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Turning pain into cues for goal-directed behavior: Implementation intentions reduce escape-avoidance behavior on a painful task

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1 Turning pain into cues for goal-directed behavior: Implementation intentions
2 reduce escape-avoidance behavior on a painful task.

3

4 **Running title:** implementation intentions and pain

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1 Abstract

2 Pain automatically elicits escape-avoidance behavior to avert bodily harm. In patients with
3 chronic pain long-term escape-avoidance behavior may increase the risk of chronic disability.
4 The aim of the presents study was to examine whether implementation intentions, reduce
5 escape-avoidance behavior during painful tasks in healthy individuals. Implementation
6 intentions are “if-then” self-statements associating situational cues with goal-directed
7 behaviors.

8 Seventy healthy participants performed a painful finger pressing task, preceded by either
9 implementation intention instructions with pain or a non-pain cue as a cue for goal directed
10 behavior, or control instructions. Escape-avoidance behavior was operationalized as both task
11 duration and response rate. Inhibitory control was measured using the Stop Signal Task.

12 The pain implementation intentions resulted in the highest task duration ($p = .02$), and thus
13 less escape-avoidance behavior. Low inhibitory control was associated with shorter task
14 duration ($p = .03$), and thus more escape-avoidance behavior. The non-pain implementation
15 intentions resulted in the highest response rate, but only when inhibitory control was low ($p =$
16 $.04$).

17 Implementation intentions referring to pain or non-pain reduce escape-avoidance behavior
18 on a painful task. It is worthwhile to examine whether individuals in pain and with low
19 inhibitory control benefit from interventions that incorporate implementation intentions.

20

21 Perspective

22 This study is the first to show that forming implementation intentions reduce escape-
23 avoidance behavior during pain and foster non-pain goal pursuit. The use of implementation
24 intentions is indicated to be an intervention that could be of use in dealing with pain,
25 particularly when inhibitory control is low.

1

2

Keywords

3 Experimental pain; Goal pursuit; Implementation intentions; Inhibitory control; Escape-

4 avoidance behavior

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1 Introduction

2 Pain is a biologically hardwired signal of bodily threat automatically eliciting withdrawal
3 responses,¹⁴ such as avoiding a sensation that is expected to be painful and escaping from the
4 continuation of a sensation that already is painful.¹³ Escape-avoidance behavior protects the
5 body from harm, but may be maladaptive when pain occurs without imminent harm. Escape-
6 avoidance behavior results in failing to reach valued life goals and may instigate chronic pain
7 and disability.⁴⁵ Current affective-motivational models postulate that escaping or avoiding
8 pain is not solely explained by a primitive defensive threat system, but also by conflicting
9 (non-pain) goals, such as finishing tasks satisfactorily.^{12,25,44} For example, a person
10 experiencing pain while writing a report may have both the goal to avoid pain and the
11 conflicting non-pain goal to finish the report. Research has demonstrated non-pain goals to
12 reduce escape-avoidance behavior during painful tasks in individuals with²³ and without
13 chronic pain.^{6,28,41}

14 An unresolved issue is how goal conflicts are solved between short-term escape-
15 avoidance goals (i.e., pain reduction) and long-term non-pain goals (i.e., finishing the task).
16 Individual differences in inhibitory control may be involved in the resolution of goal
17 conflicts.^{16,36} Inhibitory control is an effortful system acting control over an automatic
18 approach-avoidance system to attain long-term task goals.^{7,19} Low inhibitory control may
19 lead to difficulty suppressing automatic escape-avoidance tendencies. Indeed, research has
20 demonstrated that low inhibitory control predicted early termination of painful tasks^{26,38,47}
21 and was associated with chronic pain.³⁷ These findings suggest, that it is beneficial to develop
22 interventions assisting inhibition of escape-avoidance tendencies during pain to enhance the
23 attainment of task goals. This study examines this notion in a healthy sample. In future, such
24 interventions can be trialed with patients with chronic pain who display low inhibitory
25 control.

1 A well-known intervention improving goal attainment is forming implementation
2 intentions by specifying when, where and how goals can be achieved.^{20,21} Implementation
3 intentions create an association between a goal-directed response Y and occasion X, through
4 predetermined “if-then” propositions (e.g., to prevent snacking: If I sit down to watch
5 television, then I eat an apple). This if-then connection improves the accessibility of the
6 critical cue in memory, enhancing the detection of the cue.¹ Once the cue is detected, goal-
7 directed behaviors are assumed to be automatically activated.⁵ Research shows that
8 implementation intentions facilitate the initiation of desired behaviors.²¹ However, the
9 reduction of escape-avoidance behavior during (non-harmful) painful tasks is more
10 complicated as this requires the simultaneous activation of two processes: the suppression of
11 an undesired response (e.g., task disengagement) and the substitution of this response with a
12 desired one (e.g., task continuance).³

13 Implementation intentions have been shown successful in substituting maladaptive
14 behaviors.^{3,31} In this procedure, the neutral cue (when and where) in the “if”-component was
15 replaced by a motivational cue (e.g., pain) that normally elicits unwanted responses (e.g.,
16 avoidance). This way, motivational cues activate the desired responses (e.g., approach)
17 having the potential to override habitual undesired responses. For example, “If I have pain,
18 then I will continue exercising.” Research outside the pain domain has demonstrated that
19 implementation intentions associating motivational cues (e.g., feeling tempted) with desired
20 responses (e.g., dieting) effectively inhibit unwanted behaviors (e.g., eating chocolate),^{2,3,31}
21 particularly in people with low inhibitory control.³¹

22 The aim of the present study is to examine whether implementation intentions reduce
23 escape-avoidance behavior during painful tasks. Two implementation intentions – specifying
24 a non-pain cue or pain as a cue for goal-directed behavior – are compared to goal intentions
25 specifying the desired end-state only. It was hypothesized that implementation intentions, as

1 compared to mere goal intentions, would reduce escape-avoidance behavior during painful
2 tasks. Moreover, these effects were expected to be most pronounced when inhibitory control
3 was low.

4

5 Methods

6 *Participants*

7 The participants were recruited via advertisement at different faculties of the Utrecht
8 University. The inclusion criterion was an age between 18-65 years. Exclusion criteria were:
9 1) chronic pain, 2) acute pain in the upper extremities, neck, or shoulder 3) insufficient
10 knowledge of the Dutch language. Participants received €5 or course credits for their
11 participation. The ethical committee of the faculty of Psychology and Neuroscience of
12 Maastricht University approved the study, and the procedures followed were in accordance
13 with the Helsinki Declaration of 2008. After participants provided written informed consent,
14 they were randomized into three experimental goal conditions. Block randomization was used
15 such that each condition consisted of an equal number of participants ($n = 25$).

16 Implementation intentions have been shown to affect behavior with a medium to large
17 effect size,^{2,32} and a medium interaction effect between implementation intentions and
18 inhibitory control has been shown.³² A total sample size of 68 is needed, to be able to test the
19 effect of implementation intention manipulations and the interaction effects of medium effect
20 size between the implementation intention conditions and response inhibition. Our main
21 analysis involved analysis of covariance including five variables: goal condition (because this
22 variable has three levels, it was entered as two dichotomized variables), the moderator
23 response inhibition, and the interaction effect between goal condition and inhibitory control
24 (two variables). We used the F-tests linear multiple regression, fixed model, R^2 increase in
25 G*Power 3.1.9.2¹⁷ to compute the sample size. To reach a power of $\beta=.80$ with $\alpha=.05$ and a

1 medium effect size ($f^2 = .15$), a total sample size of 68 was required to test the interaction
2 effect between goal condition and response inhibition. Anticipating 10% missing values, we
3 choose a sample size of 75.

4
5 *Escape-avoidance behavior.* Participants performed an adapted Martians task,³⁵ which is a
6 painful open-ended finger pressing task.^{8,29} Participants were instructed that the goal of this
7 computer game was to shoot alien invaders from Mars by pressing a button. Invaders
8 appeared on the screen one by one in rows of 10 aliens with a regular speed of 5 invaders per
9 second. Once an alien appeared on the screen, the participant was instructed to shoot the alien
10 by a button press. When the button press was given within 100 ms after the appearance of the
11 alien, the alien was hit, and a picture of an explosion replaced the picture of the alien. When
12 the participant missed the alien, its picture remained on the screen. Participants pressed the
13 button and shot aliens with the index finger of their dominant hand while their wrist was
14 attached to the table with a wristband to avoid extensive movements with their dominant arm.
15 Participants were instructed that there was no right or wrong time to stop the Martians task.
16 They decided for themselves when to end the task by pushing the stop-button.²⁹ Participants
17 were instructed that those with the highest performance on the Martians task could win €20,
18 to induce task motivation. Unknown to the participant, the maximal duration of the Martians
19 task was 90 minutes. Participants could show escape-avoidance behavior during the task in
20 two ways. Firstly, they could escape from an already painful sensation or avoid pain
21 exacerbation by early task termination.^{4,13} Secondly, they could avoid (intense) pain by
22 responding less frequently on the appearance of a Martian (response rate).^{4,10,41} Therefore,
23 escape-avoidance behavior was operationalized as task duration and response rate per minute.
24 A previous study showed a mean task duration of 2 -7 minutes, and a mean response rate of
25 205 – 248 responses per minute, depending on the experimental manipulation. Moreover, a

1 previous study demonstrated that this task resulted in painful sensations (mean pain score
2 between 4 and 5 on a scale from 0-10) caused by repeated muscle movement in healthy
3 individuals.²⁹

4
5 *Goal conditions.* Before the start of the Martians task the implementation intentions were
6 experimentally manipulated. There were three goal conditions: mere goal intention, non-pain
7 implementation intention and pain implementation intention. Participants were instructed to
8 set the goal intention “*to shoot down as many Martians as possible*”, and to repeat this goal
9 for themselves in their mind one time. Participants in the goal intention condition received no
10 further instructions. Participants in the *non-pain* and pain implementation intention
11 conditions received an additional instruction to create a specific plan to improve their
12 performance. Participants in the non-pain implementation intention condition were instructed
13 to create an implementation intention associating the appearance of the Martians with the
14 goal-directed behavior: “*If the Martians appear on the screen I will follow my goal to shoot*
15 *down as many Martians as possible.*” Participants in the *pain* implementation intention
16 condition were instructed to create an implementation intention associating pain with the
17 goal-directed behavior: “*If I feel pain I will follow my goal to shoot down as many Martians*
18 *as possible.*” After reading the implementation intention participants were instructed to retype
19 the implementation intention on the computer. Next, they were instructed to repeat and
20 visualize the plan in their mind a number of times for 60 seconds, and then to type the
21 implementation intention once more on the computer.

22
23 *Inhibitory control.* Inhibitory control was measured with the Stop Signal Task (SST).³² The
24 task measures a persons’ ability to inhibit prepotent responses. The task consisted of six
25 blocks of 32 trials. There was a short break between the blocks. Before the six blocks

1 participants performed a practice block of 32 trials. Each block comprised two sorts of trials
2 randomly intermixed: go-trials (75%) and stop-trials (25%). On go-trials participants were
3 instructed to identify a go-stimulus by speeded right- or left-hand button presses (the X or O
4 button). Each trial started with the presentation of a fixation cross which was replaced by the
5 letter X or O randomly (the go-stimulus) after 500 ms. The go-stimulus remained on the
6 screen for 1500 ms, regardless of response time. On the stop-trials, the onset of the go-signal
7 was followed by an auditory stop-signal (a tone of 1000 HZ for 100 ms), instructing
8 participants to withhold their response. A tracking procedure was used,³⁴ in which the
9 interval between onset of the visual Go stimulus and onset of the auditory Stop stimulus was
10 varied based on participants' task performance. When the participant inhibited successfully,
11 the task was made more difficult by increasing the delay by 50 ms. Following an
12 unsuccessful inhibition, the delay was decreased by 50 ms making the task easier. The delay
13 at the start of the task was 250 ms. The intertrial interval was 1000 ms. Reaction times on go-
14 trials of less than 150 ms were excluded. Two variables were calculated: the average reaction
15 time (RT) and average stop delay in milliseconds (ms). The stop signal reaction time (SSRT),
16 the main independent variable, was calculated by subtracting the mean stop delay from the
17 mean RT.²⁹ Higher SSRTs indicate that participants need more time to inhibit a response,
18 reflecting low response inhibition. The reliability and construct validity of the Stop Signal
19 Task have shown to be satisfactorily.^{11,23}

20
21 *Pain.* To check whether the task was painful and whether the three goal conditions did not
22 differ on pain, two somewhat dissociable sensory and affective aspects of pain,⁴⁰ pain
23 intensity and pain unpleasantness were assessed —without referring to a specific body part—
24 before and after the Martians task. Before the task participants rated pain intensity and pain
25 unpleasantness at the present moment. After the task participants were asked to indicate the

1 'worst pain' and the 'pain intensity and pain unpleasantness just before the end of the task'
2 retrospectively.^{24,43} Ratings were made on an 11-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (*no pain at*
3 *all*) to 10 (*the most intense pain imaginable*) for pain intensity and from 0 (*not unpleasant at*
4 *all*) to 10 (*the most unpleasant pain imaginable*) for pain unpleasantness.^{15,40} The construct
5 validity of the items has shown to be satisfactorily.^{24,40} An average pain intensity score was
6 calculated of the worst pain ratings and the pain ratings just before the end of the task. The
7 internal consistency of these two items was satisfactorily in the present study (Cronbach's
8 alpha = .71).

9
10 *Perceived experimenter demand.* Demand characteristics could unduly influence the results.
11 To check potential differences in demand characteristics between the three goal conditions,
12 three questions were administered after the Martians task: "To what extent were you serious
13 about performing the task?",²⁶ "To what extent did you assume that the experimenter
14 expected you to persist in the task?", and "To what extent did the experimenter convince you
15 to try to persist in the task as long as possible?"⁵ Ratings were given on an 11-point Likert
16 scale ranging from 0 (*not at all*) to 10 (*very much*).

17
18 *Motivation.* To check the possibility that the effects of implementation intentions on escape-
19 avoidance behavior could be explained by differences in task motivation^{6,31} the following
20 questions were administered: "How important was it for you to perform well on the Martians
21 task?" and "How important was it for you to persist doing the task?" The questions were
22 derived from previous research^{6,25,31} and adapted to the present experimental task. Previous
23 research demonstrated the construct validity of these questions.^{18, 22} Ratings were made on an
24 11-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (*not at all*) to 10 (*very much*). An average motivation

1 score was calculated of the two items. The internal consistency of the two items was good in
2 the present study (Cronbach's alpha = .87).

3 *Procedure*

4 Participants were told that the study was about the role of task motivation on painful task
5 performance. After signing informed consent, participants completed biographical questions
6 and baseline pain intensity and pain unpleasantness ratings on the computer. Next, they
7 completed the Stop Signal Task on the computer. Subsequently, participants performed the
8 finger-pressing task that was preceded by the goal intention instruction and implementation
9 intention instructions. Participants rated their pain intensity and pain unpleasantness at the
10 end of the task retrospectively, as well as questions about their motivation and the perceived
11 experimenter demand. To determine whether participants were unaware of the hypotheses of
12 the experiment, an open-ended question was administered asking about the goal of the
13 experiment. All participants were debriefed about the design and purpose of the study and
14 received an incentive (money or course credits) immediately after the experiment.

16 *Statistics*

17 To establish whether the three experimental groups did not differ on baseline characteristics
18 and perceived experimenter demand an analysis of variances or chi-square difference test was
19 performed with goal condition as between-subjects factor (goal intention, non-pain
20 implementation intention versus pain implementation intention) and the following dependent
21 variables: age, gender, response inhibition and experimenter demand.

22 Next, it was established whether possible effects of goal condition on task duration
23 and response rate could be explained by differences in task motivation or pain intensity and
24 pain unpleasantness. For task motivation analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed
25 with goal condition as between-subjects factor, response inhibition as centered covariate, and

1 task motivation as the dependent variable. For pain intensity and pain unpleasantness, a
2 repeated measures ANCOVA was performed with goal condition as the between-subjects
3 factor, response inhibition as centered covariate, and time (before versus after the task) as
4 within-subjects factor.

5 Subsequently, to test the main hypotheses of the experiment, ANCOVA's were
6 performed with goal condition as between-subjects factor, response inhibition as centered
7 covariate, and task duration and responses rate as the dependent variables. If the effect of
8 goal condition was significant, posthoc pairwise comparisons were performed between the
9 three conditions using simple contrasts. Moreover, for all analyses of covariance the
10 assumption of homogeneity of regression was tested. That is, to test the assumption of linear
11 relationships between the covariate (response inhibition) and the dependent variable,
12 interactions of the centered covariate with the between-subjects factor were calculated. Non-
13 significant effects ($p > .05$) were deleted from the model one by one, starting with the higher
14 order interactions.

16 Results

17 Participants

18 A sample of 75 students from Utrecht University participated in the experiment (42 men, 33
19 women; $M_{\text{age}} = 20.71$, $SD = 2.09$ years). Excluded were: 2 participants from the non-pain
20 implementation intention condition because of technical errors during data acquisition, 2
21 participants from the non-pain implementation intention condition because either their stop-
22 signal reaction time score ($SSRT = 368$ ms) or their task duration (64.09 min) deviated more
23 than 3 SD from the group mean ($SSRT: M = 212$, $SD = 45$ ms; Task duration: $M = 13.70$, SD
24 $= 2.68$ min) and 1 participant from the pain implementation intention condition because his
25 response rate (190 responses/min) was less than 3 SD of the group mean ($M = 281$, $SD = 27$

1 response/min). The final sample size consisted of 70 participants (37 men, 33 women; $M_{\text{age}} =$
2 20.56, $SD = 1.91$ years) with 25 participants in the goal intention condition, 21 participants in
3 the non-pain implementation intention condition and 24 participants in the pain
4 implementation intention condition. None of the participants indicated to be aware of the
5 hypothesis of the experiment.

7 *Randomization check and alternative explanations*

8 In Table 1 the means and standard deviations are presented of gender, age, response
9 inhibition, experimenter demand, task motivation and pain for the three different goal
10 conditions. To establish whether randomization was successful it was examined whether or
11 not the three experimental groups differed on baseline characteristics. At baseline, no
12 significant differences were obtained between the three goal conditions on gender; $\chi^2(70) =$
13 4.44, $p = .11$, age; $F(2, 67) = 0.23$, $p = .80$, $\eta_p^2 < .01$, and response inhibition; $F(2, 67) =$
14 0.58, $p = .56$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, indicating that randomization was successful.

15 Moreover, it was established whether the three experimental groups did not differ
16 regarding experimenter demand, task motivation or pain to rule out alternative explanations.
17 The three goal conditions did not differ on experimenter demand. That is, no significant
18 differences emerged between the three goal conditions on being serious about performing the
19 Martians task ($F(2, 67) = 1.20$, $p = .31$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$), on the degree to which the participants
20 assumed that the experimenter wanted them to continue the task as long as possible ($F(2, 66)$
21 $= 0.15$, $p = .86$, $\eta_p^2 < .01$), and on the degree to which the participants thought that the
22 experimenter tried to convince them to continue as long as possible ($F(2, 67) = 0.37$, $p = .70$,
23 $\eta_p^2 = .01$).

24 Moreover, task motivation and pain did not differ between conditions. That is, neither
25 significant main effects on task motivation were found for goal condition ($F(2, 66) = 2.67$, p

1 = .11, $\eta_p^2 = .06$) or response inhibition nor for the interaction between response inhibition and
2 goal condition ($p > .05$). It was found that the task was painful as pain intensity and pain
3 unpleasantness were significantly higher after than before the task (respectively, $F(1, 61) =$
4 $72.33, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .54$, and $F(1, 64) = 42.29, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .40$). However, response
5 inhibition and goal condition were not significantly related to the increase in pain intensity
6 (respectively, $F(1, 61) = 0.16, p = .69, \eta_p^2 < .01$, and $F(2, 61) = 0.12, p = .89, \eta_p^2 < .01$) and
7 pain unpleasantness (respectively, $F(1, 64) = 0.04, p = .86, \eta_p^2 < .01$, and, $F(1, 64) = 0.27, p$
8 $= .77, \eta_p^2 < .01$). No other main and interaction effects were obtained of response inhibition,
9 goal condition and time on pain intensity and pain unpleasantness (all $ps > .05$).

10 The two main dependent variables, task duration and response rate were significantly
11 associated, $r(70) = .30, p = .01$ (medium effect size), indicating that a higher response rate
12 was associated with longer task duration. Note that in the subsequent main analysis of
13 response rate it was not controlled for task duration and vice versa, as a similar pattern of
14 results emerged with and without statistical control.

15 -----
16 Insert Table 1
17 -----
18 -----

19 Insert Figure 1
20 -----

21 *Total task duration.* To test the hypothesis that implementation intentions reduce escape-
22 avoidance behavior, operationalized as higher task duration on a painful task, an ANCOVA
23 was performed with goal condition as between-subjects factor, response inhibition as
24 centered covariate, and task duration as the dependent variable. Figure 1 displays the means
25 and standard errors of task duration. A main effect of goal condition with a moderate effect

1 size was found; $F(2, 66) = 4.07, p = .02, \eta_p^2 = .11$. Simple contrasts demonstrated greater task
2 duration in the pain implementation intention condition as compared to the non-pain
3 implementation intention condition; $t(44) = 2.28, p = .03$, and the goal intention condition; t
4 $(48) = 2.60, p = .01$. No significant difference was observed between the non-pain
5 implementation intention condition and the goal intention condition; $t(45) = 0.21, p = .84$.
6 Additionally, a main effect of response inhibition was obtained with a moderate effect size,
7 indicating that less response inhibition was associated with shorter task duration; $F(1, 66) =$
8 $5.10, p = .03, \eta_p^2 = .07$. No significant interaction effect was obtained between response
9 inhibition and goal condition; $F(2, 66) = 0.79, p = .46, \eta_p^2 = .02$. These findings indicate that
10 the pain implementation intention condition was effective in increasing task duration
11 independent of the level of inhibitory control.

12
13 *Response rate.* To test the hypothesis that implementation intentions reduce escape-avoidance
14 behavior, operationalized as higher response rate on a painful task, an ANCOVA was
15 performed with goal condition as between-subjects factor, response inhibition as centered
16 covariate, and response rate as the dependent variable. A main effect of goal condition; $F(1,$
17 $64) = 4.65, p = .01, \eta_p^2 = .13$, but no significant main effect of response inhibition was found;
18 $F(1, 64) = 0.22, p = .64, \eta_p^2 < .01$. The significant main effect of goal condition was
19 superseded by an interaction between response inhibition and goal condition; $F(2, 64) = 3.50,$
20 $p = .04, \eta_p^2 = .10$. Figure 2 depicts the number of responses per minute as a function of goal
21 condition and the level of response inhibition. Posthoc simple slope analyses³⁸ testing the
22 effect of goal condition on response rate/min for the participants with low ($M + 1SD$) and high
23 response inhibition ($M - 1SD$) separately, demonstrated a goal condition effect for participants
24 with low response inhibition; $F(2, 64) = 7.39, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .19$, but not for those with high
25 response inhibition; $F(2, 64) = 0.19, p = .83, \eta_p^2 < .01$. For participants with lower response

1 inhibition, a higher response rate/min was found in the non-pain implementation intention
2 condition as compared to the goal intention condition, $t(44) = 3.82, p < .001$, and the pain
3 implementation intention condition, $t(43) = 2.74, p < .01$. No significant difference was
4 observed between the pain implementation intention and goal intention condition; $t(47) =$
5 $1.08, p = .28$. These findings indicate that the non-pain implementation intention condition
6 was effective in increasing the response rate, particularly in those with lower inhibitory
7 control. The pain implementation intention condition was not effective on this measure.

8
9 -----
10 Insert Figure 2
11 -----

12 Discussion

13
14 The present study showed that implementation intentions reduce escape-avoidance behavior
15 on a painful task and foster the pursuit of non-pain goals. As expected, the implementation
16 intention creating an association between a non-pain task event (the appearance of the
17 Martian) and goal-directed behavior (continue with the task) facilitated response rate,
18 particularly in individuals with lower levels of inhibitory control. Moreover as expected, the
19 pain implementation intention, creating an association between pain and goal-directed
20 behavior, resulted in the greatest task duration. A higher level of inhibitory control was
21 associated with greater task duration, irrespective of goal condition. Note that the effects of
22 implementation intentions and response inhibition on task duration and response rate were
23 not explained by differences in task motivation and pain as the different goal conditions and
24 response inhibition were unrelated to pain intensity, pain unpleasantness, and task motivation.

1 The finding that the non-pain implementation intention improved the response rate as
2 compared to goal intentions only (at least in people with low inhibitory control), is in line
3 with research demonstrating that implementation intentions facilitate the initiation of goal-
4 directed behavior.^{21,20,21} A supposed mechanism is that implementation intentions create an
5 association between a critical cue (i.e. the Martians) and goal-directed behavior (i.e. shooting
6 down aliens). This may improve the accessibility of the critical cue in memory, which
7 enhances the detection of the cue.¹ Once the cue is detected, goal-directed behaviors are
8 automatically activated.^{5,46,47}

9 The finding that a motivational implementation intention, creating an association
10 between pain and goal-directed behavior, effectively increased painful task duration, is in line
11 with previous research outside the field of pain demonstrating that motivational cues that
12 normally trigger unwanted behaviors can be used to substitute these undesirable behaviors
13 with desirable, goal-directed, behaviors.^{2,3,31} The present study adds to previous research by
14 showing that implementation intentions are also applicable to painful situations in which the
15 undesirable behavior is related to avoidance rather than approach goals. This implies that
16 implementation intentions can be used to turn pain into a cue for goal-directed behavior.

17 The two implementation intentions affected the two response variables differently.
18 The pain implementation intention increased total task duration but not response rate.
19 Conversely, the non-pain implementation intention increased response rate but not task
20 duration. Task duration can be considered a proxy of escape from an already painful
21 sensation or avoidance of pain exacerbation.^{4,13} Response rate may reflect avoidance of pain
22 as participants could avoid (intense) pain by not responding.^{4,10,41} The findings suggest that
23 implementation intentions specifying pain as the critical cue for goal-directed behavior
24 postponed a final escape from pain or avoidance of pain exacerbation (task duration) rather
25 than reduced avoidance of pain (response rate). In contrast, the non-pain implementation

1 intention appeared to predominantly reduce avoidance of pain. These findings cautiously
2 suggest that the fit between the type of implementation intention and type of avoidance-
3 escape behavior should be considered when using implementation intentions to help reaching
4 competing non-pain goals during painful tasks. Future research is required testing this
5 hypothesis.

6 The finding that reduced inhibitory control was associated with shorter task duration
7 is in line with previous research demonstrating that individuals with low inhibitory control
8 withdrew their hand earlier from a cold pressor task,^{26,38,48} suggesting that individuals with a
9 stronger ability to inhibit prepotent responses are better able to inhibit escape-avoidance
10 responses elicited by pain in the service of a competing task goal. The results of the present
11 study partly support the conjecture that implementation intentions are particularly beneficial
12 in individuals with low inhibitory control. That is, particularly the non-pain implementation
13 intention resulted in an improved response rate in individuals with low inhibitory control but
14 not in those with high inhibitory control. Apparently, people with low inhibitory control
15 profit most from a simple, straightforward behavioral instruction. This finding corroborates
16 previous research demonstrating that those with poor self-regulation benefit more from
17 implementation intentions than those with high self-regulation.³¹

18 A possible adverse effect of the pain implementation intention is that it increases pain
19 because it facilitates the accessibility of pain-related information and attention towards pain.
20 However, research testing that attention to pain-related information predicts higher pain
21 intensity is limited and contradictory.⁴² Moreover in the present study, no evidence was found
22 that the implementation intentions influenced pain, as no differences in pain intensity and
23 pain unpleasantness were observed between the three goal conditions.

24 The implementation intentions in the present study were created such that they
25 specifically facilitated performance on a particular task. It is unknown to what degree these

1 implementation intentions also generalize to other behaviors outside the research lab. Future
2 research that includes painful daily life activities will be helpful in establishing the
3 generalizability of our results.

4 Another issue pertains to the label ‘non-pain implementation intention’ used in the
5 present study. This label was used as an association was created between an initially non-
6 painful task cue (the appearance of a Martian) and goal-directed behavior. However, it is
7 possible that at the end of the task the Martian became a conditioned stimulus predicting pain.
8 Thus, non-pain implementation intentions may become pain-related as an association is
9 created between a cue predicting pain and goal-directed behavior.

10 A limitation with respect to power is that our analyses were not able to find
11 significance with smaller than medium effect sizes. A limitation with respect to external
12 validity is that only students without chronic pain were included. In this sense, this study is a
13 proof-of-principle study motivating to examine the effects of implementation intentions in
14 populations with chronic pain. It has been shown that an intervention including the formation
15 of implementation intentions, besides cognitive behavior interventions and mental
16 contrasting, improved the physical capacity in patients with chronic back pain.⁹ Although it is
17 impossible to separate the effect of the implementation intentions from the other interventions
18 in that study, the findings tentatively suggest that implementation intentions may also be
19 helpful in restoring physical function in patients with chronic pain. To bridge the gap
20 between goal intentions and actions, implementation intentions could be useful, but future
21 research is required to establish whether implementation intentions, as a stand-alone strategy,
22 are beneficial in patients with chronic pain.³⁰

23 Previous research on statements associating situational cues with goal-directed
24 behaviors (implementation intentions), was mainly aimed at reducing approach behavior
25 towards rewarding stimuli, such as decreasing unhealthy food intake.^{3,20,21,31} In contrast, our

1 study is unique in using implementation intentions to reduce avoidance behavior away from
2 punishing (i.e., painful) stimuli or to reduce escape from these stimuli. The present study was
3 the first to show that creating associations between non-pain events or pain and goal-directed
4 behaviors effectively improves task duration and response rate during a painful task. The
5 results indicate that it is worthwhile to examine —particularly in individuals with chronic
6 pain and reduced inhibitory control— whether a relatively brief and easy to apply cognitive-
7 behavioral intervention based on the formation of implementation intentions, reduces escape-
8 avoidance behavior and fosters the pursuit of non-pain goals.

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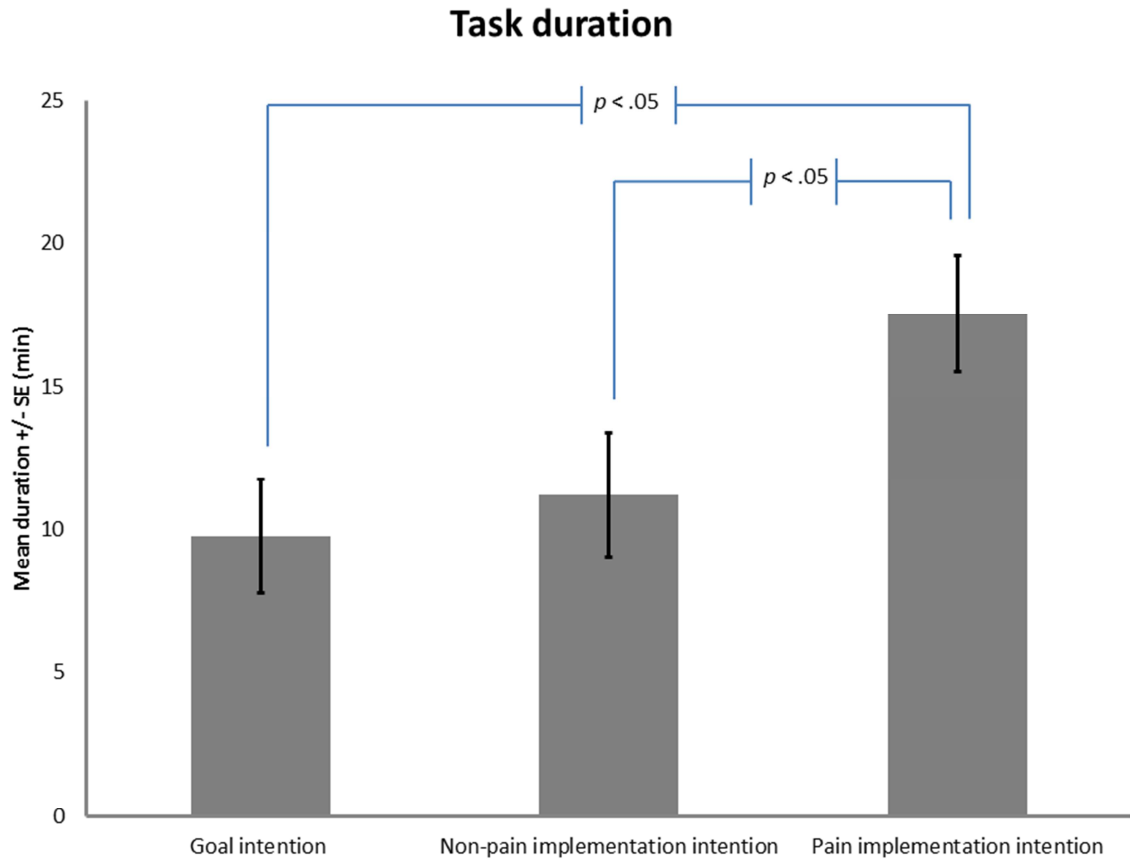
1 Figure Caption

2 Figure 1. *Mean task duration (minutes) and standard errors in the three goal conditions.*3 Figure 2. *Mean response rate (per minute) in the three goal conditions for participant with*4 *high and low response inhibition. Note. Low and high response inhibition were indicated by*5 *high (+ 1 SD) and low (- 1 SD) scores on the Stop signal task, respectively.*

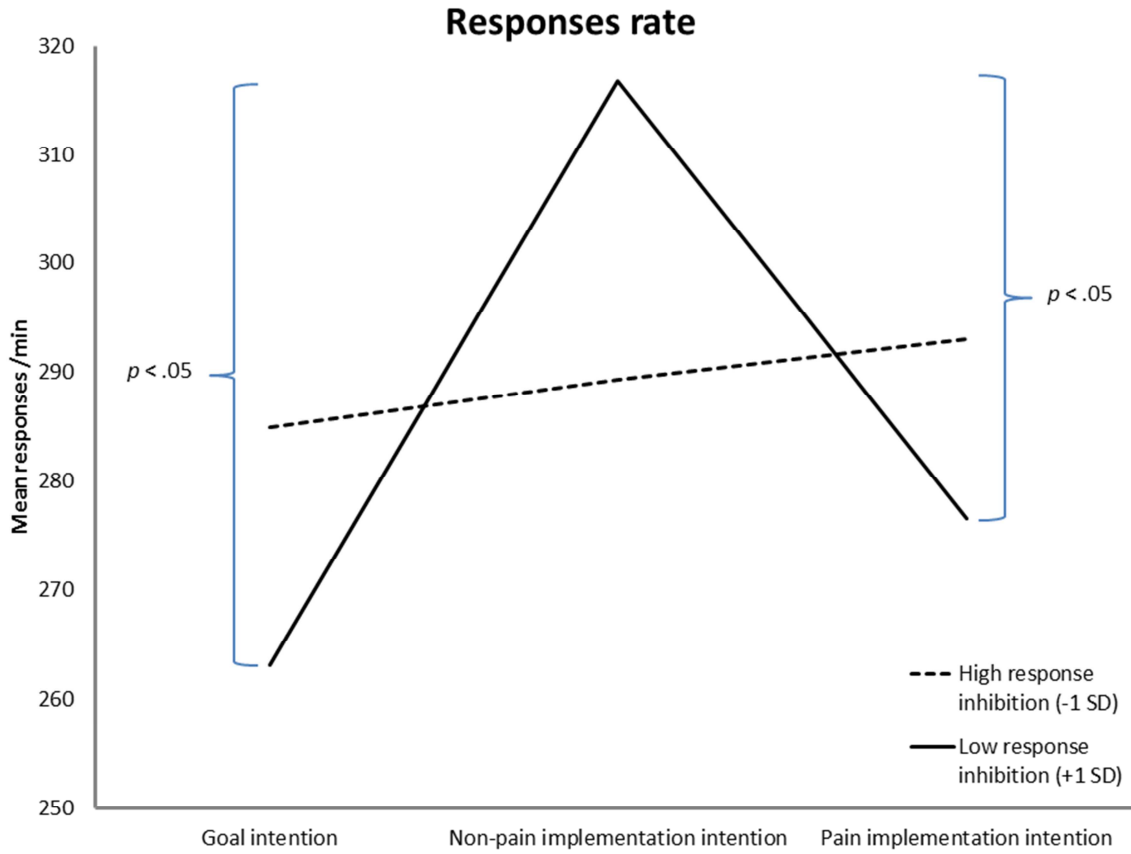
Table 1. Characteristics of the participants in the three goal conditions

	Goal intention	Non-pain implementation intention	Pain implementation intention
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Gender (<i>n</i> m/f)	16/9	8/13	9/15
Age	20.41 (1.81)	20.74 (1.91)	20.62 (2.16)
Response inhibition (SSRT in ms)	222 (52)	210 (44)	218 (48)
Experimenter demand			
Seriousness	5.55 (2.30)	6.89 (2.05)	6.62 (2.27)
“The experimenter wanted me to continue as long as possible”	6.27 (2.69)	6.68 (2.81)	6.29 (3.13)
“The experimenter convinced me to continue as long as possible”	4.36 (2.74)	5.11 (3.70)	5.00 (3.18)
Task motivation	6.46 (2.23)	7.54 (1.78)	7.35 (1.59)
Pain intensity baseline	1.64 (0.85)	1.43 (0.68)	1.44 (0.60)
Pain intensity after task	4.20 (2.62)	3.71 (2.27)	4.11 (2.21)
Pain unpleasantness baseline	2.13 (1.52)	1.43 (0.68)	1.79 (1.25)
Pain unpleasantness after task	4.09 (2.63)	3.86 (3.15)	4.38 (2.79)

Note. SSRT, Stop signal reaction time, a higher SSRT reflects less response inhibition.



ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT



Highlights points

- Implementation intentions associate situational cues with goal-directed behavior.
- Escape-avoidance behavior reduces when goal-directed behavior is cued by pain.
- Inhibitory control is associated with less escape-avoidance behavior during pain.
- Implementation intentions reduce escape or avoidance when inhibitory control is low.
- Implementation intentions may help patients with pain and low inhibitory control.