass, but unlike Edith, Victoria is *not* motivationally divided. Rather than being strong-willed in resisting the temptation to do something else in order to avoid this boring task, she isn't tempted to begin with. She does the best thing, for the right reasons, wholeheartedly.²²

²² I want to address a worry that one might have at this point. Though in this example, what is best for both Edith and Victoria to do is instrumentally best for them to do, we shouldn't be misled into thinking that it is only actions with instrumental value that can be both boring and good to do, as though good actions and things are more susceptible to being boring when their

At least initially, we are likely to find Victoria's psychology puzzling in a way that we don't find Edith's, who's experience is likely to be more familiar to us. How exactly does Victoria experience this activity? In trying to imagine the virtuous psychology we must accommodate that she perceives her circumstances accurately, so she must be able to appreciate that grass counting is, after all, a boring activity. This is not only because it will not yield a clearly attractive psychology should she be blind to salient features of her activity, but also because it is an important commitment of an Aristotelian understanding of virtue that the virtuous agent be sensitive to facts about her situation. And as discussed earlier, given her appreciation of the boringness of what she is doing, it would be bizarre if she were utterly engrossed by the task; this would suggest at least some sort of insensitivity to what she is up to. So her wholeheartedness, in this sort of case, should not be understood as a matter of taking pleasure or being positively enthused by what it is that she is doing.

So consider the supplemented view discussed in Section 2, which allows that unity or wholeheartedness doesn't demand positive enthusiasm or pleasure. Rather, the virtuous agent appreciates that grass counting is boring, but the consideration provided by the boringness of grass counting plays no other role in her response to it. She does not positively enjoy this activity, but she does not find it painfully boring, or boring enough that it would at all disincline her from doing it.

goodness is purely instrumental. There are intrinsically good activities, as well as intrinsically good things, that are also boring, which can be experienced as boring even by those who are interested in the kind of goodness that is in question. For example, it has been remarked by a number of philosophers that Sidgwick's Methods of Ethics is both good and boring. It has also been suggested, plausibly, that these two features are inseparable from one another: that some of the properties that make the Methods good are the very same properties that make it boring. Here, for example, is C. D. Broad's description of the experience of reading the Methods (which he also describes, at the top of the chapter in which this quote appears, as "on the whole the best treatise on moral theory that has ever been written"):

> [Sidgwick's] style is heavy and involved, and he seldom allowed that strong sense of humour, which is said to have made him a delightful conversationalist, to relieve the uniform dull dignity of his writing. He incessantly refines, qualifies, raises objections, answers them, and then finds further objections to the answer. Each of these objections, rebuttals, rejoinders, and surrejoinders is in itself admirable, and does infinite credit to the acuteness and candour of the author. But the reader is apt to become impatient; to lose the thread of the argument; and to rise from his desk finding that he has read a great deal with constant admiration and now remembers little or nothing. (2014, 143–144)

My point here isn't to bring up the virtues and vices of pieces and styles of philosophical writing (one might point out, after all, that philosophy often is made worse by being boring). Instead, it is just to highlight the possibility of something's being both intrinsically good and boring. Again, that something good makes no promise of also being interesting, and that something bad makes no promise of also being uninteresting is precisely why it can take a concerted effort to attentively read Sidgwick's writing on the one hand, and to refrain from gawking at train wrecks, both literal and figurative, on the other.

While I think that this proposal is initially difficult to fully imagine, there are resources that we can rely on to make Victoria's psychology more vivid. For example, we might think that by focusing on the *nobility* or *fineness* of her ultimate goal—advancing scientific knowledge—she is able to recognize that what she is doing is boring, but have that boredom be completely "silenced" so that it does not at all impact her motivations. ²³ Perhaps the most plausible rendering of her psychology is that she experiences a mental state akin to a meditative tranquility, which is capable of resisting the experience of grass counting as boring in a way that would leave her less than wholehearted about doing so, without compromising her perception of her circumstances. ²⁴

No doubt being able to maintain this inner calm is an attractive capacity—and one that we are right to admire. And it is likely supported by a number of virtues, such as patience, calmness, or a kind of stoicism. Moreover, in comparison with enkratic Edith, Victoria would experience less pain, frustration, and stress. Nonetheless, I contend that it is still an open question whose character is more excellent, and that it would be a mistake to conclude, as the traditional conception does, that the question is settled once we see that Victoria is wholehearted, and Edith is not.

Though it is true that Edith must struggle in a way that Victoria does not in order to do what she knows would be best to do, though her experience of this activity will be subjectively unpleasant in a way that Victoria's may not be, and though there is the risk that she might opt to do something else in order to avoid her boring task, I propose that the fact that she is motivationally divided rather than virtuous in regards to this activity need not be any indication of a character or mind that is worse off. Moreover, she may possess certain positive qualities that Victoria does not.

According to the conclusions established so far, Edith's experience of grass counting as boring is a perfectly justified response given what that activity is actually like. Second, as I've suggested, that a person is particularly susceptible to boredom may indicate that her mind is particularly lively or discerning, or that she may possess certain forms of intelligence that make it difficult for her to be patient and persistent with dull tasks.

And this second observation holds, I propose, even in cases where the action that the agent finds boring is also the action that would be best for her to perform. In fact, that Edith *knows* what would be best to do,²⁵ and nonetheless still desires to either stop, or do something else

²³ This psychological capacity is mentioned, but not much elaborated on, in McDowell 1979. ²⁴ In the psychological literature this sort of state is referred to as "flow," or "zone." See, for example, Csikszentmihalyi 1990. And Julia Annas (2008) also suggested that this is perhaps the best way to understand the phenomenology of virtue.

²⁵ Perhaps this is something that a defender of the virtuous agent will reject: Edith couldn't possibly fully understand the value of what she is doing—and this is precisely why she feels resistance to grass-counting. If only she really *knew* how valuable scientific inquiry was, she'd be wholehearted about doing it. But how can we state, in a non-question begging way, exactly what Edith lacks, and Victoria possesses? More importantly, even if we grant that Edith has

entirely, is further evidence that her experience of boredom in this case is evidence of these positive qualities of mind. Her boredom is not best explained, for example, by a failure to appreciate the value of something the way in which we might explain and criticize the boredom of a child, or a misguided or shallow adult. Again, recall our ambivalence toward Emma Woodhouse's susceptibility to boredom: it isn't immediately obvious whether her boredom is brought on by a failure to fully appreciate what the world has to offer, perhaps because she has mistaken beliefs about the value of the activities that she finds interesting and those she finds boring, or whether it is just a result of her positive qualities of mind placed in limiting 10 circumstances. But if Emma really does know the value of such things—if 11 we don't think that she's simply being shallow—we have more reason to 12 see her in this second, more positive light.²⁶ This is the sense in which the 13 enkratic's susceptibility to boredom is properly conditioned in a way that 14 15 renders it unlike the vices associated with boredom. 16 17 18 19 20 21

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Given the connection that boredom has to certain other characteristics of mind that we admire and appreciate, it is not obvious that we would wish for others or ourselves to be less vulnerable to it—even when that vulnerability leaves us bored by things we also recognize are good, or good to do. While some may still be ambivalent about the agent's disharmonious mind, even this ambivalence rather than outright disapproval can indicate that there are limits on the standard assumption that a harmonious psychology is clearly and obviously better. Holmes's tendency to become easily bored is inseparable from other excellent qualities of mind and character that we positively admire. And so, we may find that we appreciate his susceptibility to boredom even if—to Watson's concern—it is the very same tendency that nourishes his cocaine habit when he is left with nothing he finds interesting to do.²⁷ He wouldn't be who he is, with the kind of attractive and appealing

some "lower grade" of knowledge that results in her enkrasia, this does not settle the question of whose psychology is preferable.

²⁶ This emphasis on the importance of evaluative knowledge as a condition on virtue renders the qualities I've focused on psychologically importantly similar to those that a standard Aristotelian account of the virtues would defend, and deeper than the qualities of character that count as "virtues" on certain more minimalistic theories of virtue, such as Hume's. While I think Hume is right to turn our attention to the wide variety of qualities that we appreciate in ourselves and one another, I think that Aristotelian accounts are right to emphasize that there is an important difference between the qualities of character that would count as virtues on Hume's account, and thicker qualities of character that reveal to us more about what the virtuous agent's mental life, and capacities, are like.

²⁷ As Watson reports: "My own complete happiness, and the home-centered interests which rise up around the man who first finds himself master of his own establishment, were sufficient to absorb all my attention, while Holmes . . . remained in our lodgings in Baker Street, buried among his old books, and alternating from week to week between cocaine and ambition, the drowsiness of the drug, and the fierce energy of his own keen nature" (Conan Doyle 1992, 5). In modern incarnations of Holmes, his susceptibility to boredom gives rise to other destructive and self-destructive actions, and partly explains other character traits such as social antipathy and arrogance.

character he has, without it. In appreciating this last point, we may come to see his tendency toward actually performing akratic actions in a more positive light, overall: one that presents this tendency as an essential and charming feature of a vibrant and brilliant soul. ²⁸

5 Conclusion

I have argued that we should reject the traditional claim that the psychology of the wholehearted agent is clearly better than, or preferable to, the psychologies of those whose minds are more divided. This is not to deny the importance of wholeheartedness, but to deny its superiority. As Aristotelian virtue ethicists are quick to remind us, it is difficult for us—imperfect as we are—to imagine what it is like to be the virtuous agent. This is a fair point, and my arguments here have not relied on the particular difficulty we face in imagining what it would is like to be wholehearted about an activity that is also undeniably boring, while also in full awareness of its boringness. As I suggested, perhaps it is like being in a meditative state, and perhaps it is a state most familiar to those who are notably, and sometimes seemingly impossibly, patient, steadfast, and stoic. But I have argued that we should not stop at recognizing those virtues. Instead, we need a more pluralistic stance when it comes to the philosophical project of identifying and delineating the excellences of character, a pluralism that can recognize and celebrate the excellences of less harmonious minds.

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²⁸ One might argue should the character traits I have highlighted conflict with or undermine a person's moral virtues, we thereby have good reason to disvalue or disregard them. Perhaps this is why the virtuous person's character is more attractive. In response, I would emphasize that these qualities need not be incompatible with a person's moral virtue, but that furthermore, even when they are, we might remind ourselves of just one point argued for by Susan Wolf in "Moral Saints": that upon reflection on the sorts of people that we love, and the relationships we cherish, the qualities of character that we find of deep importance are not identical to, and may even conflict with, the moral virtues (1982, 419–439). It is important to note, however, that while Wolf focuses on a person who is maximally morally good, I have focused on the question of the importance of wholeheartedness to the virtues, whether or not those virtues are best understood as morally relevant.

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