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Team Coordination in High-Risk Circus Acrobatics

Abstract

To advance understanding of the mechanisms allowing for team coordination (TC) in complex motor actions, we conducted a qualitative study with eight elite hand-to-hand circus acrobats. Data collection consisted of field observations, an open-ended interview with the participants' head coach, and focus group interviews with all acrobats. Data analysis yielded three higher order themes: TC, collective efficacy (CE), and TC-CE linkage. Teammates' shared and complementary mental models, as well as implicit and explicit communication dynamics, emerged as formative sub-themes of TC; self- and other's-efficacy emerged as reflective sub-themes of CE. Our findings also suggest that TC is likely inter-related to CE in a systemic fashion. Practitioners should encourage the development of both shared and complementary models of thinking, while promoting verbal and non-verbal communication skills. Finally, increasing teammates' confidence in themselves and in their teammates can help in the development of CE as well as the enhancement of TC.

Keywords: team coordination; shared mental models; group dynamics; collective efficacy; dyadic teams.

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42 **Team Coordination in High-Risk Circus Acrobatics**

43 Whether the unit of analysis is an atom, the human brain, or a sports team, scholars
44 concur that coordination occurs when two or more agents are in the “right place”, at the
45 “right time”, doing the (most likely or expected) “right thing” (see Eccles, 2010; Kelso,
46 2012; Wood, 2003). Put plainly, coordination pertains to “space-time-action” synchrony
47 (see Eccles, 2010). Despite interdisciplinary agreement on the operational definition of
48 coordination, the underlying mechanisms that allow for “space-time-action” congruence
49 remain unclear at least within the Sport, Exercise and Performance Psychology literature
50 (see Carron & Spink, 1993; Filho, Tenenbaum, & Yang, 2015a; Klimoski & Mohammed,
51 1994; Peterson, Mitchell, Thompson, & Burr, 2000; Reimer, Park, & Hinsz, 2006). This
52 ambivalence might arise from the fact that team coordination (TC) is a multi-layered
53 process that requires in-depth qualitative exploration. To put it another way, although
54 scholars agree on the definition of TC, the underlying mechanisms (formative and/or
55 reflective indicators) that lead to TC remain unclear. This might be due to the fact that team
56 processes, such as cohesion and collective efficacy, are intertwined, akin to the notion of
57 *reciprocal determinism* or *many-to-many basis relationship* interactions in applied
58 psychology (see Bandura, 1997; Cacioppo, Tassinary, & Berntson, 2007).

59 Within this complex research scenario, we focused our “exploration ground” on
60 acrobatic dyadic teams, wherein “space-time-action” congruence is essential for optimal
61 performance and safety (Ménard & Hallé, 2014). To this extent, research on team processes
62 has relied on nomothetic methodologies guided by “regression to the mean” arguments (see
63 Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, & Doty, 2011). Accordingly, it is paramount to advance
64 idiographic research aimed at eliciting knowledge from skilled individuals involved in

65 interactive teams (Filho & Rettig, 2016). Our initial theoretical map was the Conceptual
66 Framework of Coordination in Teams (see Eccles & Tenenbaum, 2004), which has
67 informed research on TC in Sport, Exercise and Performance Psychology in recent years
68 (see Collins & Durand-Bush, 2015; Filho & Tenenbaum, 2012).

69 **Conceptual Framework of Coordination in Teams**

70 The main tenet of the Conceptual Framework of Coordination in Teams is that TC
71 is dependent on shared mental models (SMM). SMM has been defined as “teammates’
72 shared understandings about team tasks, task context and strategies, team interaction
73 patterns, and teammates’ traits” (Xinwen, Erping, Ying, Dafei, & Jing, 2006, p. 598). In
74 this context, Eccles and Tenenbaum (2004) purport that TC is dependent on SMM such that
75 an increase in the quality and quantity of shared knowledge within a team facilitates
76 division of labor among teammates, which in turn promotes team performance. In
77 discussing coordination in teams, Eccles and Tenenbaum (2004) also noted that SMM, and
78 TC in turn, can be improved through verbal and non-verbal communication prior to (i.e.,
79 pre-process coordination), during (i.e., in-process coordination), or after team actions (i.e.,
80 post-process coordination).

81 Although previous research supports the thesis that TC is linked to SMM and
82 communication processes (see Gershgoren, Filho, Tenenbaum, & Schinke, 2013; Giske,
83 Rodahl, & Høigaard, 2015; Mathieu, Heffner, Goodwin, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 2000;
84 Reimer et al., 2006), there remains a need to clarify the unique nomological roots of TC.
85 Some scholars have contended that a view of TC based on SMM is somewhat limited, as it
86 does not account for idiosyncratic knowledge within the team (Arrow, Poole, Henry,
87 Wheelan, & Moreland, 2004; Mohammed, Ferzandi, & Hamilton, 2010). In other words,

88 “group thinking” and thus TC breakdowns are more likely to happen if divergent thinking
89 patterns are not present in working teams (Filho & Tenenbaum, 2012; Salas, Rosen, Burke,
90 Goodwin, & Fiore, 2006).

91 The discussion of TC extends beyond the socio-cognitive approach, and has also
92 been examined within a dynamic systems view. In particular, some scholars have posited
93 that TC might not rely primarily on SMM but rather on “affordances”, which are unique to
94 the teammates performing a given task within a specific context (see Marsh, Richardson, &
95 Schmidt, 2009; Silva, Garganta, Araújo, Davids, & Aguiar, 2013; Vilar, Araújo, Davids, &
96 Button, 2012). In this regard, Silva et al. (2013) have noted that it is the ability to perceive
97 “collective affordances” – or the dynamic relationships among teammates, their opponents,
98 and environmental pressures – that allows teammates to establish coordination in
99 interactive team tasks. Also noteworthy, within this dynamic systems view, there are
100 scholars who compare TC to “chemical reactions” or “team chemistry” (see DeLong et al.,
101 2011; Gershgoren et al., 2016), thus adding further nomological confusion to research on
102 group dynamics in applied psychology (see Filho, 2015).

103 **The Present Study**

104 The *unique nomological roots* of TC need to be clarified if applied psychologists
105 are to develop a parsimonious, evidence-based understanding of how myriad team
106 processes are inter-related within a systemic (i.e., *reciprocal determinism*; Bandura, 1997;
107 *many-to-many basis relationship*; see Cacioppo et al., 2007) and integrated view of team
108 dynamics (Filho et al., 2015a; Klimoski & Mohammed, 1994; Mohammed et al., 2010;
109 Short, Sullivan, & Feltz, 2005). Accordingly, to deepen the understanding of TC, we
110 conducted an exploratory focus group study with professional hand-to-hand circus acrobats

111 at a world-leading circus school. Our purpose was to explore circus artists' understanding
112 of how TC is developed in dyadic hand-to-hand acts. Specifically, our research question
113 was: "How is team coordination developed between elite flyers and catchers in high-risk
114 circus acts?" No hypotheses or propositions were formulated a priori, as the study was
115 framed within a constructivist stance in general (Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006; Patton,
116 2002). The participants were invited to construct (and re-construct) their understanding of
117 TC in common hand-to-hand acts during a series of interviews.

118 **Method**

119 **Participants**

120 We purposefully recruited high-skilled hand-to-hand acrobats from a circus school
121 in northeast Canada. The school is geared towards high-performing circus artists in their
122 later stages of development (see Bloom, 1985). Performers come to the school from around
123 the world and the school is renowned for developing world-class circus artists who desire
124 jobs in premier circus companies, such as Cirque du Soleil (Filho, Aubertin, & Petiot,
125 2016). This sampling strategy is consistent with the importance of targeting "information-
126 rich cases" in qualitative inquiry (see Patton, 2002). Our choice for this particular circus
127 modality is in agreement with the concept of cognitive team task analysis (see Klein, 2000),
128 which purports that specific working teams can be used as platforms to advance knowledge
129 of team processes. Eight circus acrobats (seven males, one female) from four different
130 dyads participated in the study, including four catchers and four flyers. The participants
131 were 20.87 years old on average ($SD = 2.76$) and had extensive experience in their
132 respective circus domain. Institutional review board ethical approval was obtained prior to

133 the commencement of the study. Each participant signed an informed consent sheet after
134 being informed of the purpose, rationale, and methodological procedures for the study.

135 **Data Collection**

136 The leading author, who has experience leading workshops on performance
137 psychology for circus artists, and has published academic manuscripts on expert
138 performance in circus, conducted the data collection. His previous research and applied
139 experience in the circus domain helped to facilitate the opportunity to gather data from
140 high-skilled circus acrobats. To this matter, focus group interviews were the main tool used
141 to gather data on the circus artists' understanding of how TC is developed in dyadic hand-
142 to-hand acts. Focus group interviews were deemed the most appropriate strategy to collect
143 data from the performers as they had rigorous daily schedules, including multiple practices
144 and shows, which limited their availability. To this extent, focus groups have been
145 established as an ideal tool to generate concentrated amounts of data on a topic of interest
146 (Vaughn, Schumm, & Sinagub, 1996). In addition to two focus group interviews, a peer-
147 debriefing interview with the head coach and a series of naturalist observations were also
148 conducted. This is consistent with the importance of triangulation in qualitative inquiry
149 (Patton, 2002), particularly with the notion that observations and individual interviews can
150 add supplementary information to focus group studies (Bruun et al., 2014; Vaughn et al.,
151 1996; Willig & Stainton-Rogers, 2007).

152 **Focus group interviews.** The focus group interviews were conducted under the
153 moderation of the leading author. The first interview involved five performers from three
154 dyads and the second involved eight performers from four different dyads. These numbers
155 are congruent with recent guidelines on qualitative inquiry, which suggest that focus group

156 interviews should consist of 4-8 interviewees (see Sparkes & Smith, 2014). To maximize
157 participation in both interviews, the acrobats were seated at a round table and given the
158 opportunity to speak in turns.

159 The first interview lasted approximately 45 minutes and was conducted as an
160 exercise, akin to previous qualitative studies (see Bruun et al., 2014; Simons et al., 2012).
161 Thus, the first interview served as a pilot in the development of a structured interview guide
162 for the ensuing main focus group. The resulting interview guide included two main topics:
163 (a) development of “space-time-action” congruence, and (b) TC breakdown. The second
164 interview lasted approximately 75 minutes. Congruent with the interview guide, the
165 opening interview question was conceived to reflect the conceptual basis of TC; that is
166 “space-time-action” congruence. The specific probe was: “How do you develop team
167 coordination in your dyads? For instance, what do you do as a catcher and as a flyer to be at
168 the right spot, at the right time, and making sure you are doing the right thing?” Each
169 participant was given the opportunity to answer the initial question and was subsequently
170 asked to elaborate on his/her ideas while commenting on other’s responses and insights.
171 The follow-up comment and question from the moderator was “I found it interesting to hear
172 your thoughts on team coordination, communication, trust... In this second round I will give
173 you a chance to add whatever you want to add, okay? Let’s start from here.” Finally, the
174 moderator asked additional follow-up questions (e.g., “One person said, and I noticed while
175 I was watching the shows that one of you calls the trick. So how does that work? How do
176 you decide who calls the trick?”), and allowed all participants to respond as desired.

177 **Coach interview.** The purpose of the coach interview was to elicit additional
178 information about the core components of action proper to hand-to-hand acrobats. During

179 this interview the leading author gained clarification on the specific roles of the catcher and
180 flyer in the acrobatic act and gathered further information regarding practices and shows.
181 The interview was tape-recorded, lasted approximately 45 minutes, and was conducted in a
182 meeting room at a time chosen by the coach.

183 **Field observations.** The leading author conducted six observations as a *complete*
184 *observer* (i.e., without taking part in the social setting but literally observing from the
185 audience; see Gold, 1958; Willig & Stainton-Rogers, 2007) in order to gain a better
186 understanding of the coordination dynamics established by flyers and catchers. To allow
187 maximum variation, the interviews were conducted at varying circumstances. Of the six
188 observations, two occurred during practices and four were conducted during live
189 performance shows (two from a backstage perspective and two from an audience
190 perspective). Each observation lasted approximately 75-90 min. Unstructured reflexive
191 notes were maintained by the leading researcher, as the intention was to study TC from a
192 broad naturalistic observation paradigm rather than subscribe to a controlled observation
193 script (see Willig & Stainton-Rogers, 2007).

194 **Data Analysis**

195 The focus group interview data was coded using inductive thematic analysis, as our
196 goal was to identify the acrobats understanding of TC in hand-to-hand acrobatics. A
197 deductive approach, through direct content analysis, was employed to analyze the coach
198 interview and observation notes according to the themes previously identified in the focus
199 groups.

200 **Inductive thematic analysis.** The focus group interview data were analyzed
201 inductively based on Braun and Clarke's (2006) theoretical thematic analysis which

202 consists of six steps: (1) familiarization with the data, (2) generating initial codes, (3)
203 searching for themes, (4) reviewing themes, (5) defining and naming themes, and (6)
204 producing the report. Accordingly, in the first step of the data analysis, both authors read
205 the transcription of the focus group interviews until they became familiar with the data. The
206 first author then organized the transcription into meaning units of text and subsequently
207 grouped these units into themes and sub-themes. In the fourth step, the last author
208 independently reviewed all meaning units as coded by the first author. Meaning units that
209 needed recoding were identified and discussed until consensus was reached among the
210 authors. The fifth step involved defining names for the themes and identifying quotes
211 capturing the essence of each theme and sub-theme. Finally, the results were presented in
212 the manuscript and described in terms of coherence. A thematic map was generated to
213 visually illustrate the results.

214 **Direct content analysis.** The data gathered from the coach interview and the
215 reflexive notes were analyzed deductively through direct content analysis. In the present
216 study, the predetermined categories used for the direct categorical analysis consisted of the
217 themes and sub-themes identified from the focus interview data. In this regard, there is a
218 general agreement that direct categorical analysis should be used to complement the main
219 data collected in a given study, thus increasing the overall trustworthiness of the findings
220 (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). The coding process followed the steps outlined by Hsieh and
221 Shannon (2005). Initially, the first and last author independently read and re-read the
222 verbatim transcripts of the coach interview and the field notes until they became familiar
223 with the data. Subsequently, they independently searched for meaning units reflecting the
224 pre-defined codes (i.e., themes and sub-themes from the interview data). Lastly, they

225 discussed their independent categorization until consensus was reached, and selected quotes
226 to be presented in the manuscript write-up.

227 **Results**

228 The analysis yielded three higher order themes: team coordination (TC), collective
229 efficacy (CE), and TC-CE linkage. TC and CE emerged as unique team processes
230 underlined by different factors. Moreover, TC and CE seemed to co-evolve, thereby being
231 intrinsically inter-related (i.e., TC-CE linkage). These higher order themes are illustrated in
232 Figure 1 and discussed next.

233 **Team Coordination**

234 Our analysis suggests that TC is a multi-layered process involving four sub-themes:
235 shared mental models, complementary mental models, verbal communication, and non-
236 verbal communication.

237 **Shared mental models.** To achieve TC, the acrobats developed shared knowledge
238 about team tasks and teammates' actions. To this extent, one of the acrobats noted that over
239 time they learn to "feel" where each other will be within a specific movement:

240 Let's say my flyer is doing a one-armed handstand on my head. I can't see
241 him and we can't really talk and I have to balance him. I found that with time
242 you just "feel" each other. I feel his hand, I feel his weight, and I know where
243 he is going and I just respond to that and try to stay under him. (Catcher-2)

244 **Complementary mental models.** TC also seems to rely on the partners'
245 idiosyncratic complementary knowledge about team tasks. In this regard, one of the
246 catchers highlighted that over time they learn how to "adjust" to each other's movements:

247 We are standing up and she swings and I throw her and that feeling [of
248 throwing] for me, just by the hands. I don't know how but I can feel when she
249 is biking [leg movements in the air], or giving the kick. Even if she is in the
250 bike, and I can't see her, I can adjust if I feel she is too late or too early and
251 she can feel the same if I miss my swing. (Catcher-4)

252 **Verbal communication.** Our results suggested that verbal communication appears
253 to be related to the development of TC, particularly during practice sessions when time
254 pressure is not an issue and partners are able to discuss, together with their coaches, how
255 complex movements should be executed:

256 I think the only time that it [coordination] ever becomes an issue is if you
257 think the trick is like “this” and they [the catchers] think the trick is like “that”,
258 and when you don't agree. And when you have a really good coach who tells
259 you how it [the trick] is, you have to just accept that and kind of figure out the
260 way that it [the trick] works for you. I think the trick works like “this” so when
261 we try it and it always fails, I'm not committing to it because I think you [the
262 catcher] should be here, but in fact I don't really know because I've never done
263 the part. But if you keep good communication the other person can start to
264 understand what you are going through. (Flyer-1)

265 An excerpt from the interview with the head coach also illustrates the importance of
266 verbal communication in solving coordination problems in difficult acrobatic tricks:

267 I really believe that good partnerships are about communicating very well.
268 And they [the acrobats] both need to work as a team to see how they can do it

269 [the trick] ...what am I doing wrong or what I can do differently to solve the
270 problem. (Head Coach)

271 **Non-verbal communication.** Pre-rehearsed trigger signals, as well as on-the-fly
272 mimicry of each other's somatic responses (e.g., breathing), are likely paramount to TC
273 especially under time-pressure situations, such as live shows:

274 There are very specific cues to signal that you are ready and it's usually non-
275 verbal, and it's very specific timing that you practice. For me, almost every
276 trick he calls, basically when he does this one where he throws a leg, I know
277 he is ready. When he goes like this, and he stops moving, I know he is ready.
278 I don't have to wait for him to say anything. (Flyer-3)

279 It is all based on breathing and timing and just waiting the exact amount of
280 time, because if one person is pushing a little early or a little late then it's
281 [trick] going to be off. So I keep moving until I find a calmness and then I just
282 kind of stop breathing and then as soon as I become still he knows I am ready.
283 (Flyer-1)

284 Field notes, documented following the field observations, were congruent with the
285 notion that non-verbal communication is important to develop on-stage coordination:

286 Sometimes it is like eye coordination: "Okay, I look at you and you tell me if
287 you are ready, when I should go". And sometimes it is on the music beat, and
288 then they [the acrobats] will do some sort of choreography. (Back-Stage
289 Observation 2)

290 **Collective Efficacy**

291 Collective efficacy (CE) has been defined as, “a group’s shared belief in its conjoint
292 capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels
293 of attainment” (Bandura, 1997, p. 4). Without a shared belief in each other’s abilities,
294 partners would be unable to perform successfully while meeting the specific demands
295 proper to hand-to-hand acrobatics:

296 When you are throwing the flyer up, you don't really know what is going to
297 happen in the air. It is kind of a thing of faith. They trust that you will catch
298 them but you trust that they are going to know what to do in the air and you
299 will catch them no matter what. (Catcher-1)

300 The head coach alluded to the notion of CE, albeit in colloquial terms, by
301 mentioning the importance of developing “trust” between the two acrobats:

302 It takes a huge amount of trust to do this [hand-to-hand acrobatics] because
303 you are giving your body fully to somebody else in a way. But trust is also a
304 big part of taking responsibility for everything. If you are working with
305 somebody else, it is not one person’s fault, and this is a misconception that
306 people have. Often they will point the finger at somebody else and say “oh,
307 you’re not doing this right, you are not...” It’s easy to do that, rather than to
308 say “okay, what can I do differently”. So it’s important for people to
309 understand. It’s like tango. It takes two people. (Head Coach)

310 CE is a task-specific process and antecedents may differ across domains of human
311 activity (Bandura, 1997; Feltz, Short, & Sullivan, 2008). In the case of hand-to-hand
312 acrobatics, CE appeared to be the by-product of self-efficacy and other’s-efficacy.

313 **Self-efficacy.** Self-efficacy has been defined as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to
314 organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (Bandura
315 1997, p. 3). The self-belief that one could perform his/her part in the hand-to-hand act was
316 an important part in building a shared efficacy belief and in the development of TC:

317 Once I feel that I am strong enough to hold something, especially with my
318 flyer because he is not afraid of anything, that is when I know that I can hold
319 him and then we usually just go for it. (Catcher-2)

320 **Other’s-efficacy.** A belief in the partners’ ability to execute an acrobatic trick also
321 emerged as related to the development of a collective sense of efficacy. To this extent, a
322 catcher noted, “He is a good acrobat and he knows his body and that gives me confidence.”
323 Two flyers respectively stated, “I’ve started to learn the way to ‘just let go’ and trust him.”
324 and “He trusted me and that helped me to overcome my fear and trust myself.”

325 **Team Coordination and Collective Efficacy Linkage**

326 Our analysis suggested that the development of TC is intrinsically related to the
327 development of CE and vice-versa. Acrobatic partners would be unable to develop TC
328 without a shared sense of CE. In turn, according to the acrobats, the development of TC
329 also enhanced CE beliefs:

330 Coordination and trust go together. If you don’t trust your partner then the
331 coordination goes bad. If I trust him I won’t fall because I am letting him
332 control me. So it goes together. If you trust your partner you are going to be
333 more coordinated. (Flyer-3)

334 **Discussion**

335 Our purpose was to explore circus artists' understanding of how TC is developed in
336 dyadic hand-to-hand acts. This circus modality requires "space-time-action" congruence
337 between a flyer and catcher and, as such, represents an epistemologically valid task to study
338 TC. Our findings suggest that TC is dependent on teammates' knowledge (shared and
339 complementary) and communication dynamics (verbal and non-verbal). Perhaps more
340 importantly, our findings advance research in interactive team tasks by revealing that TC in
341 high-risk acrobatics cannot be reduced to mono-causal explanations. Rather, TC is bounded
342 to *reciprocal determinism* with collective efficacy, which in turn is reflected by the acrobats
343 self- and others' efficacy. The intricacies of these findings are elaborated upon next.

344 **Underlying Factors of Team Coordination**

345 Our findings suggest that TC depends on SMM, complementary mental models,
346 verbal communication, and non-verbal communication. These four factors seem to be
347 formative rather than reflective indicators of TC. That is, TC is not merely reflected by
348 these sub-themes but seems to be dependent on them (see Hoyle, 2011 on the difference
349 between reflective and formative indicators). In other words, our interpretation is that
350 without shared and complementary mental models, as well as verbal and non-verbal
351 communication exchanges, TC in circus acrobatic might not occur.

352 In low-risk team tasks, coordination might rely on SMM only. However, in complex
353 team tasks, such as high-risk acrobatics, only shared knowledge is likely not enough to
354 ensure coordination. To this extent, recent research on team cognition in circus suggests
355 that the importance of complementary mental models increases with task difficulty (Filho,
356 Bertollo, Robazza, & Comani, 2015b). Specifically, Filho et al. (2015b) have noted that
357 juggling dyads in circus tend to show both integrative (shared) and segregative

358 (complementary) intra-team psychophysiological patterns. Noteworthy, the argument that
359 complex tasks, such as high-risk acrobatics, require both shared and complementary
360 knowledge resonates beyond psychology. From swarms of bees to packs of wolves, to
361 cooperative human teams, researchers across domains have noted that the success of
362 complex cooperative tasks relies on both communal and specialized division of labor (Bietti
363 & Sutton, 2015).

364 There is robust evidence indicating that the information-processing capacity of
365 different species is linearly related to their ability to establish complex cooperative social
366 groups (see Dunbar, 2009). Thus, a theoretical understanding of TC should consider both
367 shared and complementary mental models. In practice, fostering the development of shared
368 and complementary affective-cognitive-behavioral states and patterns in teams might
369 enhance organization of labor in complex tasks across disciplines (e.g., music, sports, and
370 military). If teammates hold communal and complementary feelings (affective), thoughts
371 (cognitions), and behavioral patterns, coordination losses in team tasks are less likely to
372 happen (Filho, Gershgoren, Basevitch, Schinke, & Tenenbaum, 2014; Gershgoren et al.,
373 2016).

374 With respect to communication dynamics, our findings extend previous work in
375 applied psychology (see Eccles & Tenenbaum, 2004; Gershgoren et al., 2013) by
376 suggesting that verbal communication is essential to the development of *pre-process*
377 *coordination actions* (i.e., when time pressure is not an issue; e.g., practices), whereas non-
378 verbal communication is key during *in-process coordination actions* (e.g., athletic
379 competitions or artistic shows) in high-stake situations. Furthermore, our results support the

380 notion that head coaches are essential in facilitating communication exchanges that foster
381 the development of TC in interactive teams (see Hackman & Wageman, 2005).

382 Our findings expand previous research by suggesting that TC in circus acrobatics is
383 established through the communication of different types of socio-cognitive knowledge
384 (see Garud, 1997). Acrobats verbalize “know-how” (tacit procedural knowledge) and
385 “know-what” (declarative knowledge) information during practices and shows. However,
386 “know-when” (temporal information) seems to be a tacit corporeal exchange established
387 between the acrobats during live performances. Together, knowing “how to do what and
388 when” might help to explain coordination of high-risk dyadic circus acts. In effect,
389 embodied information exchanges among performance artists in other domains, such as
390 music orchestras and sport teams, have also been found to rely on different types of
391 knowledge (Atik, 1994; Filho et al., 2014).

392 The importance of embodied communication in interactive tasks has been
393 emphasized by different streams of research in psychology, sociology, and anthropology.
394 To this effect, Streeck (2015) has observed that “haptic communication via the torsos, arms
395 and hands (p. 425)” of moving bodies is at the core of in-motion coordination of human
396 bodies. To put it another way, the communication of kinesthetic knowledge seems to be an
397 important “means to the end” of space-time-action synchrony in circus acrobatics. The
398 coordination of joint action in other motor tasks, such as in Aikido, has also partially
399 attributed to moment-by-moment whole body information exchanges (see Lefebvre, 2016).
400 More generally, linguist theorists have noted that in-sync moving bodies suggest in-sync
401 moving minds (McNeill, 2008). Furthermore, shared and complementary thoughts are

402 revealed through body gestures, and body gestures are revealing of thoughts (see also
403 McNeill, 1992).

404 It follows that an alternative explanation to our findings is that verbal and non-
405 verbal communication exchanges are part of team members' mental models. Indeed,
406 language (from *langue*) means shared competence that can be expressed through multiple
407 channels including, but not limited to, kinesthetic non-verbal and spoken verbal means
408 (McNeill, 2008). Overall, the role of communication in shaping TC deserves further
409 attention, as human beings can communicate in novel and infinite ways ("the infinite use of
410 finite means"; see Chomsky, 2014). The limitless capacity of human communication,
411 together with the ever-growing evolution of technology, may continuously alter how
412 communication influences TC in both low- and high-risk team activities.

413 **The Role of Collective Efficacy**

414 In the thematic analysis, self- and other's-efficacy emerged as key factors in the
415 establishment of "we" efficacy beliefs. Self-efficacy, other's-efficacy, and CE seem to be
416 intertwined as confidence in oneself, in one's partner, and in the team are likely conditional
417 on one another. Our findings extend previous research by revealing that interactions
418 between the self and another teammate form the basis of CE in dyadic acrobatics. Put
419 differently, self- and other's-efficacy are likely more important in dyadic teams than in
420 teams with more than two members, wherein "effort" and "preparation" have been found to
421 be major predictors of CE (Short et al., 2005). Indeed, team size has been suggested as a
422 moderator of myriad team processes (for a review see Carron, Eys, & Burke, 2007),
423 including collective efficacy beliefs (Feltz et al., 2008). Overall, as Bandura (1997) has

424 long noted, CE is a task and situation specific construct that changes across domains of
425 human activity.

426 **Team Coordination and Collective Efficacy Linkage**

427 Our findings also suggest that TC is likely inter-related to CE. As such, TC cannot
428 be understood in isolation but rather should be considered in a systematic view, similar to
429 the notion of *reciprocal determinism* and the *many-to-many basis relationship* in applied
430 social psychology (see Bandura, 1997; Cacioppo et al., 2007). This finding reinforces the
431 notion that an integrated view of team dynamics can be advanced by examining the unique
432 underlying mechanisms of higher-order team processes, such as TC and CE (Collins &
433 Durand-Bush, 2015; Filho et al., 2015b). In fact, CE has been described as an emergent
434 state in the sense that it develops through reinforcing dynamic interactions with other team
435 processes, such as TC (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001).

436 In light of these findings, we reiterate the importance of advancing a parsimonious
437 nomological network linking inputs, throughputs, and outputs in team dynamics research.
438 In this regard, many theorists have vouched for studies examining the systemic linkage
439 among team processes. More recently, Filho and colleagues (2015b) have noted that team
440 members' mental models and CE are inter-related processes and together influence
441 performance in teams. Accordingly, exploring, through different methodological
442 approaches, how team members' shared and complementary mental models relate to TC
443 and CE could allow for a better understanding of team development, team functioning, and
444 team resilience. Altogether, a parsimonious and systemic view of team dynamics would
445 allow for the development of clear applied guidelines for practitioners.

446 To the practitioner, our findings suggest that systemic interventions targeting team
447 processes simultaneously may be more beneficial than fragmented interventions aimed at
448 solving intra-group conflict (e.g., social cliques), for instance. Interventions targeting both
449 TC and CE, as well as other team processes (e.g., cohesion, leadership), may yield better
450 results, as more confident teams will likely suffer from fewer coordination breakdowns, and
451 better coordination will further enhance CE.

452 **Limitations**

453 The present study is not without limitations. First, our qualitative inquiry is limited
454 in scope and, thereby, our findings should not be taken as factual “windows to the truth”.
455 Rather, our findings represent one of many alternatives to the understanding of TC, its sub-
456 themes, and related team processes. In addition to methodological triangulation, future
457 studies should abide by the idea of “interpretative pluralism” (Coyle, 2010). While
458 methodological triangulation pertains to the use of multiple methods, interpretative
459 pluralism consists of applying numerous analytical outlooks to a given phenomenon
460 (Kincheloe, 2005).

461 Second, our study relied primarily on group interviews. Although focus group
462 interviews are valuable in eliciting a shared understanding of a given phenomenon,
463 individuals that are more vocal tend to participate more than those who are reserved.
464 Although every effort was made to allow for equal participation, individual interviews
465 would likely have allowed for additional data and findings. We were unable to collect
466 additional data in the form of individual interviews with the acrobats, consistent with the
467 understanding that access to high-skilled performers is usually limited. Further qualitative
468 studies, based on a maximum variation sampling strategy and a grounded theory approach,

469 might help to advance knowledge on the nature of TC in other acrobatic and sport
470 modalities, and across performers of different skill levels.

471 Third, given that the majority of our participants were male acrobats, a factor
472 outside of our control, we were unable to qualitatively analyze potential differences in
473 same-gender dyads compared to co-ed dyads. Accordingly, future studies analyzing
474 potential gender effects on the development of TC, and on the observed TC-CE linkage, are
475 warranted as previous research suggests that gender moderates team processes and
476 performance in working groups (Carron et al., 2007; Feltz et al., 2008). Studies on diverse
477 gender and ethnographic populations are particularly important in the field of Sport,
478 Exercise and Performance Psychology, wherein the majority of studies have been on
479 college-aged, Caucasian, male performers (Filho & Tenenbaum, 2015).

480 **Future Research and Applied Implications**

481 From a theoretical standpoint, scholars should continue to strive for the
482 development of an integrated theory of team dynamics, wherein the linkage among TC, CE,
483 cohesion and other team processes (e.g., leadership; motivational climate) is addressed in a
484 parsimonious fashion. To this extent, it might be fruitful to continue studying whether TC
485 and CE coevolve or whether TC leads to CE, or vice versa. More research on a dynamic
486 systems view of TC is also warranted. The emergence of affordances at the team-level of
487 analysis is dependent on the number of degrees of freedom (see Marsh et al., 2009; Silva et
488 al., 2013; Vilar et al., 2012). Dyads are different than larger teams as there is no chance for
489 subgrouping or coalition development. Furthermore, in dyadic circus acrobatics all
490 movements are practiced and rehearsed exhaustively and thus minimal adaptation to the
491 environment is needed. It follows that the role of knowledge (shared and complementary)

492 and communication (verbal and non-verbal) in promoting TC may differ in teams with
493 more than two members, as well as in open sports where movements are less rehearsed and
494 predictable in comparison to closed sports, such as acrobatics.

495 From a methodological standpoint, the present findings echo the notion that TC can
496 be measured using different tools (Mohammed et al., 2010). Self-report questionnaires on
497 team cognition, measuring both shared and complementary knowledge, might be useful in
498 advancing knowledge of TC. The degree of similarity (e.g., in-phase coupling) or
499 complementarity (e.g., anti-phase coupling) of physiological responses may also be used as
500 a proxy to understand TC in interactive tasks (Kelso, 2012). Future research should
501 continue to advance this idea by focusing on tasks that allow for the use of position
502 monitoring technology (e.g., GPS, accelerometers) or portable multi-subjects physiological
503 monitoring that can be synchronized in real-time. Furthermore, capturing verbal and non-
504 verbal communication (e.g., verbal, such as voice tone and turn talking; and non-verbal
505 behavior, such as mirroring and mimicry posture) may also yield insight into the
506 understanding of TC. In light of our findings, we highlight the importance of considering
507 the linkage of TC with both “we” (e.g., CE) and “I” factors (e.g., self- and other’s-efficacy),
508 and controlling for such effects.

509 From an applied standpoint, our findings suggest that TC can be developed through
510 myriad ways. Practitioners should promote the development of both shared and
511 complementary models of thinking, while promoting communication skills through both
512 verbal and non-verbal channels. SMM and complementary mental models might be
513 achieved through cross-positional training among teammates (e.g., flyers working as
514 catchers, and catchers working as flyers), the development of pre-performance routines, and

515 the assignment of unique roles to each team member. Active listening (e.g., direct one's
516 attention to the person communicating) and mindfulness (e.g., defer judgment in decoding
517 the message transmitted) training are possible ways to improve communication in
518 cooperative teams. Finally, boosting teammates' self-efficacy and other's efficacy, through
519 goal-setting and modeling, can help not only in the development of CE but also in the
520 enhancement of TC in dyadic acrobatics.

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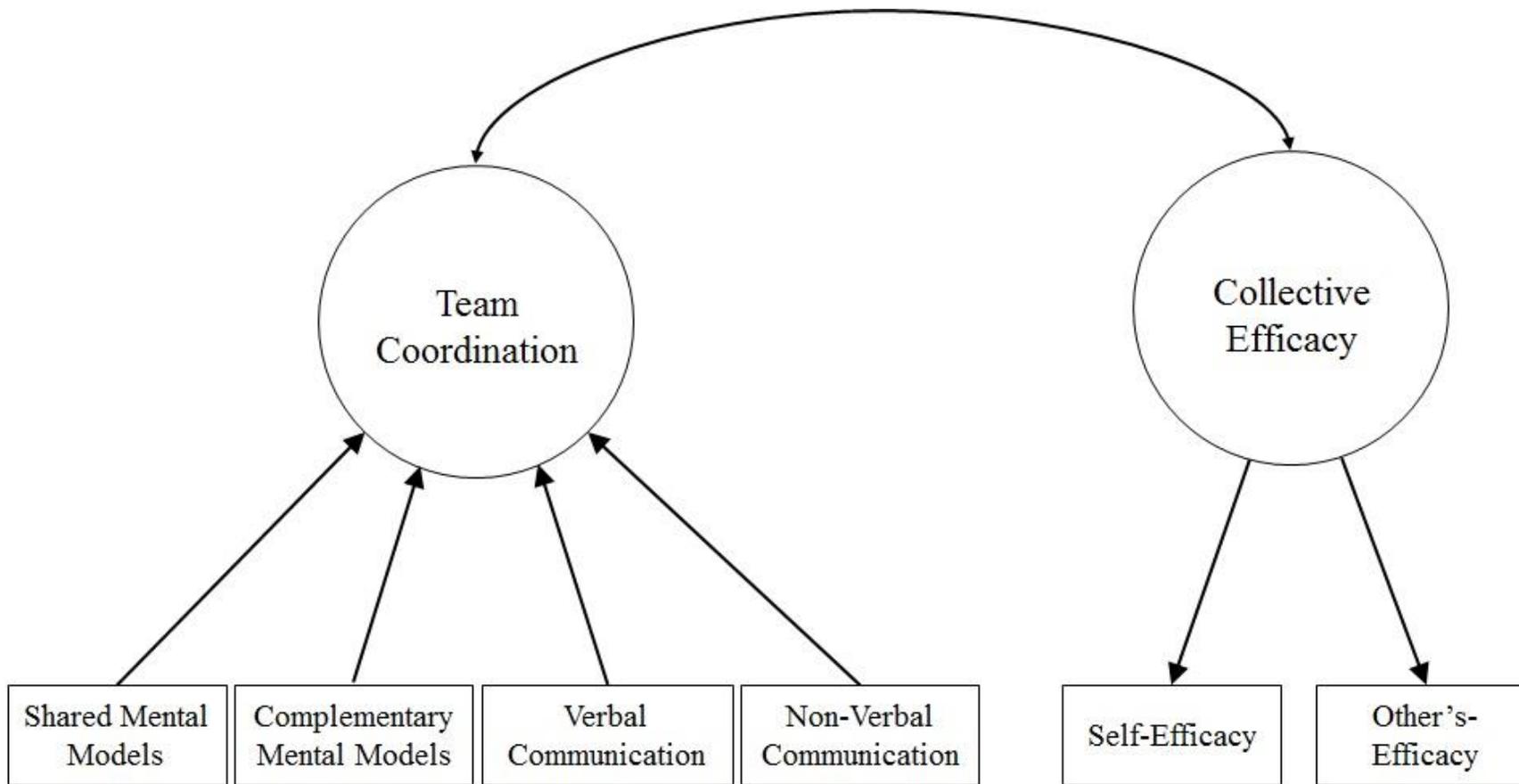
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Figure 1. Formative Sub-themes of Team Coordination and Reflective Sub-themes of Collective Efficacy.

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