

If-then Planning in Sports: A Scoping Review

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Abstract

1
2 If-then planning (implementation intentions) describes a self-regulatory strategy that helps
3 people to attain their goals across a variety of domains, such as achieving physical activity goals.
4 Based on such beneficial effects, if-then plans are anecdotally discussed as a strategy to
5 enhance sports-related performance as well. However, this discussion currently lacks an
6 empirical basis. We therefore conducted a scoping review to identify experimental research on
7 if-then planning effects on sports-related performance, potential moderators of these effects,
8 the methodological approaches used, and the suitability of the available evidence for assessing
9 the effectiveness of if-then planning in sports. Based on a search of four online databases, we
10 identified a set of eleven studies that investigated if-then planning in experimental research
11 with sports-related performance as outcome measure. Six of these studies focused on if-then
12 planning in endurance tasks, the remaining studies investigated sports performance beyond
13 endurance. The samples were often small and comprised university students, and conclusions
14 regarding the effectiveness of if-then planning for improving sports-related performance were
15 rather heterogeneous. Still, the majority of studies shed light on tentative mechanisms (e.g.,
16 perceptions of effort and pain, arousal) and moderators (e.g., athletes' beliefs about their
17 performance limits, feasibility of the behavior) of if-then planning in sports, guiding future
18 research regarding the question of when and for whom if-then-planning might be a beneficial
19 strategy. Based on these findings, we identify potentials and pitfalls when using if-then plans to
20 enhance sports-related performance, discuss promising routes for future research, and derive
21 practical implications for athletes and coaches.

22 *Keywords:* if-then planning, implementation intentions, self-control, sport performance,

23 scoping review, psychological interventions

Zusammenfassung

24
25 Wenn-Dann Pläne (Implementierungsintentionen, engl. „Implementation Intentions“) sind eine
26 selbstregulatorische Strategie, die Menschen beim Erreichen ihrer Ziele in vielen Domänen
27 unterstützt, z.B. im Kontext körperlicher Aktivität. Basierend auf solchen positiven Effekten
28 werden Wenn-Dann-Pläne anekdotisch als Strategie zur Leistungssteigerung auch im Sport
29 diskutiert. Allerdings fehlt dieser Diskussion derzeit eine empirische Grundlage. Wir haben
30 daher einen Scoping Review durchgeführt, um experimentelle Forschung zu Effekten von
31 Wenn-Dann-Plänen auf die sportbezogene Leistung, mögliche Moderatoren dieser Effekte, die
32 verwendeten methodischen Ansätze und die Eignung der verfügbaren Evidenz zur Beurteilung
33 der Wirksamkeit von Wenn-Dann-Plänen im Sport aufzuzeigen. Basierend auf einer Suche in
34 vier Online-Datenbanken identifizierten wir elf Studien, die Wenn-Dann-Pläne in
35 experimenteller Forschung mit sportbezogener Leistung als Ergebnismaß untersuchten. Sechs
36 dieser Studien konzentrierten sich auf Wenn-Dann-Pläne bei Ausdaueraufgaben, die restlichen
37 Studien untersuchten sportliche Leistungen jenseits der Ausdauer. Die Stichproben waren oft
38 klein und bestanden aus Universitätsstudierenden, und die Schlussfolgerungen bezüglich der
39 Effektivität der Wenn-Dann-Planung zur Verbesserung der sportbezogenen Leistung waren eher
40 heterogen. Die Mehrzahl der Studien gibt jedoch Aufschluss über mögliche Mechanismen (z.B.
41 Wahrnehmung von Anstrengung und Schmerz, Erregung) und Moderatoren (z.B.
42 Überzeugungen der Athlet_innen über ihre Leistungsgrenzen, Durchführbarkeit des Verhaltens)
43 von Wenn-Dann-Plänen im Sport. Das kann die zukünftige Forschung dahingehend informieren,
44 wann und für wen die Wenn-Dann-Planung eine vorteilhafte Strategie sein könnte. Basierend
45 auf diesen Erkenntnissen identifizieren wir Potenziale und Fallstricke beim Einsatz von Wenn-

46 Dann-Plänen zur sportlichen Leistungssteigerung, diskutieren vielversprechende Wege für
47 zukünftige Forschung und leiten praktische Implikationen für Sportler_innen und Trainer_innen
48 ab.

49 *Schlüsselworte:* Wenn-Dann Pläne, Implementierungsintentionen, Implementation

50 Intentions, Selbstkontrolle, sportliche Leistung, Scoping Review, psychologische Interventionen

51 If-then Planning in Sports: A Scoping Review

52 Volitionally controlling dominant impulses or automatic behavioral tendencies in sports-
53 related settings does not always work effectively (for an overview, see Englert, 2019). For
54 instance, picture the increasing muscle fatigue during a marathon: In order to keep going,
55 runners have to volitionally override the impulse to interrupt this rather straining act. So how
56 can athletes be supported to effectively follow through with their sports-related goals? One
57 promising strategy is if-then planning (often referred to as implementation intentions,
58 Gollwitzer, 1999).

59 If-then planning is a self-regulatory strategy that helps people to attain their goals
60 across a variety of domains (Gollwitzer, 2014; Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). For instance, about
61 half of the people who have the intention to exercise on a regular basis fail to act upon this
62 intention (Rhodes & Bruijn, 2013)—which is but one example of the notorious “intention-
63 behavior gap” that pervades many areas of life in the health, professional, and interpersonal
64 domain (Sheeran & Webb, 2016). Making if-then plans like “If I come home from the office,
65 then I will go for a run in the park” has been repeatedly shown to narrow this gap with respect
66 to physical activity (PA; Bélanger-Gravel et al., 2013; da Silva et al., 2018). Thus, if-then planning
67 qualifies as a viable self-regulatory strategy for increasing regular PA.

68 However, people who are already physically active and regularly engage in sports often
69 adjust their goals and raise their personal bar, often goals that pertain to the level of
70 performance: beating their personal best, achieving a certain performance in a competition, or
71 improving their technical skills (e.g., Franck et al., 2018). Such goals are likely to be relevant at
72 various levels of ability and aspiration and across different sports. Like the goal to engage in

73 physical activity in the first place (Englert & Rummel, 2016), attaining these goals requires
74 effective self-regulation (Englert, 2016; Wolff, Hirsch, et al., 2021): In order to improve one's
75 finishing time in a race, for instance, one must resist the urge to slow down and stick to one's
76 pacing strategy even when it gets effortful and aversive towards the end of the race. This
77 suggests that athletes might benefit from if-then plans to effectively strive for their
78 performance-related goals. The effects of implementation intentions on the PA intention-
79 behavior gap have been systematically investigated in several studies and are meanwhile well
80 established (reviews by Bélanger-Gravel et al., 2013; Rhodes & Bruijn, 2013). However, it is
81 currently unclear to what extent such evidence exists for if-then planning effects on improving
82 performance in sports-related domains other than PA. Accordingly, we conducted a scoping
83 review of the available empirical evidence, which allows us to systematically map research on
84 this topic, collect tentative findings about if-then planning effects and their moderators, discuss
85 potentials and pitfalls when using if-then plans to enhance sports performance, and to derive
86 practical implications as well as promising routes for future research.

87 **If-Then Planning: What is It and Why Does It Work?**

88 When making if-then plans, people think about a goal-relevant situation and mentally
89 link it to a goal-directed behavior in an if-then format (i.e., "If Situation S occurs, then I will
90 perform Behavior B"). As such, if-then planning complements goals that merely specify a
91 desired outcome or behavior (i.e., "I want to perform Behavior B / attain Outcome O") by
92 conditioning a behavioral response on the occurrence of a critical situation. This critical
93 situation might be a good opportunity to act towards a goal or an obstacle that hinders goal
94 pursuit.

95 Making if-then plans facilitates the attainment of goals by virtue of two cognitive
96 processes. First, thinking about the critical situation enhances its cognitive accessibility (Aarts et
97 al., 1999), directing attention to the situation and making it easier to detect (Achtziger et al.,
98 2012; Janczyk et al., 2015). Second, linking the situation to the intended behavior creates a
99 strong associative link, which is thought to automate the initiation of the respective goal-
100 directed behavior (e.g., Bayer et al., 2009; Brandstätter et al., 2001; Gollwitzer & Brandstätter,
101 1997). Both processes have been shown to jointly mediate the beneficial effects of if-then
102 planning on goal attainment by automating the detection of the situation and the initiation of
103 the behavior (e.g., Webb & Sheeran, 2007).

104 **The Potential Relevance of If-then Planning in the Domain of Sports**

105 It is commonly assumed that if-then planning is a beneficial strategy in sports (e.g., Brick
106 et al., 2016; McCormick et al., 2018). This assumption seems plausible, given that attaining
107 goals in sports is likely subject to many of those challenges for which if-then planning is known
108 to be effective (for a general overview see Gollwitzer & Oettingen, 2011; for an overview
109 specific to endurance sports see Wolff, Bieleke, & Schüler, 2019). First, if-then planning helps to
110 get started even when performing the goal-directed behavior is rather aversive (e.g., Milne et
111 al., 2002) or the critical situation is easy to miss (e.g., Webb & Sheeran, 2004). Such situations
112 arise frequently in sports, for instance, when athletes have to increase their speed despite
113 feeling exhausted or need to recognize opportunities to exploit their opponents' mistakes.
114 Second, if-then planning helps to stay on track when the going gets tough (e.g., Legrand et al.,
115 2017). For instance, making if-then plans helps to deal with negative emotions (Schweiger Gallo
116 et al., 2009), which is of crucial importance for sports-related performance (Jones, 2003). Third,

117 if-then planning allows people to instigate deliberative processes (Martiny-Huenger et al., 2016)
118 and to acquire information systematically (Bieleke et al., 2020). This can be crucial for flexibly
119 responding to changing circumstances during a competition, such as the need to change one's
120 strategy. Finally, making if-then plans automates the initiation of intended behaviors, which
121 makes their execution less dependent on information processing capabilities in the planned
122 situation (e.g., Webb & Sheeran, 2003) and it helps to volitionally control more impulsive
123 processes (e.g., Thürmer et al., 2020). This is especially beneficial in sports when behaviors
124 must be initiated under considerable stress (e.g., distractions or time restrictions) or when
125 automatic responses must be regulated (e.g., the urge to slow down; c.f. Wolff, Bieleke, &
126 Schüler, 2019).

127 Thus, from a theoretical point of view, if-then plans are a very promising self-regulatory
128 strategy to help deal with the action-control demands of sports. Consequently, sporting
129 federations (e.g., Calder, 2009), applied sport psychologists (e.g., Brick et al., 2016; McCormick
130 et al., 2018), and the media (e.g., Gregoire, 2016) endorse the application of if-then plans to
131 deal with these multiple demands. These endorsements are typically substantiated with
132 reference to if-then planning research outside of the sports domain. However, it is not a priori
133 evident that findings from basic psychological research or from other fields of applied
134 psychology directly translate to the context of sports and exercise, where people oftentimes
135 have to regulate strong aversive sensations (e.g., pain, effort, and fatigue; Bali, 2015). We
136 hypothesized that the available literature would be scarce and provide rather heterogeneous
137 results. This provides the main rationale for conducting this scoping review, in which we
138 address the following questions: What is the available empirical evidence for the assumption

139 that if-then planning improves sports-related performance? What is known about the
140 conditions (moderators) and processes (mediators) of such effects? What are the potentials
141 and pitfalls of using if-then plans in applied sport settings that can be derived from these
142 findings? What are the current gaps in knowledge and methodology that should be addressed
143 in future research? By addressing these questions, this scoping review of if-then planning
144 effects on sport-related performance will be highly important for theorists and practitioners
145 alike.

146 **Methods**

147 Our review was based on the PRISMA guidelines for scoping reviews (PRISMA-ScR;
148 Tricco et al., 2018), which is freely accessible online ([http://www.prisma-
149 statement.org/Extensions/ScopingReviews](http://www.prisma-statement.org/Extensions/ScopingReviews)). In September 2020, we developed a protocol and
150 conducted a search for peer-reviewed, empirical studies that experimentally investigated
151 whether asking participants to make if-then plans improves a measure of sport-related
152 performance. To be eligible, a study had to compare performance in the if-then planning
153 condition to performance in a condition with either another intervention control condition
154 (e.g., setting a performance goal) and/or to a no-treatment control condition. Studies were
155 excluded if they comprised no such control condition (e.g., comparing two different if-then
156 planning conditions). We included quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method approaches to
157 cover multiple ways in which sport-related performance could be assessed. No further
158 restrictions were made, for instance, regarding the year of publication or participant
159 characteristics.

160 We relied on four different databases (Web of Science, SportDISCUSS, PsycInfo, and

161 PubMed) and used the following search string: (“implementation intention*” OR “if-then
162 plan*”) AND sport*. The first two authors developed the search string and the first author
163 conducted the search, the results of which were then exported to the reference management
164 software Citavi. Duplicates were removed with the Levenshtein algorithm implemented in
165 Citavi. The resulting list of publications was screened for papers that the authors were aware of
166 but that were missing from the list. The identified records were then reviewed by the first two
167 authors. They selected relevant publications based on the information contained in titles and
168 abstracts. Full texts were then retrieved for the relevant publications and their eligibility for the
169 scoping review was determined by all authors. There were no disagreements among the
170 authors regarding study selection.

171 We used a data-charting form that comprised the following pieces of information (see
172 Table 1): author(s), year of publication, type of sport, sample size (overall and per condition),
173 sample characteristics (athlete vs. student sample, age, gender), content of the if-then planning
174 intervention, type of task, performance and other measure(s), and effects of the intervention.
175 The form was developed by the first author and jointly refined by all authors. The first author
176 charted the data and the results were verified by all authors.

177 **Results**

178 The flow of the literature search is depicted in Figure 1. Our search initially identified a
179 total of 106 publications, to which we manually added three publications (109). We then
180 removed 26 duplicates and screened the remaining 83 publications for their content. Several of
181 these publications focused on physical activity rather than a sport-related performance (38) or
182 were in other ways irrelevant for the present review (35; e.g., if-then planning only mentioned,

183 theoretical contributions). We arrived at a final sample of 10 publications covering $k = 11$
184 studies that met our selection criteria and were included in the present review. A complete
185 overview of all identified studies is provided in Table 1, while Table 2 shows the content and
186 structure of the if-then plans. As about half of the studies focus on endurance performance and
187 the other half on a sport-related performance beyond endurance (i.e., tennis, golf, darts,
188 basketball, and volleyball), we structured the results accordingly.

189 **Endurance Performance**

190 One focus of research on if-then planning in sports has been on endurance performance
191 (Wolff, Bieleke, & Schöler, 2019), which has so far resulted in six published studies (see upper
192 part of Table 1). The majority of these studies focused on static muscular endurance
193 performance, predominantly via weight-holding tasks (Bieleke & Wolff, 2017; Hirsch et al.,
194 2020; Thürmer et al., 2017; Wolff et al., 2018) and once in a posture-holding yoga task (Wang et
195 al., 2019). Only one study used a cycling task to examine whole-body endurance performance
196 (Latinjak et al., 2018). Common to all studies is their reliance on university student samples
197 from diverse subject domains as well as on laboratory experiments with highly standardized
198 tasks that maximize the internal validity at the expense of the external validity. As perceptions
199 of effort and pain are key challenges to successful endurance performance (e.g., Pageaux,
200 2016), participants were assigned pre-formulated plans that focused on ignoring or managing
201 effort and pain. The main dependent variable in all studies was time-to-failure, in some studies
202 accompanied by ratings of perceived exertion (RPE) and in one study by a measure of activity in
203 the dorsolateral Prefrontal Cortex (dlPFC) as a marker of effortful self-regulation. The central
204 hypothesis was that if-then planning helps participants to deal with negative sensations that

205 emerge during the endurance task more effectively, thereby persisting longer than participants
206 in the control conditions.

207 ***Main Effects***

208 Increased time-to-failure in if-then planning versus control conditions has been
209 observed in two studies (Thürmer et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019). These studies utilized
210 different static muscular endurance tasks (i.e., holding up a heavy ball in a group of three
211 people, holding a difficult yoga posture for as long as possible). The remaining four studies
212 (Bieleke & Wolff, 2017; Hirsch et al., 2020; Latinjak et al., 2018; Wolff et al., 2018) observed no
213 differences between conditions in a static muscular task (i.e., task, where participants are asked
214 to hold two metal bars that are connected by two intertwined rings for as long as possible,
215 while avoiding contacts between the rings), as well as in a whole-body endurance task (i.e., a
216 time-to-exhaustion cycle ergometer task). Thus, the majority of studies conducted so far
217 indicates that if-then planning does not significantly improve endurance performance.

218 However, this conclusion must be qualified in at least two ways. First, most of the null-
219 findings were obtained with the same muscular endurance task (Bieleke & Wolff, 2017; Hirsch
220 et al., 2020; Wolff et al., 2018), which has so far solely been used to study if-then planning
221 effects on endurance. Accordingly, it is unclear whether the failure to observe if-then planning
222 effects might at least partially be attributable to the specific demands of this task. On the other
223 hand, this task constitutes a highly controlled setup, which allows to measure performance with
224 more precision (e.g., errors in task execution) and more rigorously (e.g., preventing
225 compensation movements) than in the studies that yielded significant effects. Second, the
226 studies relied on rather small sample sizes for reliably detecting main effects of if-then

227 planning. As illustrated in Figure 2, the sample size required to detect common if-then planning
228 effect sizes ranges between 80 and 700 participants in the two-group design most studies relied
229 on (i.e., planning vs. control condition), sample sizes that have not been realized so far in any of
230 the studies included in the current review.

231 ***Mechanisms and Moderators***

232 A major strength of the studies on if-then planning effects on endurance performance is
233 their focus on mechanisms and moderators, which sheds light on the specific conditions under
234 which if-then planning does or does not facilitate sports-related performance. For instance, in
235 the study by Thürmer et al. (2017), both correlational and causal evidence showed that
236 planning to motivate each other by heightening efficacy feelings (i.e., ... then we tell ourselves
237 that we can do it) required that the team members could subsequently interact with each other
238 during the task and cheer each other up. If, however, participants had no adequate means to
239 translate their planned behaviors into action (i.e., they were not allowed to talk to each other),
240 planning did not affect performance in this study.

241 Hirsch et al. (2020) identified people's beliefs about their own performance limits as
242 another moderator of the effect of if-then planning on sports-related performance. Specifically,
243 the authors found that planning to deal with effort versus pain improved endurance
244 performance among participants who believed that they had not yet fully reached an assumed
245 physical or mental limit of their performance, respectively. Plans that did not fit participants'
246 beliefs in such a manner turned out to be ineffective. Moreover, plans were also found to
247 induce higher levels of perceived exertion under some conditions although they had been
248 designed to optimize dealing with this very sensation (Bieleke & Wolff, 2017; Latinjak et al.,

249 2018). Finally, on the neuronal level, if-then planning was found to reduce activity in brain
250 regions associated with effortful control (Wolff et al., 2018). More specifically, participants who
251 had formed an if-then plan completed the task with less activity of the lateral Prefrontal Cortex
252 (dlPFC).

253 **Beyond Endurance Performance**

254 The second focus of research on if-then planning in sports is on sports behavior that
255 does not (primarily) focus on endurance, accumulating to five studies in total (see lower part of
256 Table 1). In contrast to research on endurance performance, these studies have primarily
257 focused on isolated sports-specific performance outcomes within a particular type of sport
258 (e.g., volleyball serves), with the exception of one study that employed a broader focus (i.e.,
259 tennis competitions).

260 Two studies relied on university student samples (Stern et al., 2013), whereas three
261 studies focused on athletes in their respective sports: tennis players who participated regularly
262 in competitions across various German tennis leagues (Achtziger et al., 2008), high school
263 students of Swiss volleyball schools with an average training load of about 12 hours/week
264 (Bieleke et al., 2019), and U17 basketball players from several Polish basketball clubs
265 (Wilczynska et al., 2014). In all of these studies, participants generated their plans with the help
266 of the experimenter. In some studies, these self-generated plans focused on how to deal with
267 anticipated negative internal states (e.g., stress, anxiety). Most studies used an objective
268 indicator for successful performance (e.g., successfully serving into the opponent's field) as
269 their main dependent variable, with the exception of one study that measured performance in
270 terms of self- and other reports (Achtziger et al., 2008).

271 Main Effects

272 Better performance in if-then planning versus control conditions has been reported in
273 three studies (Achtziger et al., 2008; Stern et al., 2013, Studies 1 and 2), while in two studies no
274 such effect was observed (Bieleke et al., 2019; Wilczynska et al., 2014). The studies that
275 reported improved performance adopted plans that focused on regulating negative internal
276 states (e.g., stress, anxiety), whereas participants in the other studies were not using plans with
277 such a focus. In sum, the available evidence tends to favor beneficial effects of if-then planning
278 in non-endurance performance.

279 A striking difference to the endurance domain is the wide variety of tasks that has been
280 used, all of them based on or representing a behavior that reflects a valid sporting situation
281 (e.g., volleyball serves). Also, most studies focused on athletes in their respective sports (e.g.,
282 tennis players in a tennis match). As such, the results have high external validity while still using
283 well-controlled experimental settings. On the downside, the sample sizes were again rather
284 small, which might have made it difficult to reliably establish main effects of if-then planning on
285 performance.

286 Mechanisms and Moderators

287 The studies provide several tentative insights into the mechanisms and moderators of if-
288 then planning with regard to sports performance in non-endurance performance domains. For
289 instance, Wilczynska et al. (2014) found no effect of if-then planning on performance in a
290 basketball free-throw test; yet, the authors did observe a lower heart rate among if-then
291 planning participants as compared to control participants. The authors interpreted this finding
292 in terms of a reduced physiological arousal in a potentially stressful situation. While such a

293 response is not necessarily adaptive, it might improve performance in tasks where high arousal
294 is detrimental. Corroborating this interpretation, Stern et al. (2013) found that planning how to
295 regulate arousing internal states (stress, anxiety) reduced perceptual distortions that often
296 accompany such states of arousal. Specifically, participants in if-then planning conditions
297 perceived the target (Study 1: golf hole, Study 2: dartboard) as being closer than participants in
298 the control conditions; and accordingly they rated the task as easier, which mediated the
299 observed beneficial effects of planning on their performance.

300 Bieleke et al. (2019) demonstrated that if-then plans that targeted the execution of well-
301 learned motor sequences (i.e., volleyball serves) initially interfered with performance. In their
302 study, youth volleyball players who planned how to improve their service performed worse at
303 the beginning of a subsequent series of serves compared to a baseline series; but their
304 performance gradually improved again. Accordingly, potential effects of if-then planning might
305 unfold over time. Alternatively, it is also conceivable that athletes benefit more from planning
306 how to shield the performance of relevant motor sequences from potentially interfering
307 sensations (e.g., Achtziger et al., 2008) than from planning how to execute these sequences in
308 the first place. In addition, objective performance measures and subjective performance ratings
309 by experts might not map on the same thing when it comes to complex motor sequences. In
310 the study by Bieleke et al. (2019) experienced coaches (who were blind to the condition
311 assignment) rated the volleyball serve performance as being better after players had received a
312 self-regulatory intervention (either a goal or an if-then plan), while no such improvement could
313 be observed in the objective performance measures. Even more interestingly, as performance
314 started to improve gradually after the intervention, it is conceivable that the expert coaches

315 already saw improved performance before it translated into measurable improvements.

316 **Discussion**

317 If-then planning is a self-regulatory strategy with beneficial effects in many domains of
318 life (Gollwitzer, 2014). While the effectiveness of implementation intentions on PA behavior has
319 been rigorously investigated over the years, recent general reviews of if-then planning research
320 suggest a lack of such evidence in the domain of sports (Bieleke, Keller, & Gollwitzer, 2021). To
321 address this supposition, we conducted a scoping review of the studies that are available to
322 date in order to stimulate and encourage future research. In a nutshell, we found only very few
323 studies that tested the effects of if-then planning on sport-related performance. Moreover,
324 evidence for the hypothesis that if-then planning improves sports-related performance is rather
325 mixed, with currently more supportive findings emerging in domains that revolve not primarily
326 around endurance (e.g., tennis, golf, darts) than in the domain of endurance performance.
327 These results must be considered as preliminary, however, as they are based on few studies
328 that used rather small and predominantly student samples.

329 Nevertheless, the available studies already shed a nuanced light on potential
330 mechanisms and moderators of if-then planning in sports that might help understand why
331 planning effects were sometimes observed and sometimes not. If-then planning modulated
332 perceptions of exertion and experienced pain in endurance tasks (Bieleke & Wolff, 2017;
333 Latinjak et al., 2018; Wolff et al., 2018) and attenuated the arousal that accompanied
334 performance in challenging situations (Stern et al., 2013; Wilczynska et al., 2014). This points to
335 various sensations (i.e., effort, pain, arousal) as potential mechanisms of if-then planning
336 effects, and future research might focus on them when investigating how if-then planning

337 might leverage sports performance. At the same time, the research conducted so far cautions
338 against reliance on if-then plans without considering the specific circumstances that athletes
339 face in sports (i.e., personal and situational factors). For instance, it seems necessary for
340 effective plans to be compatible with exercise-related beliefs about the determinants and limits
341 of performance (Hirsch et al., 2020). Also, care should be taken that exercisers are in a position
342 to translate their planned behaviors into action (Thürmer et al., 2017) and that acting upon
343 them does not interfere with well-elaborated behaviors (Bieleke et al., 2019). Failing to
344 incorporate such insights into the if-then plans might yield unexpected and undesired (i.e.,
345 ironic) effects (Bieleke & Wolff, 2017), like amplifying attention to a thought that an individual
346 plans to suppress or ignore (akin to the “white bear” effect; e.g., Binsch et al., 2010). Other
347 studies were compatible with the idea that if-then planning automates behavior and reduces
348 effortful control in challenging situations (Stern et al., 2013; Wolff et al., 2018), which should be
349 helpful when these situations are conducive to automaticity but might be disadvantageous
350 when dealing with sensations that must be overridden with effortful force. Specifically, it has
351 been suggested that planning to ignore aversive sensations during an endurance task (i.e.,
352 effort, pain) might backfire by making these sensations more salient while simultaneously
353 throttling the control mechanisms required to deal with them (Wolff et al., 2018). Taken
354 together, even the limited set of studies that has so far investigated if-then planning effects on
355 sport-related performance presents several promising candidates for the moderators and
356 mechanisms that future research might want to focus on. This research might also investigate
357 the mechanisms that are most important for conveying if-then planning effects.

358 The need to investigate the characteristics of situations and individuals that modulate

359 the effectiveness of if-then planning is not specific to the sports context (Prestwich & Kellar,
360 2014). For instance, the effects of if-then planning are generally known to depend on the
361 presence of a superordinate goal that is active and valued (Sheeran et al., 2005), which likely
362 applies to sports as well. This could be taken to suggest that future studies should focus more
363 strongly on improving performance among experienced and motivated athletes in their
364 respective sports. On the other hand, research in domains like physical activity and health (e.g.,
365 Hagger et al., 2016; Hagger & Luszczynska, 2014) also highlight the importance of accounting
366 for moderators that are specific for a certain domain. As such, the initial inconsistencies
367 observed in the present review are part of scientific progress and unavoidable; they constitute
368 an important step to develop tailored and effective if-then planning interventions in sports.

369 **Determining the Contents of If-Then Plans**

370 It is striking that studies focusing on endurance performance relied primarily on generic
371 plans prescribed by the experimenter, whereas studies focusing on performance in other
372 sports-related domains relied predominantly on individual plans generated by the participants
373 themselves (see Table 1 and 2). This reflects two common approaches in research on if-then
374 planning (Keller et al., 2019). In the domain of sports and in particular when working with
375 experienced athletes, self-generated plans might be better suited as they can take individual
376 differences in relevant personal strengths and weaknesses into account. This might also be a
377 fruitful avenue for research on endurance performance, especially when considering the role of
378 individual beliefs for the effectiveness of if-then plans. For self-generated plans it might
379 additionally be useful to resort to established procedures for eliciting personally relevant
380 contents specified in the if- and then-parts of the plans, thereby maximizing their effects in

381 future studies. One such procedure is the combination of “mental contrasting and
382 implementation intentions” (MCII; Oettingen, 2014; Oettingen & Gollwitzer, 2010). With MCII,
383 people first think about their wishes and goals (e.g., improving their performance) and about
384 their obstacles for attaining these goals (e.g., fear of failure). This valuable information about
385 individual obstacles can then be used in the if-then plan, which might specify how to deal
386 effectively with them.

387 Another remarkable feature of the studies reviewed here is that they predominantly
388 revolved around dealing with few negative internal states (e.g., exertion, anxiety). However, it
389 is not clear whether these states are the performance-limiting factors, especially among
390 amateur athletes and exercises. For instance, it has recently been suggested that boredom is a
391 highly relevant internal state that can affect sports performance (Wolff, Bieleke, Martarelli, &
392 Danckert, 2021). As boredom is closely linked to self-control (Bieleke, Barton, & Wolff, 2021), it
393 might be promising to investigate whether if-then plans targeting boredom could be more
394 effective than those targeting exertion or anxiety. Moreover, research on if-then planning in
395 sports has so far focused on how to overcome obstacles to good performance. However, if-then
396 plans can also be used to seize good opportunities to attain a goal (Bieleke & Keller, 2021). A
397 sports-related example is a study showing that planning when and where to drink
398 carbohydrate-electrolyte drinks during stationary cycle ergometer exercise improved
399 physiological markers of hydration (Hagger & Montasem, 2009). While not directly targeting
400 performance, this study exemplifies the potential benefits that could be reaped by gearing if-
401 then plans in sports to seizing good opportunities for attaining a performance goal.

402 Methodological Advances in Future Research

403 We have argued that the sample sizes of the reviewed studies were rather small
404 throughout, which might have rendered a reliable detection of effects of the size commonly
405 observed in research on if-then planning difficult (see the meta-analysis of existing meta-
406 analyses of if-then planning effects conducted by Keller et al., 2020). In research that focusses
407 on recreational athletes, this shortcoming can be rather easily overcome by increasing sample
408 sizes. This is not the case for research that focuses on elite-level athletes, as this population is
409 notoriously small and difficult to access, making the issue of small sample sizes a rather general
410 one in sport psychology research (Schweizer & Furley, 2016). Accordingly, future research on if-
411 then planning effects on sport-related performance should also utilize other means to increase
412 statistical power (e.g., Batterham & Atkinson, 2005): leveraging knowledge about the processes
413 and moderators of if-then planning to maximize its effect, relying on experimental designs with
414 repeated measures to attenuate measurement error, and combining different ways of assessing
415 performance.

416 Another relevant consideration pertains to the observation that people differ in their
417 inclination to engage in if-then planning (Bieleke & Keller, 2021). These individual differences
418 suggest that some people use if-then plans to enhance their performance (Bieleke & Keller,
419 2021) and to deal with difficulties of goal attainment (Bieleke, Martarelli, & Wolff, 2021) even
420 without being prompted to do so. In sports, this could apply in particular to more accomplished
421 athletes who generally tend to score higher on self-control (Englert, 2017; Wolff, Bertrams, &
422 Schüler, 2019). Accordingly, it seems advisable to take such differences into account when
423 conducting experiments on if-then planning interventions; it can boost statistical power and

424 allows researchers to gauge the genuine effects of if-then planning interventions. Tentative
425 support for the importance of individual differences in if-then planning in sports is already
426 available: Individuals with a higher propensity to make if-then plans have been shown to be
427 more exercise more (Wolff, Bieleke, Stähler, & Schüler, 2021).

428 **Practical Implications**

429 We want to address the practical implications of our review for athletes and their
430 coaches. At the bottom line, if-then planning is a simple self-regulatory strategy that can be
431 used to target sports-related performance at virtually no costs. If-then plans are also likely to be
432 in frequent use already, judged by their recommendation in scientific and lay outlets as well as
433 by the evidence for a general inclination to attain goals by making plans. Actually, practitioners
434 have been using if-then plans in their work with athletes for numerous years (Birrer & Morgan,
435 2010; Samuel et al., 2020). The question of whether if-then plans can reliably improve sports
436 performance cannot be adequately answered yet, as this would require more data gathered
437 systematically from active athletes and in authentic sport environments. However, about half of
438 the studies we have reviewed observed performance improvements, especially when the
439 sporting tasks did not call for the regulation of pain or effort. And importantly, the remaining
440 studies only found no effects of if-then planning rather than detrimental ones, suggesting that
441 unintended effects are unlikely to adversely affect performance. Athletes and coaches might
442 thus experiment with if-then plans to enhance sports performance, while researchers continue
443 to work on advancing our understanding of how if-then plans should be optimally devised for
444 this purpose.

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663 **Table 1**664 *Overview of Studies on If-Then Planning Effects in Sports*

Study	Topic	Sample Size (Condition)	Sample Characteristics	Intervention	Task (Measures)	If-then Planning Main Effects
Endurance Performance						
Bieleke and Wolff (2017)	Weight-holding	62 (plan: 29, goal: 33)	university students, $M = 24$ years, all female	plan to continue despite exertion	hold rings while avoiding contacts between them (time-to-failure, errors, RPE)	no effect on performance, faster increase of RPE
Thürmer et al. (2017, Study 1)	Weight-holding	47 triads (plan: 21, goal: 26)	university students, $M = 23$ years, 75% female	plan to deal with pain by self-affirmation	hold ball simultaneously as a triad (time-to-failure)	increased time-to-failure
Latinjak et al. (2018)	Cycling	27 (plan: 15, control: 12)	sport students, $M = 22$ years, 41% female	Self-generated plans	Cycle endurance test (time-to-failure, RPE)	no effect on performance, increased RPE
Wolff et al. (2018)	Weight-holding	60 (plan: 30, control: 30)	university students, $M = 22$ years, all female	plan to continue despite exertion	hold rings avoiding contacts (time-to-failure, errors, DLPFC activity)	no effect on performance and RPE, reduced DLPFC activity
Wang et al. (2019)	Yoga	90 (plan: 30, goal: 30, control: 30)	high school students, $M = 16$ years, 53% female	plan to continue despite pain	holding a yoga posture (time-to-failure)	increased time-to-failure
Hirsch et al. (2020)	Weight-holding	66 (plan: 33, goal: 33)	university students, $M = 26$ years, all male	plan to continue despite either exertion or pain	hold rings avoiding contacts (time-to-failure, errors, RPE)	no effects on performance and RPE
Beyond Endurance Performance						
Achtziger et al. (2008, Study 2)	Tennis	107 (plan: 37, goal: 38, control: 32)	tennis players, $M = 34$ years, 29% female	self-generated plans focusing on negative inner states	tennis match (rating of performance and fitness)	higher fitness and performance ratings
Stern et al. (2013, Study 1)	Golf	48 (plan: 24, control: 24)	university students and community members, $M = 23$ years, 77% female	self-generated plans focusing on anxiety-related states	putting shots into golf hole (success)	higher success rate
Stern et al. (2013, Study 2)	Darts	93 (plan: 31, goal: 30, control: 32)	university students, $M = 20$ years, 66% female	self-generated plans focusing on anxiety-related states	throwing darts on center circle (success)	higher success rate
Wilczynska et al. (2014)	Basketball	76 (plan: 38, control: 38)	basketball players, $M = 15$ years, 42% female	self-generated plans	throw effectiveness test (throwing success, heart rate)	no effect on success, reduced heart rate
Bieleke et al. (2019)	Volleyball	62 (plan: 33, goal: 29)	volleyball players, $M = 14$ years, 44% female	self-generated plans based on coach feedback	Serve ball to target position (error, velocity, precision)	no effects on performance indicators

665 *Note.* RPE = rating of perceived exertion, DLPFC = dorsolateral prefrontal cortex.

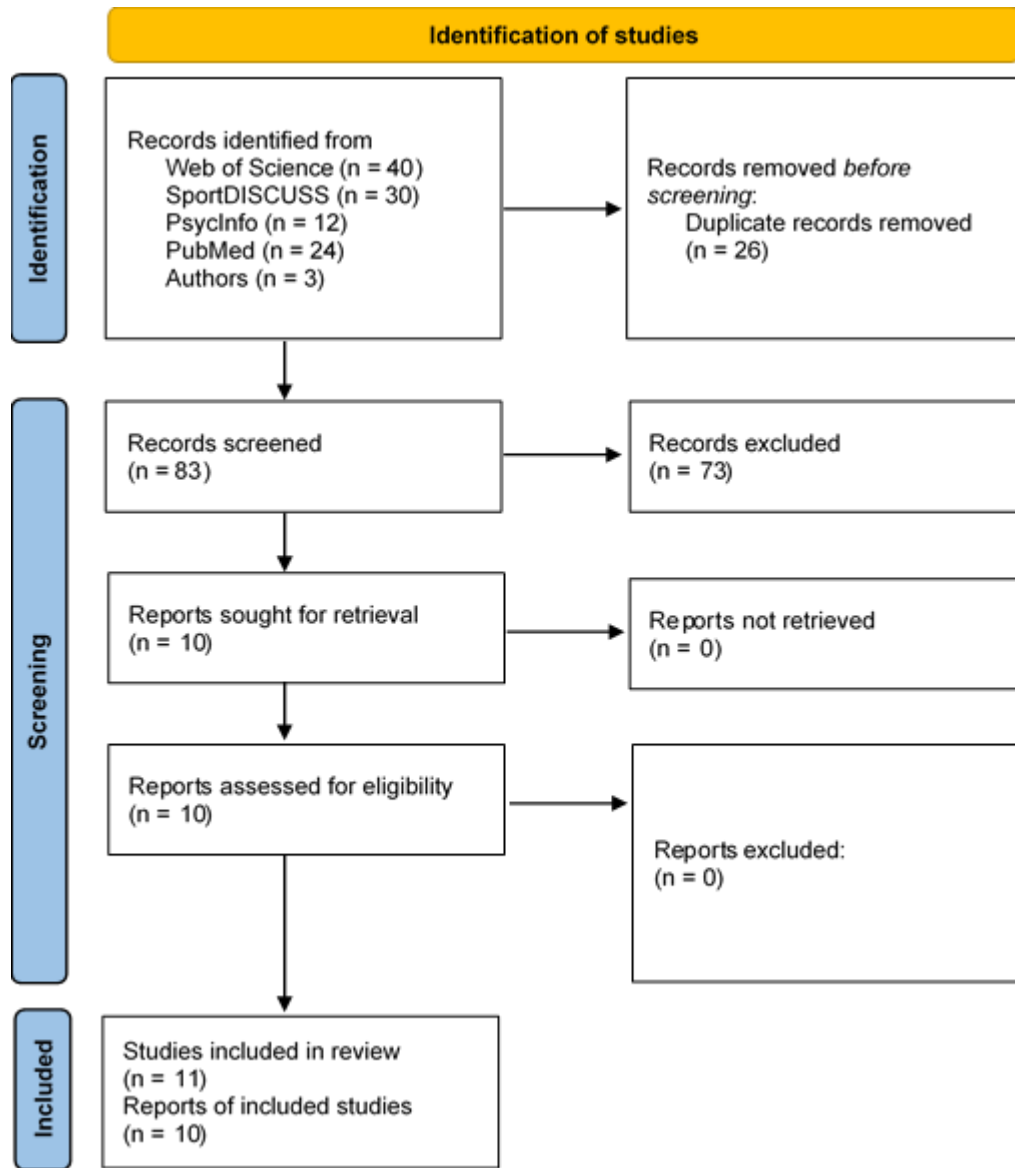
666 **Table 2**667 *Overview of the Content and Structure of If-Then Plans Regarding Sports-Related Performance*

Study	If-then Planning Intervention
Endurance Performance	
Bieleke and Wolff (2017)	Participants received the following if-then plan from the experimenter: "If the task becomes too strenuous for me, then I ignore the strain and tell myself: Keep going"
Thürmer et al. (2017, Study 1)	Participants received the following plan either in an individual (I) or a collective (We) format: "And if my (our) muscles hurt, then I (we) will ignore the pain and tell myself (ourselves): I (We) can do it"
Latinjak et al. (2018)	Participants generated their own if-then plans by anticipating problematic situations (e.g., disengagement thoughts, dejection, fatigue) and specifying a goal-directed behaviors.
Wolff et al. (2018)	Participants received the following if-then plan from the experimenter: "If the task becomes too strenuous for me, then I will ignore the strain and tell myself: Keep going"
Wang et al. (2019)	Participants generated their own if-then plans. Example: "If I tremble and am in pain, I will encourage myself to persevere and keep counting up to 90"
Hirsch et al. (2020)	Participants received the following if-then plan from the experimenter: "And if my exertion (pain) becomes too high, then I tell myself: I can still keep going"
Beyond Endurance Performance	
Achtziger et al. (2008, Study 2)	Participants generated their own if-then plans by specifying inner states (e.g., "not concentrating enough", "feeling self-abandoned", "feeling exhausted", "feeling angry") and goal-directed behaviors (e.g., "then I will risk something and play courageously," "then I will calm myself and tell myself 'I will win!'") from prepared lists of inner states and behaviors.
Stern et al. (2013, Study 1 & 2)	Participants generated their own if-then plans by specifying four negative inner states that might be detrimental for the upcoming task and linking them to goal-directed behaviors. Example: "If I feel irritated, then I will tell myself to relax"
Wilczynska et al. (2014)	Participants generated their own if-then plans with the help of an experimenter. No examples are given.
Bieleke et al. (2019)	Participants received if-then plans that were developed by an experimenter based on individual feedback of their coaches, who had observed their previous service performance. Examples: "When I serve, then I tighten my hand and fingers", "When I approach the ball, then I take a small step first", and "When I make the service, then I throw the ball higher up"

668

669 **Figure 1**

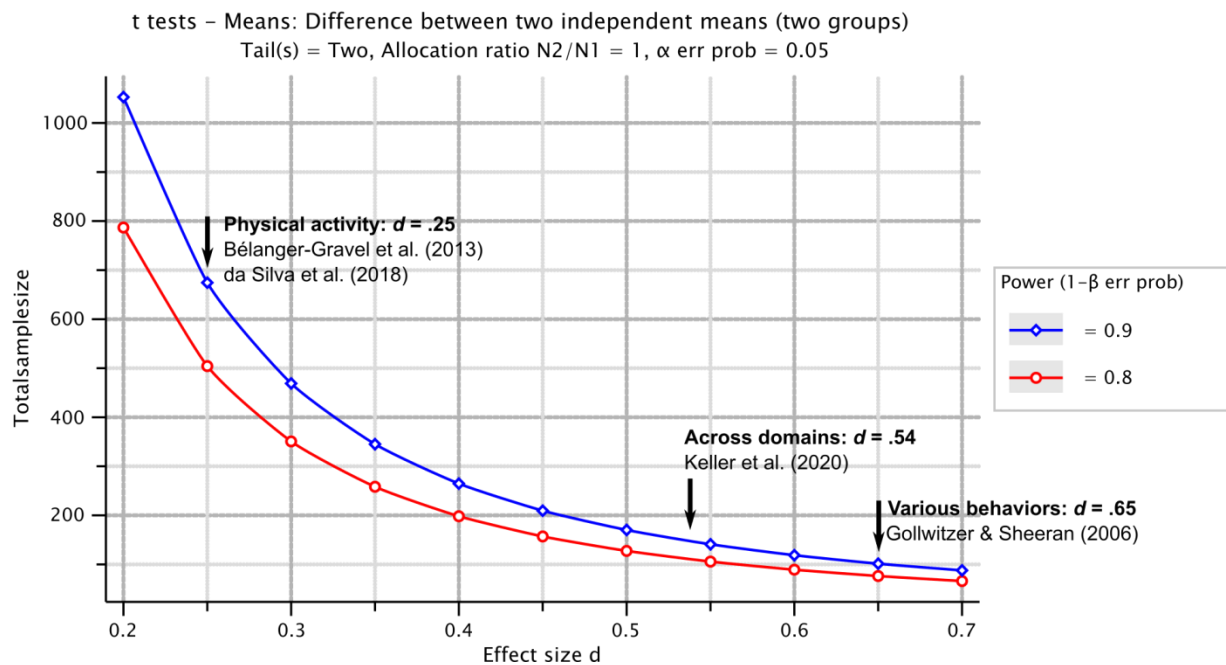
670 *PRISMA Flow Chart Illustrating the Literature Search for the Scoping Review*



671

672 **Figure 2**

673 *Required Sample Sizes to Detect Main If-Then Planning Effects in a Two-Group Design With 80%*
 674 *and 90% Power*



675

676 *Note.* This figure has been created with G*Power (version 2.1.9.2; Faul et al., 2007). It shows
 677 how the required total sample size (y-axis) changes as a function of the effect size (x-axis), once
 678 for a test power of 80% (red line, circles) and once for a power of 90% (blue line, diamonds). For
 679 instance, an experiment with two independent groups (control vs. implementation intention)
 680 would require a total sample size of about 500 participants to detect a small effect of $d = .25$
 681 with 80% power and about 675 participants to achieve 90% power. For detecting a medium-to-
 682 large effect of $d = .65$ it would be necessary to recruit about 80 participants to achieve 80%
 683 power and about 100 participants to achieve 90% power. The effect sizes found in three meta-
 684 analyses on implementation intentions effects are highlighted with arrows: an initial meta-
 685 analysis reported by Gollwitzer & Sheeran (2006) covering various domains, two meta-analyses
 686 on implementation intentions effects in the domain of physical activity (Bélanger-Gravel et al.,
 687 2013; da Silva et al., 2018), and a recent meta-analysis of meta-analyses (Keller et al., 2020).