The Experience Matters More Than You Think: Weighting Intrinsic Incentives More Inside Than Outside of an Activity

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We document a shift in weighting intrinsic incentives: consumers value these incentives more inside an activity than outside of it. Six studies provide evidence for this shift across a variety of activities (exercising, working, and lab tasks), and measures (rated importance, actual and planned persistence, and choice regret).

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For the Love of the Game: New Perspectives on Intrinsically Motivated Behavior
Chair: Jordan Etkin, Duke University, USA

Paper #1: Inspired to Create: How Awe Enhances Openness to Learning and Desire for Experiential Creation
Melanie Rudd, University of Houston, USA
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Paper #2: Curiosity Kills the Cat
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Paper #3: The Experience Matters More Than You Think: Weighting Intrinsic Incentives More Inside Than Outside of an Activity
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Paper #4: The Cost of Quantification: Measurement Undermines Intrinsic Enjoyment
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SESSION OVERVIEW
Motivation – the drive to act – is a persistent feature of human nature. Whether to work or play, to approach or avoid, to change or stay the same, people’s behavior is often energized toward some valued end. Yet while motivation may look the same from an observer’s perspective, it can arise from very different underlying sources. Generally speaking, motivation is intrinsic if a course of action is autonomously chosen and self-determined, but extrinsic if imposed by external forces (Deci and Ryan 1985; Ryan and Deci 2000). Specific behaviors can also be intrinsically motivated if done for their own sake (i.e., the inherent pleasure they bring), but extrinsically motivated if done for the instrumental benefits they provide (Fishbach and Choi 2012; Laran and Janiszewski 2011). Compared to extrinsically motivated behaviors, intrinsic motivation has many positive consequences, including enhanced performance, persistence, and creativity (Sheldon et al. 1997) heightened vitality (Nix et al. 1999), self-esteem (Deci and Ryan 1995), and general wellbeing (Ryan, Deci, and Grolnik 1995). But beyond identifying its consequences, many important questions remain about intrinsic motivation processes. This session provides new perspectives on this topic.

Four papers explore consumers’ engagement in intrinsically motivated behaviors. The first two papers focus on classic intrinsic pursuits – learning, exploration, and curiosity – examining behaviors arising from each drive. Rudd and Vohs identify a novel factor (awe) that enhances intrinsic motivation to learn and create. Four experiments demonstrate that experiencing awe increases consumers’ desire (and willingness to pay) for experiential creation. Hsee and Ruan investigate people’s innate curiosity. Their findings identify a pernicious consequence of curiosity and the intrinsic drive to resolve it: curiosity makes people seek out information with negative hedonic repercussions.

The last two papers explore factors influencing the enjoyment of intrinsically motivated behaviors. Woolley and Fishbach examine the role of timing (i.e., whether consumers evaluate an experience while they are having it versus before or after). Six studies demonstrate that intrinsic incentives matter more inside (versus outside) an activity. These incentives increase persistence by enabling a positive experience, yet people outside pursuit do not anticipate this effect. Finally, Etkin and Berger investigate how measurement shapes motivation, testing how quantification affects the enjoyment of intrinsically motivated behaviors. Three experiments show that measuring how much of an intrinsically valuable activity people do (e.g., the number of steps taken or number of pages read) leads them to enjoy the activity less.

Together these papers connect classic research on intrinsic motivation processes with modern-day phenomena, using the former as a lens to help understand the latter. Further, by identifying factors that encourage intrinsically motivated behaviors, as well as ones that thwart their enjoyment, the findings shed light on what consumers can do to enhance and protect the activities they enjoy. This session should have broad appeal to scholars interested in motivation, enjoyment, experiential consumption, and wellbeing, as well as connections between them.

Inspired to Create: How Awe Enhances Openness to Learning and Desire for Experiential Creation

EXTENDED ABSTRACT
From birth, humans are endowed with an intrinsic drive to learn and explore (Harter 1978). However, this drive is easily disrupted (e.g., by time pressure, distractions, and depletion; Ryan and Deci 2000), transforming consumers into cognitive misers (Fiske and Taylor 1984). In this research, we identify a novel remedy for consumers’ lack of intrinsic motivation to learn, demonstrating that a particular emotion—awe—can enhance consumers’ openness to learning and, consequently, increase their intrinsic desire to partake in behaviors involving experiential creation.

Awe experiences are thought to have two defining features: perceptual vastness and a need for accommodation (Keltner and Haidt 2003). This need for accommodation refers to the belief that awe experiences are overwhelming and difficult to grasp, challenging existing mental structures (Fiedler 2001). Building upon this theoretical definition of awe, we predicted that those who experienced awe would exhibit greater openness to the prospect of learning (in hopes of satisfying their need for accommodation). We also predicted this effect would have consequences for consumer behaviors involving experiential creation.

Though prior work has largely focused on how competence and autonomy motivate the undertaking of creative tasks and behaviors (Dahl and Moreau 2007; Moreau and Herd 2010; Mochon et al. 2012), learning may also be an intrinsic incentive (Dahl and Moreau 2007). Moreover, play, construction, and working with one’s hands—all common aspects of experiential creation—are primal ways of learning (Cabrera and Colosi 2010; Kendall and Sproles 1986; Piaget 1964). Therefore, we predicted that, by enhancing openness to learning, awe would increase people’s intrinsic desire to partake in experiential creation.

Our theory that openness to learning mediates awe’s effect on experiential creation led us to predict that need for closure would moderate it. When facing uncertainty or a lack of confidence in existing mental structures, individuals high (vs. low) in need for closure are more motivated to resolve this uncertainty (Kruegalski et al. 1991, 1993) and achieve the “coveted state of knowledge” (Kruglanski 1988, 122). Since awe is theorized to shake people’s confidence in their existing mental structures (Keltner and Haidt 2003)—something that should make those high (vs. low) in need for closure especially motivated to learn (Kruglanski 1988)—we predicted that...
awe’s ability to heighten experiential creation desires would be
stronger for those high (vs. low) in need for closure.

Experiment 1 (which was conducted shortly before Valentine’s
Day) tested whether awe increases one’s desire to partake in expe-
riential creation. To manipulate emotions, participants watched a 60
second awe-eliciting, happiness-eliciting, or neutral commercial for
an LCD television (Rudd, Vohs, and Aaker 2012) and responded to
filler items. Then, as a “thanks for participating” gift, they chose to
receive either “a recipe for Valentine’s Day chocolates [they] could
make and give to a loved one” (something involving experiential cre-
ation) or “a coupon for pre-made Valentine’s Day chocolates [they]
could buy and have delivered to a loved one” (something not involv-
ing experiential creation) and reported their emotions. Manipulation
checks confirmed the target emotions were successfully manipulated
and, as predicted, logistic regression analyses revealed those in the
awe (vs. happiness or neutral) condition more frequently chose the
experiential creation option: the recipe.

Experiment 2 conceptually replicated experiment 1’s results
using a different operationalization of experiential creation desire:
willingsness to pay for products with experiential creation elements.
To manipulate emotions, participants watched either an awe-eliciting
or happiness-eliciting slideshow. Participants subsequently reported
their willingness to pay for 16 products from different categories
(i.e., furniture, food, and art)—eight of these products involved
experiential creation and eight did not. Importantly, although the
products within each category differed in whether they did or did
not involve experiential creation, they were matched on other key
features. Last, participants reported their emotions. Manipulation
checks confirmed the target emotions were successfully manipulated
and a mixed-measures ANOVA revealed that, as predicted, those in
the awe (vs. happiness) condition were willing to pay more for prod-
ucts that involved experiential creation. As a test of specificity, par-
ticipants in the awe and happiness conditions were equally willing to
pay for the control products.

Experiment 3 tested our mediation hypothesis. Emotions were
manipulated as in experiment 2 and participants subsequently re-
plied to a 7-item experiential creation desires index (e.g., “I want
to create something”), five hypothetical choices between compar-
able meal options that either required or did not require experiential
creation (e.g., make homemade soup vs. eat canned soup), a 4-item
openness to learning index (e.g., “I am curious”), and reported their
emotions. Manipulation checks confirmed the target emotions were
successfully manipulated and one-way ANOVAs revealed that those
in the awe (vs. happiness) condition reported stronger experiential
creation desires, stronger preferences for experiential creation meals,
and were more open to learning. Mediation analyses revealed that,
as predicted, those in the awe (vs. happiness) condition exhibited
greater desire for experiential creation (via both the index and the
meal preferences) because they were more open to learning. (Note: A
subsequent study conceptually replicated these mediations.)

Experiment 4 tested our moderation hypothesis. After comple-
ting the Need for Closure Scale (Roets and Van Hiel 2011) and the
emotion manipulation from experiment 2, participants responded to
the experiential creation desires index from experiment 3 and re-
ported their emotions. Manipulation checks confirmed the target
emotions were successfully manipulated. Regression and spotlight
analyses also revealed a significant main effect of emotion (i.e.,
those in the awe vs. happiness condition expressed stronger expe-
riential creation desires) that was qualified by the predicted interac-
tion between need for closure and emotion. Specifically, those who
experienced awe (vs. happiness) exhibited greater desires to create
things if they had a high need for closure, but not if they had a low
need for closure.

In sum, our findings theoretically contribute to and connect the
literature on learning, emotions, and experiential creation, offering
evidence that awe is a novel way to enhance consumers’ openness
to learning and incentivize experiential creation. Moreover, from a
practical perspective, this research highlights awe’s ability to influ-
ence consumer behavior and the need for further research on this
emotion.

Curiosity Kills the Cat
EXTENDED ABSTRACT
Let us start with a stylized and provocative example. Suppose
you know for sure that your beloved significant other recently had
an affair with your neighbor and you have decided to break up with
him/her. Their intimate activities were captured vividly on a surveil-
lance camera and you have acquired a copy of the video. The video
is in front of you. The question is: Will you watch it?

The “rational” answer is probably no, because watching the
video will not give you additional useful information, given that you
know for a fact they had sex, and you have made up your mind to
break up the relationship. Watching the video will only make you
more miserable.

Yet we predict that many people under such situations will
watch the video. Why? Because of curiosity.

Curiosity is one of the most deeply-rooted human desires, but
relative to other basic desires, such as those for food and achieve-
ment, it is understudied (for notable exceptions, see Berlyne 1960;
Golman and Loewenstein 2012; Litman 2005; Loewenstein 1994).

Curiosity is a double-sided sword. On one hand, curiosity
can motivate people to explore and make important and benefi-
cial discoveries, and give people pleasure when their curiosity gets re-
solved. Indeed, in another line of work, we have been examining
and found such beneficial hedonic effects of curiosity. On the other
hand, curiosity can drive people to seek “detrimental information”–
information that they know has no functional benefits to them and
will even make them unhappy. The current research explores this
latter proposition.

We have conducted and completed a series of experiments
showing this “perverse” side of curiosity. In one such experiment,
we presented participants with the opportunity to view 24 pictures.
At the beginning of the experiment, each picture was covered and
had only a label on it. Participants were told that if they turned a
picture labeled “DP,” they would view a picture of a dog poop (pre-
tested to be highly negative); if they turned over a picture labeled
“ST,” they would view a picture of a stone (pretested to be neutral),
and if they turned over a picture labeled “??,” they would view either
the dog poop picture or the stone picture.

The experiment consisted of four between-subjects conditions:
(1) Unknown Mixed: All pictures were labeled “??”; (2) Known
Mixed: Some pictures were labeled “DP” and some “ST”; (3) All
Dog Poop: All pictures were labeled “DP”; (4) All Stone: All pic-
tures were labeled “ST”.

The dependent variable was how many pictures Ps decided to
turn over and view. The result: Those in the Unknown Mixed con-
dition turned over and viewed more pictures (including the nega-
tive pictures) than those in any of the other conditions (Ms = 16.4
(Unknown Mixed) vs. 11.5(Stone), 10.0 (Known Mixed), 3.8 (Dog
Poop); all ps < .05). Notably, this result cannot be attributed to vari-
ety-seeking, because if participants simply wanted variety, those in
the Known-Mixed condition should have opened as many pictures.
Also notably, the result could not be attributed to wishful-thinking either, because wishful-thinking could not explain why participants in the Unknown Mixed condition viewed even more pictures than participants in the All Stone condition. It seems that curiosity, or rather, the desire to resolve curiosity, drove participants to experience what they knew was negative, in this case, the image of a disgusting dog poop.

In another experiment, we showed participants 48 buttons on a computer screen, and they could choose to click any number of them. Each button was labeled either “Water,” “Nails,” or “??.” Ps were told in advance that if they clicked a button labeled “Water,” they would hear the sound of water pouring into a jar (pretended to be neutral). If they clicked a button labeled “Nails,” they would hear the sound of nails scratching chalkboard (pretended to be highly negative). If they clicked a button labeled “??,” they would hear either the Water sound or the Nails sound.

The study consisted of two between-participants conditions: (1) Unknown Mixed: Most of the buttons were labeled “??,” with only a couple of buttons labeled as “Water” or “Nails”; (2) Known Mixed: Most of the buttons were labeled “Water” or “Nails,” with only a couple of buttons labeled as “??.”

The primary DV was how many buttons participants clicked (i.e., how many sounds they listened to). The secondary DV was their hedonic experience, which we measured every 30 seconds throughout the study.

The results: Those in the Unknown condition pressed more buttons, and hence heard more of the excruciating Nails sound, than those in the Known condition ($M_{56} = 39.3$ vs. $28.2$; $p < .01$), and they also felt worse throughout the experiment ($M_{56} = 3.8$ vs $4.6$; $p < .001$).

Again, curiosity drove people to expose themselves to things which they knew were unpleasant.

We have replicated these findings in other domains, and are in the process of running additional experiments to identify the boundary of these effects. This research joins a still-thin yet growing body of literature by showing the power and hedonic consequences of intrinsic desire to resolve curiosity.

### The Experience Matters More Than You Think: Weighting Intrinsic Incentives More Inside Than Outside of an Activity

**EXTENDED ABSTRACT**

People rely on their present evaluation of future actions when making decisions that influence these actions. For example, people make travel plans or evaluate products based on what they value in the future at the moment of choice. We examine whether people differ in what they value when choosing and pursuing actions, predicting people give greater weight to intrinsic incentives during pursuit than outside pursuit of an activity.

Whereas incentive theory traditionally explores extrinsic incentives, the positive outcomes outside an activity that result from pursuing it, we focus on intrinsic incentives, which are internal to the activity and cannot be separated from it (e.g., the positive experience delivered as part of pursuing an activity; Fishbach and Choi 2012; Laran and Janiszewski 2011; Ryan and Deci 2000). For example, jobs provide salaries (extrinsic incentives) and can be challenging and interesting (intrinsic incentives).

Across six studies, we examine whether people care more for intrinsic incentives inside pursuit of an activity than outside pursuit. We predict this shift occurs because outside pursuit, people are in a cold state and do not experience intrinsic incentives as much (Loewenstein and Schkade 1999; Metcalfe and Mischel 1999; Van Boven and Loewenstein 2003; Van Boven et al. 2012), and therefore weight them less heavily. Further, self-control research predicts immediately experienced incentives (intrinsic ones) are most salient when they are available (inside pursuit) than from a distance (outside pursuit; Ainslie 2001; Rachlin 2000).

Study 1, surveyed gym goers on the importance of intrinsic incentives (e.g., having a fun workout) and extrinsic incentives (e.g., staying in shape) during and before a workout. We find intrinsic incentives were more important during pursuit of a current workout than outside pursuit ($M_{inside} = 4.37; M_{outside} = 4.08$), $t(53) = 2.47, p = .017$, while there was no difference in importance of extrinsic incentives.

Study 2 again demonstrates intrinsic incentives are more important in the present than the future, and also finds they are more important in the present than the past. Employees rated the importance of intrinsic (e.g., being treated well at work) and extrinsic incentives (e.g., compensation) for a current, previous, or future job. Intrinsic incentives mattered more in the present ($M = 4.92$) than in the past ($M = 4.56$), $t(118) = 2.02, p = .046$, and in the future ($M = 4.38$), $t(118) = 2.95, p = .004$. However, extrinsic incentives were rated similarly in the present compared with the past or future.

Study 3 documented a shift in weighting intrinsic incentives in a more controlled experimental task. Participants completed a reading task comprised of 30 trials that they could stop at any time, but were paid based on the total trials completed. We asked about the importance of intrinsic incentives (having fun) and extrinsic incentives (getting paid) either during (inside pursuit) or before the task started (outside pursuit). Intrinsic incentives mattered more during pursuit ($M = 4.00$) than outside pursuit ($M = 2.76$), $t(100) = 3.11, p = .002$, with no difference in importance of extrinsic incentives.

Using the paradigm from Study 3, Study 4 examined whether intrinsic incentives increase task persistence for pursuers inside pursuit, in contrast with predictors’ expected persistence outside pursuit.

Assigned tasks were either high or low on intrinsic incentives (reading jokes vs. an instruction manual) and high or low on extrinsic incentives (paying more or less for each trial). While predictors did not anticipate intrinsic incentives would influence persistence, pursuers persisted longer on a high (vs. low) intrinsic incentive task, completing more trials, $F(1,195) = 21.41, p < .001$, and spending more time on the task, $F(1,195) = 13.67, p < .001$. There was no effect of extrinsic incentives on pursuers’ persistence.

Study 5 provides evidence for the process underlying the impact of intrinsic incentives on persistence. Participants completed the task from Study 4, pursuing either a task high versus low on intrinsic incentives and high versus low on extrinsic incentives. Those pursuing a high intrinsic incentive task had a more positive experience ($M = 3.90$) than those pursuing a low intrinsic incentive task ($M = 1.78$), $F(1,195) = 98.38, p < .001$, with no effect of extrinsic incentives. Meditational analyses revealed increased persistence on an intrinsic task was driven by increased positive experience ($β$ indirect = $1.77$, $SE = .61$; 95% C.I. = (.67, 3.07).

Study 6 examined an affective marker of the shift in weighting intrinsic incentives. We predicted those outside pursuit choosing to forgo intrinsic incentives would regret this decision later, inside pursuit. We created a choice dilemma with tasks trading-off incentives (fun, low-paying task vs. boring, high-paying task). Some participants made a free choice between tasks, while others were randomly assigned a task using a forced-choice paradigm persuading them to choose one over the other. While the majority (73.33%) with free-choice opted for the extrinsic task, forgoing intrinsic incentives, those persuaded to choose this extrinsic task had a worse experience, $t(56) = 3.49, p < .001$, and regretted their choice more than those...
choosing the intrinsic task, \( t(56) = 2.52, p = .015 \). A meditational analysis highlighted the role of positive experience; those persuaded to choose the intrinsic (vs. extrinsic) task had a better experience and regretted their choice less (\( \beta \) indirect = -.62, \( SE = .24 \); 95% C.I. = (-1.21, -.25).

Six studies support our theory that people value intrinsic incentives more inside than outside pursuit, and that this pattern influences evaluation, behavior and choice regret. One implication is for people to pay more attention to intrinsic incentives when making decisions outside pursuit. For example, when choosing a workout regimen, aspiring athletes should realize the positive experience of the workout will seem more important inside pursuit than outside, and can influence how long they actually persist on their workout. To increase persistence, they should choose a workout activity they will enjoy pursuing. Similarly, dieters should realize that while taste may not matter before initiating a diet, to actually persist on a diet they should choose to have a fulfilling and enjoyable (though low-calorie) eating experience.

The Cost of Quantification: Measurement Undermines Intrinsic Enjoyment

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The era of the quantified self is upon us. From sleep, reading, sex, and energy use to devices that track exercise and monitor health, people have access to more information about their behavior than ever before. The value of personal quantification seems clear. By better understanding our behavior, we can make the necessary changes to live happier, healthier lives. But might measurement undermine how many activities are enjoyed?

By helping people see how they are doing, measurement can facilitate performance (Amir and Ariely 2008). People value being productive (Hsee, Yang, and Wang 2010; Keinan and Kivetz 2011; Reis et al. 2000) and tend to maximize measured dimensions of behavior (e.g., the number of miles earned in a frequent-flyer program; Hsee et al. 2003). Consequently, feedback on how much of something one has done (i.e., “measurement”) can increase output (Hsee et al. 2013). Knowing how many steps one has accumulated during the day, for example, can encourage people to walk more.

In contrast, we argue that measurement can decrease enjoyment by transforming intrinsically valuable activities into vehicles for achievement. People often engage in activities like exercising, walking, or reading a book because they are fun to do (Fishbach and Choi 2012). These activities are pleasurable in and of themselves, so people do them for their own sake.

But because measurement provides feedback on performance, we argue that it can undermine enjoyment. Providing external rewards can reduce an activity’s intrinsic value (DeCharme 1968; Deci 1971; Higgins et al. 1995). Classic research on overjustification (Lepper, Green, and Nisbett 1973), for example, found that giving children awards for coloring decreased how much they colored in the future. Even in the absence of explicit rewards, measurement itself may have similar effects. Focusing on what an activity achieves (i.e., its instrumentality) can make the activity less enjoyable (Fishbach and Choi 2012). By giving people feedback on how much they have done, measurement should have an analogous impact, highlighting what an activity achieves and making it seem more instrumental.

Importantly, rather than being instrumental to the specific benefits of the activity, measurement should make activities instrumental to achievement itself. Walking can be instrumental to health, for example, but it can also be instrumental to achievement more generally (i.e., how many steps can one take in a day). Merely measuring output should transform activities once pursued for their own sake into vehicles for achievement. As a result, while measurement may encourage people to walk further or read more, it may decrease the enjoyment of engaging in those activities.

Three experiments test our predictions. Experiment 1 explored how measurement impacts enjoyment of coloring, an intrinsically rewarding activity (Lepper et al. 1973). Participants spent 10 minutes coloring simple figures, and half were assigned to receive information about how many shapes they had colored. After 10 minutes had elapsed, we measured how much participants enjoyed coloring (five items: enjoyable, boring (reverse-scored), interesting, a waste of time (reverse-scored), fun; \( F(1, 97) = 11.74, p = .001 \), the same effect emerged when reading was framed as enjoyable (\( F(1, 97) = 7.24, p = .008 \)). However, at the same time, measured participants enjoyed coloring less (\( F(1, 103) = 3.55, p = .062 \)).

Experiment 2 tested measurement’s impact in the field. We gave participants pedometers to wear for a day and assigned them to either look at how many steps they walked or simply wear the pedometer (the lid was taped). To see whether the effects persist even when measurement is optional, a third group was told that they could look at the number of steps taken, but it was not a necessary part of the study. At the end of the day, we measured enjoyment (\( \alpha = .81 \)) using the measures from Experiment 1. In addition, to test the proposed underlying process, participants indicated whether they perceived walking as instrumental (\( F(1, 97) = 11.01, p = .001 \)). As expected, measured participants walked more than those in the control (\( F(1, 97) = 11.01, p = .001 \)), and the same effect emerged when attending to measurement was optional (\( F(1, 97) = 7.24, p = .008 \)). However, measured participants enjoyed walking less (\( F(1, 97) = 8.73, p = .004 \)). Further, as predicted, perceived instrumentality drove the effect on enjoyment (\( ab = -.43, 95% CI [-.77 to -.16] \)), such that measurement reduced enjoyment by making walking more instrumental (i.e., like work). People thus voluntarily access measurement information when it is available, even though it makes the activity less intrinsically enjoyable.

Experiment 3 examined reading. Participants read an excerpt from a book, and half were assigned to view the number of pages completed. To further explore the underlying process, we manipulated how the reading task was framed. Participants either read that “reading is a useful and educational activity” (instrumental frame), “reading is a fun and relaxing activity” (enjoyable frame), or received no additional information (control). If measurement reduces enjoyment by making activities seem more instrumental, then making an activity seem instrumental to begin with should attenuate the effect. Supporting our theory, in the control condition, measured participants enjoyed reading less (\( F(1, 304) = 8.89, p = .003 \)), and this same effect emerged when reading was framed as enjoyable (\( F(1, 304) = 5.33, p = .022 \)). When reading was framed as instrumental, however, this effect was attenuated (\( F(1, 304) = 1.59, p = .208 \)). Thus it is not measurement per se that makes activities less enjoyable; rather, measurement undermines the enjoyment of previously intrinsically valuable activities by making them seem instrumental.

Measurement is a powerful tool. But in addition to influencing output, it also impacts how we see and relate to various activities. Does this mean we should stop measuring our behavior? No, but it does highlight the importance of considering why people engage in a behavior before deciding whether to measure it. For intrinsically valuable activities, it’s better not to know.
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