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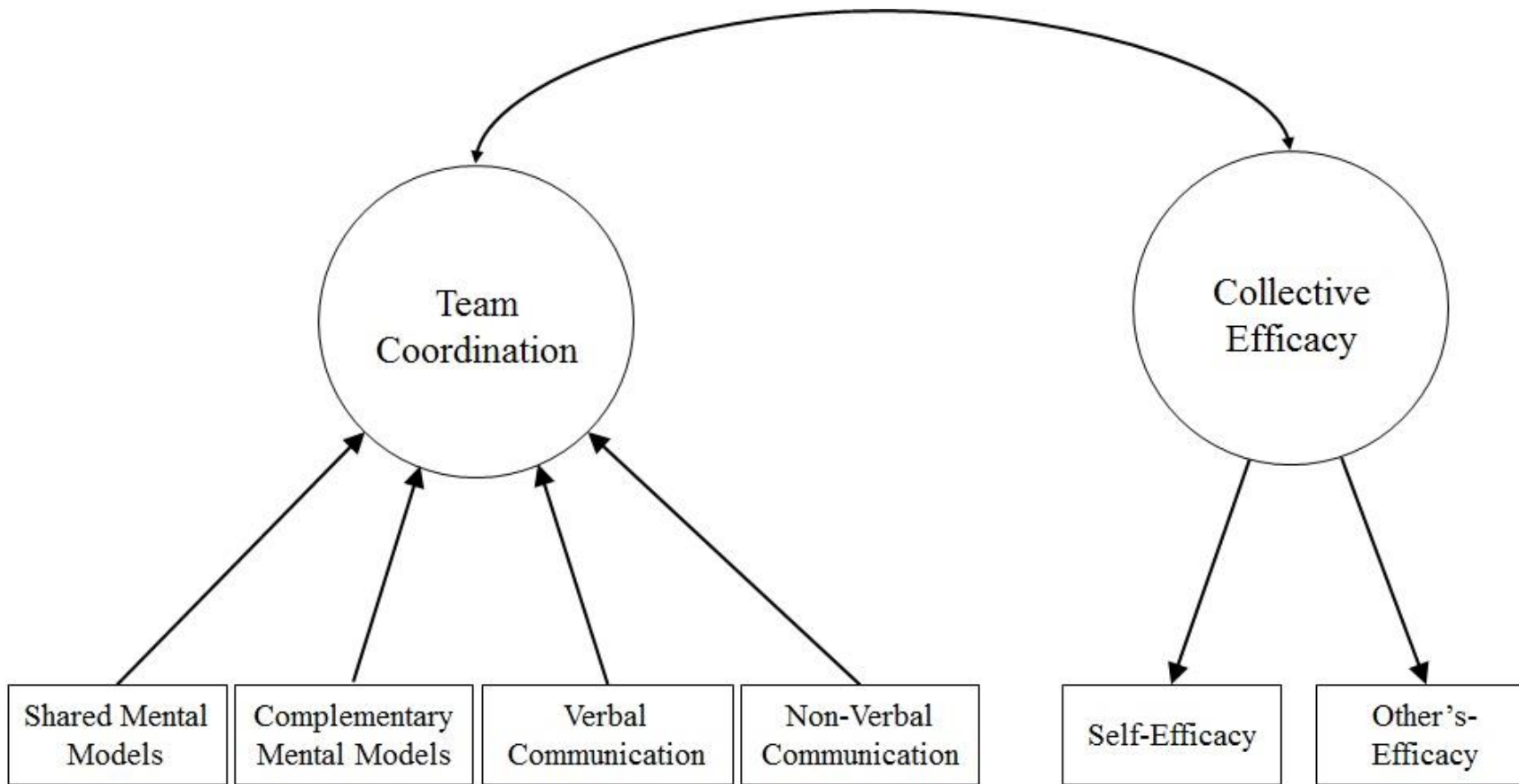
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Figure 1. Formative Sub-themes of Team Coordination and Reflective Sub-themes of Collective Efficacy.

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