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**Negative psychological experiences and saliva secretory immunoglobulin A in field
hockey players**

Running head: SIgA and negative psychological experiences

26 Abstract

27 Understanding psychological factors that affect immunity in sport might help to reduce
28 infection risk in athletes. The present study examined within-person changes and individual
29 differences in perceived coach control, intentions to drop-out, and saliva secretory
30 immunoglobulin A (SIgA). Thirty-two field hockey players completed questionnaires and
31 provided saliva samples over a two-month period. Within-person increases in individuals'
32 perceptions of psychological control and intentions to drop out were positively associated
33 with SIgA concentration. Individual differences in control or drop out intentions were not
34 associated with SIgA. Interventions in athletes to prevent immune disturbances and reduce
35 infection should consider these psychological factors.

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50 **Negative psychological experiences and saliva secretory immunoglobulin A in field**
51 **hockey players**

52 Some athletes report an increased incidence of upper respiratory tract infections
53 (URTI) during training regimens (Neville, Molloy, Brooks, Speedy, & Atkinson, 2006).
54 Indeed, URTI have been reported to be the most common health complaint among elite sports
55 men and women at a major sporting event (Robinson & Milne, 2002) and have been reported
56 to account for 61% of missed training days in elite yachtsmen over a two-year training period
57 (Neville et al., 2006). It is thought that individuals who appear more susceptible to infection
58 exhibit a range of physiological and psychological differences compared to those who remain
59 healthy (Gleeson & Bishop, 2013; Meeusen et al., 2013). Although the immunological
60 mechanisms underlying this increased incidence of infection are not fully understood, levels
61 of saliva secretory immunoglobulin A (SIgA), an antibody present in mucosal secretions,
62 have been shown to be decreased in some athletes during periods of intensive training who
63 report increased incidence of URTI (Fahlman & Engels, 2005; Strugnell & Wijburg, 2010;
64 Gleeson & Bishop, 2013). In order to provide efficacious and targeted health interventions to
65 counteract illness, it is important to understand why certain individuals are at particular risk
66 of infection within athletic settings. Considering the broad influence of psychosocial factors
67 on immune function (Valdimarsdottir & Stone, 1997), the present study examined whether
68 perceived interpersonal control and intentions to quit sport are associated with altered levels
69 of SIgA in saliva. The present results also add to the existing literature by disaggregating
70 within- and between-person relationships (Curran & Bauer, 2011) in a sample of sub-elite
71 field hockey players.

72 Antibodies, also referred to as immunoglobulins, are soluble proteins that either
73 directly neutralise bacteria and viruses, or initiate other immune processes to eliminate these
74 infections (Moser & Leo, 2010). Immunoglobulins are secreted by specialised immune cells

75 known as plasma cells, and in the case of salivary SIgA, the high levels of this protective
76 molecule are derived from plasma cells residing in mucosal tissues near to the saliva glands
77 (Marcotte & Lavoie, 1998). While some SIgA might be specific for certain bacteria (e.g., *E.*
78 *coli* – a common food contaminant) or viruses (e.g., influenza – the cause of flu), a significant
79 proportion of SIgA is poly-reactive and is referred to as ‘natural antibody’ (Strugnell &
80 Wijburg, 2010). Poly-reactive SIgA confers protection against a wide range of pathogens,
81 therefore measuring total SIgA in saliva is an indicator of both pathogen-specific and non-
82 specific secretory immunity (Brandtzaeg, 1998). The importance of SIgA is highlighted by
83 examining individuals with selective IgA deficiency, a genetic disease characterised by lack
84 of, or very low levels of IgA. These people exhibit a much higher incidence of infection than
85 those without this genetic condition (Janzi et al., 2009).

86 Despite the importance of reducing infection risk in athletes, the potential impact of
87 psychosocial factors on mucosal immunity remains unclear. Within immunological-based
88 studies, competitive environments are often conceptualized as generally stressful events,
89 without exploring which facets of competition are stressful (e.g., Mortatti et al., 2012). Hence,
90 the athletic environment represents a largely untapped opportunity to study the impact of
91 specific contextual elements and negative attitudes on individuals’ well-being. For instance,
92 the degree to which sports coaches employ maladaptive coaching practices plays a significant
93 part in shaping athletes’ experiences (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani,
94 2009). A similar picture can be observed in non-sports settings where the major focus has
95 been on the influence of stressful life events on immune function, such as family
96 bereavements (Goodkin et al., 1996) or stressful life roles (i.e., caring for a spouse or relative;
97 Gallagher, Phillips, Drayson, & Carroll, 2009), rather than specific interpersonal features of
98 the social context.

99 Some exceptions exist however, including evidence showing that social support is
100 associated with higher levels of SIgA, irrespective of exposure to stressful academic exam
101 experiences (Jemmott & Magloire, 1988). However, alternative social factors, such as
102 loneliness and the degree of peer interaction, have shown no relationships with SIgA
103 (Kiecolt-Glaser et al., 1984; Wawrzyniak & Pollard-Whiteman, 2011). We attempted to
104 extend this limited knowledge base by focusing on an interpersonal factor (i.e., perceived
105 psychological control) that has not been explored in relation to an athlete's immune function
106 previously, despite this link holding intuitive appeal.

107 *Psychological control* refers to employing coercive, pressurising or authoritarian
108 behaviours in order to impose a specific way of acting upon an individual (Bartholomew et
109 al., 2009). Perceived coach psychological control has been shown to be positively correlated
110 with thwarting of innate psychological needs, depressive symptoms, disordered eating,
111 burnout, and negative affect in athletes (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Ryan, Bosch, &
112 Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2011). Given these associations, we expect that the extent to which
113 athletes perceive their coaches to be psychologically controlling will be associated with
114 salivary SIgA. However, we anticipate that positive and negative relationships exist
115 regarding within-person and between-person associations, respectively. These different
116 processes are conceptually and statistically divergent (Curran & Bauer, 2011). Within-person
117 changes in perceptions of control represent relatively *acute* variations around each athlete's
118 usual perceptions, In comparison, between-person differences characterize relatively stable
119 average (i.e., *chronic*) perceptions of coach control. Literature examining associations
120 between stress and immunity has consistently shown that certain aspects of immune function
121 are increased in response to acute stressors, whereas these same aspects of immunity are
122 impaired in response to chronic stress (e.g., Bosch, Ring, de Geus, Veerman, & Amerongen,
123 2002). Accordingly, we propose similar relationships exist between coach psychological

124 control and SIgA. That is, when an individual's perceptions of coach control are higher,
125 compared to their usual perceptions (i.e., within-person increases), this will be associated
126 with elevated SIgA levels within that individual. On the other hand, individuals with high
127 average (chronic) perceptions of coach control will be associated with lower SIgA levels,
128 compared to participants with low average perceptions of coach control (i.e., between-person
129 differences).

130 In addition to potential interpersonal factors, many negative intrapersonal attitudes
131 and emotions have been documented within sports settings, including burnout (Goodger,
132 Gorely, Harwood, & Lavallee, 2007) and negative affect (Dworkin & Larson, 2006). Limited
133 work has considered the influence of these intrapersonal states on immune function, however,
134 in 11 professional swimmers, negative affect was positively correlated with levels of alpha
135 amylase and chromogranin A (other anti-microbial proteins found in saliva) on the day of a
136 competition (Diaz, Bocanegra, Teixeira, Soares, & Espindola, 2012). Similarly, the degree
137 that athletes from a range of sports reported that their psychological needs were thwarted has
138 also been correlated with elevated SIgA (Bartholomew et al., 2011). In contrast to the
139 potential 'acute stressors' above, undesirable symptoms and sources of chronic stress have
140 been negatively related to SIgA secretion rate in 15 basketball players (Moreira, Arsati, de
141 Oliveira Lima-Arsati, Simões, & de Araújo, 2011). As a potential intrapersonal predictor of
142 immunological response, we measured participants' intentions to drop out of the sport.
143 Intentions to drop out have been linked with low self-determined motivation (Sarrazin,
144 Vallerand, Guillet, Pelletier, & Cury, 2002) and intrapersonal conflict (Völp & Keil, 1987),
145 thus, we assume that holding intentions to drop out of sport represents a negative internal
146 state that may have implications for an individual's immunological well-being. Again we
147 mirror the conflicting relationships observed between acute and chronic stressors (Bosch et

148 al., 2002) by proposing a positive within-person relationship and negative between-person
149 relationship between intentions to drop out and SIgA level.

150 To summarize, the present study attempts to explore the novel influence of athletes'
151 perceptions of their coach's psychological control and intentions to drop out at the end of the
152 season on their SIgA levels. Critically, the majority of the reviewed research has examined
153 between-person relationships among psychological factors and immune function (e.g., do
154 individuals reporting a positive psychological profile exhibit different SIgA levels, compared
155 to individuals reporting a negative psychological profile?). This study is the first to
156 simultaneously disaggregate potential bidirectional effects of potential psychological
157 predictors of immunological function by investigating within-person changes and between-
158 person differences. In line with the bidirectional impact of chronic versus acute stressors on
159 SIgA (Bosch et al., 2002), we hypothesize that an acute increase in an individual's perception
160 of psychological control or intention to drop out beyond their average perceptions may be
161 associated with elevated SIgA levels (i.e., a positive within-person relationship). In contrast,
162 we propose that an individual experiencing higher average (chronic) levels of control or
163 intentions to drop out may display lower SIgA levels, compared to an individual experiencing
164 lower levels of control and intentions to drop out (i.e., a negative between-person
165 relationship).

166 **Materials & Methods**

167 **Participants and Procedures**

168 Participants were 32 hockey players (21 male, 11 female; M age = 28 years, SD =
169 5.18, range = 18-44 years), comprising 18 participants who completed the measures at all
170 three time points, four who completed the measures twice, and 10 who completed the
171 measures once. The analytical strategy employed (see Data Analysis section below) allows
172 for incomplete data to be included in the analysis (Hox, 2010). Players participated in

173 regional leagues and competed for three different teams, each with a different coach. They
174 trained with their respective coach for an average of 1.66 years ($SD = 1.64$), spent 3.98 ($SD =$
175 1.56) hours per week with the coach, and did not receive any financial income to play
176 hockey. Finally, when asked to rate the personal importance of hockey, the average response
177 was 5.93 on a 1-7 scale, where greater scores represent higher importance. This suggests that
178 psychological experiences in hockey are likely to be personal meaningful.

179 Following approval from a university ethics committee, the study was conducted in
180 line with APA guidelines. Data collection occurred at three time points from February to
181 March that varied across participants but were at least one week apart (average time between
182 time points was 15 days). A hockey season in the UK typically runs from September to
183 March. Prior to scheduled evening training sessions (beginning at 6pm approximately),
184 participants provided informed consent and responded to a multi-section questionnaire,
185 taking approximately 10 minutes to complete, and provided a saliva sample for measurement
186 of SIgA (see Measures section). Collecting saliva at the same time in the evening and prior to
187 exercise ruled out potential confounding by diurnal variation in SIgA or acute effects of
188 exercise (Gleeson et al., 1999).

189 **Measures**

190 **Intention to dropout of hockey.** To assess the extent to which participants were
191 considering dropping out of hockey at the end of the season, two items used by Vallerand,
192 Fortier, & Guay (1997) to measure school dropout were adapted to the sports context (“I
193 often consider dropping out of this sport” and “I intend to drop out of this sport”). Despite
194 some limitations, two items are often sufficient to represent a construct (Bollen, 1989; Marsh,
195 Hau, Balla, & Grayson, 1998) especially when theorized as a unidimensional construct.
196 Responses were rated on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all true*) to 7 (*very true*).

197 Vallerand et al. (1997) reported adequate internal consistency of the scale and the reliability
198 in the present study was $r = .74$.

199 **Perceived coach control.** Participants' perceptions of their coach's controlling
200 interpersonal style were assessed using the 15-item Controlling Coach Behaviors Scale
201 (CCBS; Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2010). The scale measures four
202 facets of controlling coaching: controlling use of rewards (e.g., "My coach tries to motivate
203 me by promising to reward me if I do well"), negative conditional regard (e.g., "My coach is
204 less friendly with me if I don't make the effort to see things his/her way"), intimidation (e.g.,
205 "My coach shouts at me in front of others to make me do certain things"), and excessive
206 personal control (e.g., "My coach expects my whole life to center on my sport participation").
207 These subscales were combined to reflect an overall coach control variable because we did
208 not expect differential relationships among the different subscales of coach control and SIgA.
209 In addition, the original scale authors have recommended using the items as an overall
210 measure of coach control. Participants rated the degree to which they agreed with each of the
211 items on a seven-point scale anchored by 1 (*not at all true*) and 7 (*very true*). Previous
212 research has demonstrated acceptable internal consistency and predictive validity of the items
213 (e.g., Bartholomew et al., 2010). The internal consistency in the present study was $\alpha = .92$.

214 **Saliva SIgA.** Participants were asked to refrain from eating, drinking, smoking or
215 brushing their teeth for 1 hour prior to sampling and to abstain from caffeine and alcohol for
216 24 hours before each data collection date. Unstimulated saliva samples were collected over a
217 4-minute period using the passive unstimulated drool/spitting method (Navazesh, 1993).
218 Participants were asked to collect saliva on the floor of the mouth without stimulation by oro-
219 facial movement or swallowing, before drooling/spitting into pre-weighed polypropylene
220 tubes at approximately 30-second intervals. Samples were weighed to assess sample volume,
221 and stored at -20°C until analysis. Samples were then thawed, mixed vigorously using a

222 vortex, and centrifuged for 5 minutes at $10,000 \times g$ to remove particulate matter. The
223 supernatant was aliquoted into new tubes and SIgA measured using a commercially available
224 enzyme-linked immuno-sorbent assay (ELISA) (Salimetrics catalog number 1-1602; PA,
225 USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Intra- and inter-assay precision were 5.6%
226 and 8.8%.

227 **Data Analysis**

228 Multilevel modelling was employed using MLwiN software (version 2.10; Rasbash,
229 Browne, Healy, Cameron, & Charlton, 2012) to explore the study hypotheses. In repeated
230 measures data sets, measurement time points are nested within study participants, which
231 violates an assumption within many traditional single-level analyses (e.g., regression,
232 analysis of variance) that the data are independent. Multilevel modelling overcomes this
233 complication by constructing separate, but associated equations at both the within- and
234 between-person levels resulting in superior estimation of the parameters and statistical
235 significance (Hox, 2010). In addition, multilevel modelling does not require that data is
236 collected at the same time for each participant, nor does it require the same number of
237 responses from each participant (Hox, 2010), therefore, it has many advantages, compared to
238 some other types of analysis.

239 **Results**

240 First, intercept-only models (i.e., no predictor variables included; see Table 1) were
241 built to calculate the intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) of all study variables, which
242 describe the degree of variance at the within- and between-person level of analysis. The ICCs
243 revealed that the amount of variance attributable to the between-person level was 46%
244 (intentions to drop out), 79% (coach control), and 7% (SIgA), respectively. Therefore, 54%,
245 21%, and 93% of the variance, respectively, was attributable to the within-person level of

246 analysis. These substantial levels of variance indicate that unravelling within-person and
247 between-person relationships among these study variables may have merit.

248 Next, we examined the rate of change in the three study variables across the course of
249 the study, which took place from February to March, 2012. This was achieved by
250 constructing unconditional growth models with a ‘time’ variable, which reflected the day that
251 the data was collected (i.e., first time point = 0, last time point = 49), as a predictor in the
252 level 1 equation. The intercept in these models referred to the average levels of the study
253 variable at the beginning of the study and the slope coefficients reflect the amount of change
254 across the course of the study. As shown in Table 1, average levels of intention to drop out
255 and coach control were significantly different from zero but relatively low (1.56 and 2.20 on
256 a 1-7 scale, respectively) and remained stable over the course of the study. Average SIgA
257 concentration was 30.1 mg/l at the beginning of the study and increased linearly by 2.0
258 mg/l/day over the course of the study.

259 Prior to examining our primary study hypotheses, we first investigated whether a
260 range of control variables needed to be considered in our analysis (i.e., gender, age, time
261 elapsed since last meal) by entering them as predictors of SIgA in the multilevel regression
262 model. SIgA was \log^{10} transformed to establish normality. Results revealed that only gender
263 significantly predicted SIgA ($b = .37, p < .002$) and was controlled for in subsequent models.
264 Gender was dummy coded (0 = female, 1 = male), hence, SIgA levels were significantly
265 higher in males, compared to females.

266 Next, conditional models were created by including intentions to drop out and
267 perceived coach psychological control as predictors of SIgA in the within-person equation.
268 Within the same models, we also included each participant’s average levels of intention to
269 drop out and perceived psychological control as predictors in the between-person equation.
270 All variables were centred on the overall sample mean (i.e., grand mean centring), which

271 permitted us to obtain pure estimates of the within-person and between-person associations
272 (Marsh et al., 2012). Specifically, this strategy enabled us to conclude whether a) an increase
273 in each participant's intention to drop out or perceptions of coach control beyond their
274 average levels predicted higher levels of SIgA in that participant (i.e., within-person acute
275 effects), and b) participants who reported high average intentions to drop out and/or coach
276 control had lower concentrations of SIgA, compared to participants reporting low average
277 intentions to drop out and/or coach control (i.e., between-person chronic effects).

278 As can be seen in Table 1, our within-person hypothesis was supported as changes in
279 an individual's intention to drop out and perceived coach control were positively associated
280 with SIgA concentration. In contrast, our between-person hypothesis received no support as
281 no between-person associations were found among intentions to drop out, perceived coach
282 control, and SIgA concentration, although regression coefficients were in the expected
283 negative direction. Calculation of R_1^2 and R_2^2 values indicated that inclusion of the predictors
284 reduced the error in prediction by 23% at the within-person level and 26% at the between-
285 person level. These values are an estimate of effect size, analogous to R^2 values in single
286 level regression analysis (Hox, 2010).

287 Discussion

288 The present study contributes to existing knowledge by exploring the associations
289 among perceptions of coach psychological control, intentions to drop out of sport and
290 salivary SIgA in a sample of field hockey players. Significantly, the within-person changes
291 and between-person differences were separated using multilevel modelling. Overall, our
292 hypotheses proposing that an acute within-person increase in perceptions of control or
293 intentions to drop out would be associated with elevated levels of SIgA were corroborated.
294 However, we found no support for suppressive influences of sustained, or average, between-
295 person levels of control or drop out intentions on SIgA.

296 Prior to speculating on the major findings of the study, it is worth noting the
297 meaningful levels of variance in the study variables. Cross-sectional designs do not provide
298 information on the decomposition of variance across within- and between-person levels of
299 analysis, yet the findings within the present study show significant variance within
300 individuals, especially SIgA levels. This substantiates previous evidence that employed a
301 different statistical method to assess variability in the SIgA levels of elite yachtsman (Neville,
302 Gleeson, & Folland, 2008). Hence, the longitudinal assessment of SIgA, as well as
303 psychological influences, seems necessary to establish within-person and between-person
304 variation in future scholarly work and applied athlete monitoring.

305 Regarding absolute levels and change in the study variables, unconditional growth
306 models revealed that, on average the sample experienced statistically significant, albeit
307 relatively low, levels of perceptions of control and intentions to drop out throughout the
308 course of the study. While these low levels are encouraging, they suggest that maladaptive
309 inter- and intrapersonal experiences were relevant in this sample. At the beginning of the
310 study SIgA levels were relatively low compared to those reported for elite yachtsman
311 (136mg/l; Neville et al., 2008) and sub-elite cyclists (121mg/l; Halson, Lancaster,
312 Jeukendrup, & Gleeson, 2003). Nonetheless, the present sample displayed a linear increase in
313 average SIgA levels over the course of the study, from approximately 30 mg/l to 128 mg/l.
314 These increases are likely due to the linear increases in daylight across the course of the study
315 (i.e., from February to March; Park & Tokura, 1999). Extensive differences in absolute SIgA
316 levels between studies are, however, commonplace and can be explained by numerous factors,
317 including between-participant variability, the characteristics (e.g., age) of the cohort, and the
318 assay techniques employed (Shephard, 2000).

319 A major finding within the present study was the significant within-person association
320 between perceptions of coach psychological control and SIgA levels. In other words,

321 irrespective of an individual's average perceptions of the coach, a rise in feelings of being
322 pressured, coerced, or lacking freedom to make decisions was associated with an increase in
323 SIgA levels. This extends previous acute stress-based research (Bosch et al., 2002; Viena,
324 Banks, Barbu, Schulman, & Tartar, 2012) by proposing that an acute within-person change in
325 perceived maladaptive interpersonal environments is also related to elevated SIgA in saliva.
326 More specifically, changes in experiences of psychological control seem to be of sufficient
327 intensity to provoke changes in mucosal immunity, whereas, other stressors may not be so
328 intense (e.g., mild academic stress; Viena et al., 2012).

329 Also in accordance with our hypothesis, relative (i.e., within-person) changes in
330 individuals' negative intrapersonal attitudes, in the shape of intentions to drop out, were
331 positively related to SIgA levels. These negative cognitions have not been linked to immune
332 function previously, yet quitting one's sport may lead to a loss of social networks or
333 negatively impact one's identity, therefore contemplating such an event may be detrimental
334 to one's well-being. It is worth noting, however, that the magnitude of this relationship was
335 smaller, compared to psychological control, suggesting that interpersonal influences may
336 have more of an impact on SIgA than intrapersonal cognitions (see also Herbert & Cohen,
337 1993).

338 Although the mechanisms underlying our observations were not explored in this study,
339 it is likely that intentions to drop out of sport, and perceptions of coach control, invoke
340 feelings of acute stress. This may result in activation of the sympathetic nervous system and
341 release of adrenaline from the adrenal medulla, both of which serve to increase secretion of
342 salivary proteins as part of a "fight or flight" response (Bosch et al., 2002).

343 In contrast to the evidence regarding within-person psychosocial influences on SIgA
344 levels, no support was found for the existence of relationships at the between-person level of
345 analysis. That is, individuals who reported higher average levels of perceived psychological

346 control and intentions to drop out did not display lower levels of SIgA, compared to
347 individuals who reported lower levels of negative psychological experiences. This is
348 somewhat surprising in view of the literature suggesting suppressive effects of various forms
349 of chronic stress on immune function (e.g., Segerstrom & Miller, 2004). However, it is
350 possible that the relatively low chronic levels of reported psychological control and intentions
351 to drop out of sport may not have been sufficient to impair mucosal immunity. Alternatively,
352 the negative experiences may be of adequate intensity but the overall amount of time spent in
353 these hockey-based situations may not have been enough to meaningfully influence average
354 SIgA levels. Competing at sub-elite levels may also mean that feeling controlled or intending
355 to drop out may not be particularly meaningful and, therefore, may not have significant
356 impact on immunity. This latter explanation is less likely, however, given the high perceived
357 importance of field hockey reported by this cohort.

358 **Summary and Considerations for Future Research**

359 The fundamental message within the present study is that chronic and acute
360 perceptions and cognitions have different associations with saliva SIgA. Corroboration of
361 these differential relationships will have significant implications for theory and practice
362 within sport. Hence, we suggest that other interpersonal and intrapersonal variables (e.g.,
363 autonomy support, challenge and threat appraisals) should be used in future work to see if
364 these different associations are observed in other chronic and acute conceptual paradigms.
365 From an applied perspective, monitoring of SIgA levels as an indicator of immunity in
366 athletes should be conducted over a period of time using several measurements. Otherwise,
367 certain psychological states at one point in time may artificially elevate SIgA, leading to
368 incorrect conclusions about athletes' health. Second, while our findings do not permit firm
369 conclusions about sustained psychologically controlling practices, the within-person
370 associations imply that controlling coaches impact on athletes in similar ways to the effects of

371 stress. As a result, it is recommended that practices such as controlling use of rewards,
372 conditional regard, intimidation, and excessive personal control are minimized in coaching.
373 Finally, practitioners often consider how external elements of the sport context (e.g.,
374 coaching, competition, extensive travel) impact upon the health of athletes, however, the
375 findings in the present study suggest a holistic perspective is warranted towards athlete
376 monitoring which additionally considers intrapersonal states and their influence on immunity.

377 Following on from the present work, subsequent studies may wish to try to explain
378 the lack of between-person associations between the psychological factors and saliva SIgA.
379 The regression coefficients observed in the present study were in the expected negative
380 direction; however, the somewhat small sample at the between-person level may have
381 contributed to the lack of statistical significant findings. Although 30 Level 2 units (i.e.,
382 participants) have been shown to be adequate for exploration of fixed effects (i.e., average
383 relationships), larger sample sizes in future work will allow for the exploration of random
384 effects (i.e., individual differences in the magnitude of observed relationships; Maas & Hox,
385 2005). A larger sample with more measurement time points will also allow for more
386 elaborate patterns of change to be modelled and enhance the robustness of our conclusions,
387 which were based on a modest sample size. In addition, more time points over the entire
388 season may discount the possibility that our data collection at the end of the hockey season
389 may have influenced the results through potentially heightened or suppressed psychological
390 states (e.g., competitions become more intense or nothing left to play for). In addition, a
391 limitation of the present study was not controlling for non-sport factors, such as financial or
392 relationship stressors, or the nutritional state of the athlete. Adopting a more holistic
393 perspective in the future investigation of athletes' well-being will pinpoint the most important
394 psychological factors for athlete health protection.

395 Future studies could also examine the psycho-biological mechanisms underlying the
396 present observations. For example, the secretion of SIgA into saliva is dependent on both
397 immune cells and glandular cells (Bosch et al., 2001; Strugnell & Wijburg, 2010). IgA is
398 produced by plasma cells (i.e., the immune cells) in tonsillar mucosal tissue, but to enter
399 saliva, IgA must be transported across the epithelial cells by the so-called polymeric-
400 immunoglobulin receptor produced by glandular epithelial cells (Bosch et al., 2001; Strugnell
401 & Wijburg, 2010). Thus, by measuring the secretory component, a part of the receptor that
402 remains bound to SIgA after its secretion, future studies could examine whether the probable
403 stress caused by intentions to drop out and adverse perceptions of coach control are a result of
404 alterations that are either immune or glandular in nature.

405 It should also be considered that in the present study, pathogen-specific SIgA was not
406 measured, nor were SIgA sub-types (i.e., SIgA1 and SIgA2). However, as a large proportion
407 of SIgA is poly-reactive and is able to target a range of pathogens, the present study provides
408 a global picture of mucosal immunity, rather than focussing on immunity towards a particular
409 bacterial or viral infection (Strugnell & Wijburg, 2010). Further, SIgA sub-types are in
410 approximately equal proportions in saliva (Brandtzaeg, 1998; Marcotte & Lavoie, 1998), and
411 although SIgA1 and SIgA2 often target different pathogens (Brandtzaeg, 1998) these sub-
412 types typically respond to physiological and psychological stressors in a similar pattern
413 (Bosch et al., 2001).

414 To conclude, the present study provides novel evidence that relative within-person
415 changes in individuals' perceptions of coach psychological control and intentions to drop out
416 are associated with changes in salivary SIgA in field hockey players. However, between-
417 person differences in psychological control or drop out intentions were not related to SIgA.
418 Attempts to replicate or rebut this latter finding should be made in elite settings where the
419 psychological experiences may have stronger implications for well-being due to greater

420 levels of investment and stronger links to identity. Indeed, an elite sample may be more
421 appropriate to explore influences on athletic immunity given the number of URTIs observed
422 in elite populations (Neville et al., 2006; Robinson & Milne, 2002) and the associated
423 implications for training and performance. Finally, studies which focus on manipulating the
424 interpersonal environment in sport contexts are warranted to establish causal effects on SIgA
425 levels.

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Table 1

Multilevel models exploring variability and change in study variables and predictors of SIgA.

Predictor Variables	Outcome Variable						
	Intercept only models			Unconditional growth models			Conditional model
	Coach Control	Drop out intentions	SIgA	Coach Control	Drop out intentions	SIgA	SIgA
<i>Fixed effects</i>							
Intercept	2.30**	1.92**	84.40**	2.20**	1.56**	30.09	1.49**
Time				0.00	0.01	2.01**	
Gender							0.33**
Within-person coach control							0.27*
Within-person drop out intentions							0.13*
Between-person coach control							-0.20
Between-person drop out intentions							-0.12
<i>Random effects</i>							
Level 1 residual variance	0.14**	0.92**	7152.71**	0.13**	0.86**	5450.54**	0.08**
Level 2 residual variance	0.54**	0.79*	525.77	0.54**	0.86*	1951.60	0.05*

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$