The effect of a group’s experience of negotiation on the conformity of the group’s collective memory in a dyadic negotiation situation

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ABSTRACT

This thesis is an inductive study of how collective memory in dyadic i.e. two-party negotiation is affected by the negotiating group’s experience of negotiation. The primary question is: do similarities in negotiators’ collective experiences i.e. their knowledge base and expertise about negotiation affect the conformity of the group’s collective memory of a negotiation situation? In other words, this study seeks an answer to if a group of experienced negotiators recollects a negotiation situation and outcome more alike than non-experienced negotiators. The participants of three different professional groups were first interviewed to assess the group’s level of experience. The three groups, with three to four participants in each, engaged in a role-play, specially designed for this study. A questionnaire was used to collect data on the conformity of the participants’ recollection of the negotiation. The results revealed that a negotiating group’s similar experience level did not coincide with a high conformity of the recollected negotiation. The methodological procedure met the demands of this work, but the process should be developed to allow for less time consuming research on several groups.

**Keywords:** negotiation, group process, collective memory, cognitive recollection, role-play.
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INTRODUCTION

“Problems … don’t get solved by one person telling everyone else how to behave. They’re solved by groups of smart people – who’ve checked their egos at the door – engaged in conversations that arrive at the answers collectively.”

- Beth Zacharias (2002)

Whether it be solving a problem or reaching an agreement, negotiation is a social interaction between two or more parties that meet explicitly to discuss the relationship between them by making joint decisions (Bazerman & Carroll, 1987; Hosking & Morley, 1991, Jönsson, 2002). The literature in the field of negotiation (e.g., Bazerman & Carroll, 1987; Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992; Fisher & Ury, 1981; Hosking & Morley, 1991; Neale & Bazerman 1985; Thompson, 1990b) assumes different definitions of the subject. This implicates a continuing change of perspective in the study of negotiation. For example, Raiffa (1982) associated formal negotiation with the solving of a crisis or conflict situation and viewed negotiation as an alternative to solving problems by open conflict (open argument or even war). A definition by Rubin, Kim and Peretz (1990) stated that in negotiation, two or more parties with some sort of conflict of interest seek to reach an agreement through the exchange of offers and counteroffers. Rubin and Brown (1975, in Thompson 1990b) defined negotiation instead as a process whereby people attempt to settle what each shall give and take, or perform and receive, in a transaction between them, thus giving the definition a barter connotation much used in sales negotiations. Negotiation can, however, involve more than only an exchange of material things or services in a process of bargaining. Hosking and Morley (1991) viewed negotiation as a social phenomenon that takes place whenever groups meet explicitly to discuss the nature of the relationship between them. Also Thompson (1990) assumed that the concept of negotiation could be applied to any social interaction where people strive to accomplish their objectives. To narrow down this broad definition one more definition will be introduced, namely Pruitt’s (1981) definition of negotiation as a process by which two or more interdependent parties with non-identical preferences across decision alternatives make joint decisions, a definition which also Bazerman and Carroll (1987) adopted.

The above definitions reveal that the perspective on negotiation has changed from perceiving negotiation as a means of creating agreement and understanding between opposing
parties, to the use of negotiation in bargaining situations, and finally to any social situation where groups make joint decisions of their mutual relation. In the present work the latter perspective is adopted. Negotiation is viewed in the broad sense of the definition, since the principle perspective of this paper is on organisational psychology and focus of study is on a group of people and the cognitive group processes involved in negotiation.

Negotiation can take place in both formal (e.g. company board meetings) or informal (e.g. coffee brake discussions) social settings, where at least two individuals engage in a process of collective decision-making. This collective process can conveniently be separated into five stages: problem recognition, problem structuring and problem formulation, gathering of relevant information, information evaluation and revision, and finally strategy evaluation (Bazerman & Carroll, 1987). Each of these five stages involves cognitive processes i.e. the processing of knowledge and information. In other words, the decision-making process requires individual negotiators to recollect previous and present information (cognitive recollection), understand it and make sense of it in the present negotiation situation (George, 1979). Prior research on negotiator behavior has shown that negotiators do not succeed in reaching a satisfying agreement since they fail in seeking or providing information of important information, though it may be available to them (Bazerman & Carroll, 1987; Raiffa, 1982; Thompson, 1991). Despite this empirical fact, negotiation involves the sharing and making sense of at least some individual information between negotiators, in order for them to reach a joint decision (Fisher & Ury, 1981).

Thus, the idea presented by amongst others Émile Durkheim and Maurice Halbwachs that human thought and remembering is a social process, is true also in the context of negotiation (Weldon & Bellinger, 1997). To elaborate this, Halbwachs (1992) argued that individual memory is always part of a group memory, since impressions and held facts are, no matter how individual, connected to thoughts that are initially created in a social milieu. When an individual remembers a single thought, that thought is connected to a cluster of ideas and then to a system, which includes ideas and thoughts that appear in the memory of other individuals (Halbwachs, 1992). In negotiation situations, the prior experiences, knowledge, information and conceptions of individual negotiators which, when communicated, become collective (shared) thoughts and recollections, also known as collective memory. Collective memory is per definition the conceptions and knowledge that a group or organisation holds about it’s common past (Egidius, 1997). In negotiation, the “conceptions and knowledge” would refer to the information that
negotiators have about the topic and setting of a negotiation, and the “common past” would refer to the collective experiences of the negotiators involved in the process i.e. shared experiences of the past that affect the present negotiation. A part from a “common past” the negotiators “individual past” i.e. the recollections of individual negotiators that are not shred, may also be reflected in negotiations. Both the individual and common past may have an effect on the process and outcome of negotiations.

During negotiation, the collective memory of the negotiating group is partly created through a process of collective recollection of shared facts and information and partly by sharing of individual information. According to Middleton and Edwards (1990) collective remembering takes place when individuals together distribute the cognitive activity of constructing, reconstructing and rediscovering some end which they could not have achieved independently. Research in this field uses also the terms collective thinking (e.g. Allwood, 1995) and collaborative recall (e.g. Weldon & Bellinger, 1997). In negotiation, collective remembering can be seen as a distributed cognitive activity that takes place when negotiators work together and share their knowledge about a subject in order to arrive at a joint decision. The distinction between collective remembering and collective memory is that the former is an action or process and the latter is an entity or an outcome of a process. In the present work the term collective memory will be used, though focus is both on the outcome and process.

The definition of collective memory is not univocal as researchers and academics use different descriptions and reasoning of the phenomenon (Allwood, 1995; Halbwachs, 1992; Middleton & Edwards, 1990). Both Allwood (1995) and Weldon (2001) make a point in that collective remembering or collective thinking does not have to confound or be exactly identical between individuals. This however, does not apply to collective memory. Where as collective thinking in the broad sense is not conform and similar thinking, but rather a total of the remembering a group performs, collective memory is not the sum of the collective groups’ memories. This is because the total memory of a group includes memories that are alike and ones that are dislike. The dissimilar memories may be perceived simply as individual memories of people. However, dissimilar memories can be shared, and when the information and meaning in them are transferred through dialog and communication from individual A to individual B then dissimilar memories can become collective memory. In negotiation the latent, possible collective memory is constructed in collaboration with co-negotiators. However, the individual memory of negotiators may withhold information, which for some reason is not shared, and thus will not be
part of the collective memory. The present work assumes that in negotiation situations, dissimilar memories become collective memory, if the memories are explicitly communicated between negotiators during the negotiation process. As a joint-decision is favorable in negotiations, it is important that negotiators commonly understand the decision they have negotiated. The memory that an individual negotiator beholds of a negotiation should be so confounding with the memory another negotiator has of that same negotiation, that joint-decision or agreement is possible though some detail of the memories is not alike. In this sense a collective memory, that is confound to the extent that it allows the implementing of an agreement, is advantageous. In the present work, collective memory is seen as a shared memory of phenomena common to a group of individuals and that the shared memory is alike within boundaries that allow the implementing of a joint-decision.

Past research on collective memory has made interesting findings. For example, Weldon and Bellinger (1997) studied whether group recollection was more productive (in terms of the amount of recollected data) than individual memory, and found that when a group collaborated they remembered more than individuals. However, their experiments showed that collaboration could also inhibit group recall, something they called collaborative inhibition and which is consistent with previous studies on dyad recall (Andersson & Rönnberg, 1995, 1996, in Weldon & Bellinger, 1997). Weldon & Bellinger (1997) suggested that collaborative inhibition may be reduced when the individuals of a group where in a long-term intimate or working relationship. According to the authors, it is very likely that collective remembering takes place in a social setting, which influences the style and contents of recall and varies in the purpose of the recollected activity. Their argument is supported by Hosking and Morley (1990) who proposed that collective memory depends on the way people talk collectively, which in return depends on the interpretative practices (meaning to explain and understand on one's own) of the group the negotiators belong to. In other words, the groups composition has an effect on the process and outcome of collective memory. In the context of negotiation, it is interesting to find out whether or not the factors, for example group membership and social setting, affect collective memory in negotiation.

Research on whether experience improves negotiators’ abilities to reach mutually beneficial outcomes has concluded that experience can improve negotiation performance (Bazerman, Magliozzi & Neale, 1985; Thompson, 1990a). Hosking and Morley (1991) argued that any effective social action would require the actors to have a suitable knowledge base, which
is encoded in suitably organised evaluative beliefs. The effect in negotiation would be, according to the authors, that expertise in a particular domain would give the negotiators an advantage in seeing a position as similar to one they have seen before and therefore able to see threats and opportunities not seen by others. In other words, experience and a common knowledge base are individual traits that affect the process and outcome of negotiation, but do these traits affect group performance if all negotiators share a similar experience and knowledge base?

This essay is an inductive study of collective memory in negotiations. The primary goal of this study is to establish an understanding on how collective memory in dyadic negotiation is affected by the negotiating group’s knowledge base and expertise in negotiation techniques. Several authors have made remarks on the relationship between group performance and collective memory. Vygotskij (1978) claimed that human interaction in a social setting is mediated, meaning that human actions depend on both technical and psychological tools that are used in social interaction, one of them being negotiation. Members of a group differ from one another in their behaviour if they do not have the same skills and cognitive backgrounds. Halbwachs (1992) argued that when an individual enters a certain profession, s/he learns to apply certain social rules of the working milieu, which resembles the collective memory of the professional group. In the context of negotiation, the assumption would be that a professional group has a special knowledge base and collective practices particular to that profession. Professional groups here, refer to a group or organisation that has experience of social interaction with each other and their professional working environment. Collective practices refer to an established way for a group of people to interact, communicate with each other and make decisions. (Janis and Mann (1977) called this “groupthink”, but even the term “dominant logic” has been used by Prahalad and Bettis (1986).) Bartlett (1995) claimed that a group’s culture serves as a framework for reconstructing memories and events. For example, if one group has an established group culture that differs from another group’s, then the individuals of these groups may behave differently in negotiation, because they have different cognitive backgrounds. To sum up, if a group has a high skill level and past experience in negotiation and if the group members use it in their negotiation behaviour, decision making and reasoning, then it is possible that the groups’ negotiation technique could aid in collective thinking and creating a collective memory. In the present work, it is of interest to compare a group with similar expertise in negotiation and a group with non-similar expertise in negotiation and to study if this would influence the collective memory. The overall research questions are: how does the group’s
Negotiation and collective memory

experience of negotiating affect the process and outcome and what is the effect on the collective
memory; do negotiators with more experience create a collective memory that has more
conformity i.e. is similar and not deviating, compared with groups with less experience; or does
the experience of a group have no effect on the collective memory?

The secondary goal of this study is to contribute to the development of the methods for
studying negotiation with the help of role-play. The research design of this study is presented
below. The adoption of cognitive models in negotiation research has become more common
today, where as in the past economic models dominated negotiation research (Bazerman &
Carroll, 1987). According to Raiffa (1982) the economic models relied on human rationality and
focused on two outcome variables: agreement and efficiency of agreement, or Pareto optimality
(the best solution or agreement, within a given frame of possibilities, that maximises the utility of
the negotiating parts). These rational, normative models have not been able to describe
negotiations extensively, because research on human decision-making has provided evidence that
individuals are not always rational and often fail to reach a mutually beneficial agreement despite
predetermined possibilities for agreement (Bazerman et al., 1985; Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992).
Psychologists have therefore formed models that account for human irrationality and inability to
follow the most beneficial outcome.

Psychology researchers saw a possibility of integration between the normative and
descriptive approaches by defining negotiation as a decision-making process (Bazerman &
Carroll, 1987, Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992). Bazerman and Carroll (1987) were among many that
provided a cognitive perspective on negotiation, taking into account what affects negotiator
cognition and how cognition affects behaviour, information processing or decision-making. In
their negotiation model, each negotiator is a decision-maker, and the behaviours of each
negotiator are “seen as choices based on judgements about the negotiation situation” (p. 249,
Bazerman & Carroll, 1987). In the model shown in Figure 1 (from Bazerman & Carroll, 1987),
“structure” refers to human experience, organised into knowledge structures, that negotiators use
to understand and respond to the world around them. The dotted lines leading from one
negotiator’s behaviour to the others’ cognition refer to possible sequences of interaction over
time during negotiation. The authors argue that “the impacts of personality, expertise, and
features of the situation are mediated by the judgements negotiators make during the negotiation
process” (p. 249, Bazerman & Carroll, 1987). They even suggest that the model in Figure 1
should not be used only for decision making but also for cognitive patterns that are created by
the negotiation context in general. Thus, this cognitive model can be applied to the study of collective memory in negotiations and it will be used as a framework to structure the results of this study.

![Diagram of a cognitive negotiation model](image)

Figure 1. A cognitive negotiation model which depicts the course of effect on negotiator cognition and behavior (Bazerman & Carroll, 1987, p. 249).

The methodological choices in this work have been made with reference to the explorative nature of this study, since the study of collective memory in negotiation is a relatively unexplored field. The present work has relied mainly on participatory research methods in the form of deep interviews and role-play, but includes also other methods such as a questionnaire. The choice of method also follows the argument of Hosking and Morley (1991, p. 160) that “empirical research [in negotiation research] has not… provided a useful model of the process of communication in negotiation because… communication has been treated simply as a series of strategic moves rather than a series of messages and meanings”. This methodological argument coincides with the definition of negotiation that it is not just a series of offers and counter offers, but as a social phenomenon that involves groups that discuss the nature of their mutual relationship.

The overall method used here can be divided into three phases: selective-sampling, role-play, and questionnaire. The study was initiated with a selective sampling of research participants through interviews and a questionnaire to assess the participants’ backgrounds (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister & Zechmeister, 1999). The interviewing of participants was a means to ensure the right selection of participants for the research, because the independent variable in this work is the negotiation experience and knowledge that the participants in each experiment group had. The study required groups with different levels of experience and knowledge in negotiation.
Groups were to be composed of individuals with either a similar knowledge base and experience of negotiation, or a dissimilar knowledge base and experience of negotiation. The individuals of the groups had to, however, be familiar with each other, i.e. be in a long term working relations, so that group recall would not be inhibited as suggested by Weldon and Bellinger (1997). For the procedure of assessing the knowledge base of participants see Method – Procedure.

After successful sampling of participants for each group, the role-play was conducted. Role-play can be used to stimulate a social episode or social situation that otherwise may not be studied (Yardley, 1995). For example, empirical negotiations might be of such nature that the information is too private and the subjects unwilling, that is, that participatory research is not possible. To justify the choice of role-play in this second phase of the study, some background reasons will be presented next. Negotiation research within psychology has mainly been conducted in strict laboratory settings to test a few variables at a time (Bazerman & Carroll, 1987; Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992; Greenberg, 1987; Greenhalgh & Gilkey, 1985; Neale & Bazerman, 1985; Pruitt & Syna, 1985; Thompson, 1990). These research results have enlightened the cognitive, personal and motivational aspects of negotiation. They do not, however, place the empirical research in real social settings, whether informal or professional, nor do they present working models to explain the process of communication in negotiation. Hosking and Morley (1991) argued that the empirical research methods used have given little room for a process in which “collective cognitive images are created and changed until the participants find a solution, which makes collective sense” (p. 161). The authors suggest the use of role-playing or negotiation simulations, so that the experiment is as life-like as possible. Collective memory is according to theory (Weldon, 2001) created through communication and therefore the participants should be given the freedom to communicate freely. Also, Öberg (1995) argued that communication is much more complex in negotiation situations and should therefore be examined as a whole and not as short, static individual offers and counteroffers. Thus, role-play was chosen here as the participatory method by which the negotiation process would be enacted. Role-play also secured that the information given to the participants was known to the researcher, and that the researcher knew what the participants’ memory was from start and what was make believe. Through these measures collective memory could be separated from individual memory. In the present research, the role-play was designed to allow the researcher to study the relevant object, that is, the people and their group behavior and, most importantly, their collective memory.
The role-play case was designed to imitate negotiation situations. To do this several basic criteria on negotiation were examined and included in the case. For the first, the case had to follow some basic parameters of negotiation which are within or between negotiation, dyadic or multiparty negotiation, monolithic negotiation, and explicit bargaining or matrix games (Thompson, 1990). In the professional fields of social interaction such as businesses and politics, negotiation often takes place both within and between organizations. When people work together they communicate ideas, thoughts, and social rules with each other, thus forming the organization they work in. This is negotiation within an organization or internal negotiation (Hosking and Morley, 1991). In the context of organization-to-organization interaction two or more organizations negotiate the structure and order of their mutual activity and the negotiation takes place between the organizations. The present case was set up as an internal negotiation within an organization.

Negotiation can also be defined depending on whether it is dyadic or monolithic. Dyadic negotiation takes place between two parties. The parties themselves can be constituted of several people but all are expected to share the preferences of this party. Multiparty negotiations involve more than two parties, and are thus experienced to be more complex since the joint decision made takes into account several preferences (Bazerman, Curhan, Moore & Valley, 2000; Jönsson, 2002; Lindell, 1988). The case here was created as a dyadic negotiation to facilitate for the participants and for the analysis, but the negotiating parties were composed of two co-negotiators in each party.

Monolithic negotiation involves parties that can make decisions on their own i.e. they do not have to return to their principal to assure decision. The role-play was designed as monolithic in order to facilitate decision-making and closure during the role-play. The last parameter, explicit bargaining, can be contrasted with matrix games. In explicit bargaining the parties or negotiators have an open possibility to find out the others position. In matrix games such as the Prisoners dilemma the opposing sides have no possibility of finding out what the other thinks (Raiffa, 1982). The role-play was designed as explicit bargaining, since open communication was intended and group interaction was a preference in this work.

Besides these parameters a negotiation situation has according to Thompson (1990) five specific characteristics. First, people should believe that they have conflicting interests, otherwise they would not choose to negotiate but instead make decisions directly. Second, communication of some kind, tacit or implicit, has to be possible or otherwise negotiators can not exchange
information. Third, intermediate solutions or compromises are possible. Fourth, parties make provisional offers and counter offers. Fifth, offers and proposals do not determine outcomes until both parties accept them. These characteristics were built in the case and also monitored during the role-play.

The third phase of the research was to conduct and administrate a questionnaire to capture the phenomenon of collective memory. Collective memory can be examined from two perspectives, the outcome or the process. Weldon (2001) suggests that collective memory could be defined in terms of the behavior of the group and thus to treat the group outcome as the unit of analysis. To understand the outcome of negotiation the possible outcomes will be reviewed. Negotiation outcomes may, according to Carnevale and Pruitt (1992), be following: (1) no agreement, that is the negotiators decide on not altering the situation prior to negotiation; (2) victory for one party, meaning the outcome is clearly more beneficial to one party; (3) a simple compromise, which is a decision done in middle ground which is not beneficial nor harmful to either part; or (4) a win-win agreement, that is an integrative agreement that gives both parties a higher joint benefit in comparison to the compromise agreement. Besides these four outcomes a possibility of a loose-loose, where both parties decide on a mutually unfavorable decision situation, should be considered. The outcome of collective memory is however more than the negotiation outcome, since it includes not only the resolution but also the whole process of the negotiation. Thus, in order to gather information relevant for this study, the dependent variable in this work is the conformity (amount and accuracy) of the groups’ collective memory after performing the negotiation case. The negotiators’ description of what they recollect afterwards can be perceived as the collective memory of the negotiators. The conformity of collective memory is the variable which points out to how much the group recalls collectively and if this is affected by the groups expertise in negotiation. A questionnaire was used as a tool to capture the participants’ memory, including recall of the process and the outcome of the role-play negotiation. The role-play and the questionnaire were used as a means to carry out controlled research with a simulated negotiation without isolating a social phenomenon and human interaction completely but instead set it into a manageable framework. The extent, to which this framework and research design is beneficial respective unbenefficial, will be commented on below.
METHOD

Participants

When selecting participants for this study it was important to find people from organizations where the co-workers had either similar or non-similar skills in negotiation (the independent variable). Thus, as already noted the sampling in this study resembles purposive sampling, i.e. participants were selected on the basis of certain desired characteristics (Schaugnessy et al. 1999). Three case study groups (named alpha, beta and gamma) were selected from different professions and organizations. Participants of one of the groups were selected from the same company or organization, which the researcher had prior contact with and had easy access to. The selection variables for the participants were age (ages between 25-55 years), nationality (Swedish), education (at least senior high school, Swedish “gymnasium”) and working experience in present organization (minimum of one year in the present organization). Each group was composed so that these classification variable requirements were met. To avoid conducting interviews in vain the classification variables were controlled prior to interviewing.

The alpha group was composed of three men, all Swedish, and in the ages between 28 and 33 years. All participants of the alpha group had at least a senior high school education and had prior experience of working in some other organization before joining the present organization. They had a minimum of one year of experience of working together in the present organization. All alpha group members had special professional training by which they had learnt a special negotiation technique used by the entire organization. The group members had been trained prior to starting in the organization and had been required to master this negotiation technique. According to the alpha group members they used this technique in everyday external work situations and even at internal negotiation situations. The negotiation technique used by the alpha group participants is not reviewed here, since the goal of this study is not to test a specific negotiation technique against another, but whether or not a similar technique, seen as a common collective memory, affects the negotiation process and outcome. The assessment made after interviewing the participants is that alpha group members had a similar expertise in negotiation due to their similar education in negotiation. The research was planned for four participants but only three participated for the alpha group.

The beta group was composed of three men and one woman, in the ages between 30 and 53 years. All of the participants of beta group were Swedish and had at least senior high school
education. They had worked together a minimum of one year in the same organization. The beta group participants had not undergone unanimous negotiation training. Instead, the group members had different experiences from negotiation. They had either been trained in negotiation techniques or had experience of negotiation from previous engagements. Also they had different professional backgrounds and prior experience of working in different organizations. Three of the participants of the beta group had worked together before in other organizations. The group members engaged in negotiation in their everyday work. However, according to the interview answers of the pre-study they had a similar understanding of negotiation but they used different negotiation techniques in work situations. The assessment made after interviewing beta group members is that they had a dissimilar knowledge base and experience of negotiation, in other words they used individual techniques in negotiation.

The **gamma group** was composed of two men and two women, in the ages between 30 and 36 years. All participants were Swedish and had at least a senior high school education. Participants of the gamma group had a similar professional training, which for example includes conversation training used in everyday work situations. The gamma group members had a minimum of one year of experience working together in the same organization. The participants of the gamma group defined negotiation similarly but used slightly different techniques in negotiation situations. The assessment done with the help of a questionnaire was that gamma group members had a dissimilar knowledge base and experience of negotiation, but similar experience and knowledge of conversation techniques. In the context of using a broad definition of negotiation, the gamma groups’ conversation technique is perceived as a “negotiation technique”. As a result, the overall assessment was that the gamma group had a similar negotiation technique, which was not similar to alpha groups negotiation technique.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Gamma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technique consultant</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33 years</td>
<td>53 years</td>
<td>31 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>N/A</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>31 years</td>
<td>30 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logistics consultant</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28 years</td>
<td>31 years</td>
<td>36 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemistry consultant</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29 years</td>
<td>30 years</td>
<td>32 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 2. A presentation of the roles and classification variables (age and sex) of participants in groups alpha, beta and gamma.

The participants in each experiment group were assigned an individual role in the negotiation role-play (see Materials and Procedure sections, below). The roles that the participants played are presented in Figure 2, above, together with the classification variables age and sex.

Materials

Interview guide and questionnaire
The primary goal of the interviews and questionnaire was to chart the participants’ backgrounds concerning the classification variables (age, sex, nationality, education and work experience) and the independent variable (experience of negotiation). See the Appendix 1 A and 1 B for the full interview guide and questionnaire. Since the participants were Swedish nationals with Swedish mother tongue, the interview guide was in Swedish. The English version of the interview guide was translated only for the purposes of this essay. Any differences between the two are due to translation errors. The interview guide was used for the alpha and beta group, while the gamma group answered the questionnaire.

The interview guide and questionnaire were designed as a semi-structured interview with open-ended questions starting with neutral questions, such as working experience, and funneling to more complex questions, such as the participants’ subjective experience of negotiation (Smith, 1995). All questions were designed with follow-up questions to probe for interesting areas or to be used if the respondent did not answer the questions directly. The opening questions aimed to learn about the subjects’ educational and professional background and to serve also as easy, non-performance questions to establish a sense of trust between the interviewer and the respondent, as suggested by Smith (1995). The respondents’ answer to defining the concept of negotiation was controlled with a follow-up question. The respondents were asked to give an example of a negotiation situation and in this way make sure that the participants’ understanding and use of the concept matched the definition used in this study, in an effort to assure reliability of the studied phenomenon. The multiple questions on “problem situations” in negotiation aimed at finding out if the subject used possible negotiation techniques i.e. a pre-learned way of coping
with different situations in negotiation. The last questions were easier opinion questions on positive and negative negotiator traits. Answers to these questions related to the “problem situation” questions and controlled that the conduct of the respondent in “problem situations” lined up with his/her opinions on negotiator traits.

**Negotiation case and post role-play questionnaire**

The negotiation case for the role-play was specifically designed and written for this work by the author. Inspiration for designing the case comes from Harvard Law School Negotiation Cases used at course PSY222 at the Institution for Psychology, Lund University. The negotiation case was based on several basic negotiation parameters and characteristics, which have been accounted for in the introduction. The negotiation case was designed to be a dyadic negotiation with four individuals (two against two). All roles had monolithic status i.e. the issue could be solved without going back to a third part. The negotiation case included only one main issue but with different possible outcomes. The possible outcomes of the negotiation are presented below. The case material included the role-play instructions, the case description, and the individual role information. All materials were written in Swedish in order to match the participants’ mother tongue. For the case material see Appendix 3 A to D. The aim of the case situation was not to include information unique to any of the experiment groups, so that no group would be favored before another. Instead information relevant and familiar to the participants was included.

The negotiation case was a problem-solving situation in a formal setting at a make-believe consultant company in recycling called ServiceMix AB. The case description informed the participants about the company, its’ products, the market, and the organization of work. The situation that the participants’ faced was that they sat in the board for the companies recreation club called AfterEight (translated from the Swedish “EfterÅtta”), which had five members: an HR-manager, an office manager and three consultants. The company’s management, interested in team sports, had distributed SEK 100 000 to be freely disposed by the recreation club. According to a vote done amongst the employees the club’s board would now choose between two main alternatives, attending dragon boat contests or a one-week ski vacation, and a compromise, a weekend cruise to Oslo. The management’s only demand was that the final decision would support team spirit and solidarity. At the present the club’s board had not agreed to a solution and therefore had to meet. Due to a time limit the AfterEight club had to come to a
decision during the scheduled meeting. However, one of the clubs members, the HR-manager could not attend. Instead he had left a written proposal supporting the Oslo cruise, as it was the most democratic. He could however support any other democratic solution that encouraged team spirit. The HR-manager also asked for a report that could be presented to the company’s management.

The participants’ individual role information stated the alternative that they supported and gave motives for their opinions. The strategic situation was dyadic meaning that the Technique consultant and the Office manager supported the dragon boat contests, where as the Logistics consultant and the Chemistry consultant supported the ski vacation. Figure 3 below depicts the initial negotiation setting. The roles had however individual opinions about the alternatives. The Technique consultant (A1) was active in the recreations club’s dragon boat team and supported the dragon boat contest. The Office manager (A2) liked skiing, but was afraid that s/he would have to stay at the office during the vacation and therefore supported the dragon boat contest. The Logistics consultant (B1) has been active in arranging previous ski vacations and supported primarily the ski alternative, but s/he could propose the Oslo cruise as a compromise. The Chemistry consultant (B2) had positive experience from prior ski vacations and thus supported the alternative, but s/he could also see the Oslo cruise as a good alternative.

Figure 3. A depiction of the initial negotiation situation with the individual roles and the alternatives they support.

The possible outcomes of the negotiation were as follows. The participants could decide on (1) the dragon boat contest and nothing else, or (2) the ski vacation and nothing else, or decide on (3) the compromise Oslo cruise and nothing else. A possible outcome could also be different combinations of all three alternatives (a win-win situation). Possible win-win situations were outcomes that combined all three alternatives (1, 2, and 3) or a combined only two of the
three alternatives (1 and 2, or 1 and 3, or 2 and 3). The negotiation could also end in a stalemate situation, in other words no decision and broken negotiation (a loose-loose situation).

The questionnaire after the role-play was designed to gather data of the participants’ collective memory after the negotiation. The questionnaire was part of the role-play i.e. the participants gave a written description of the negotiation to an imaginary fifth subject, the HR manager, who was responsible for reporting to ServiceMix management. The questions were designed to logically follow the process of any general negotiation situation. The questions concerned: (1) the purpose of the meeting, (2) the goal of the meeting, (3) the subjects discussed, (4) the agenda or order of subjects discussed, (5) what decisions were made, (6) how the meeting ended, and (7) the atmosphere of the meeting. For the Questionnaire see the Appendix 3 D.

Procedure

Participant assessment

As soon as the research theme and the initial planning was done the organizations were contacted for interest of taking part in the study. First, one person from each of the three organizations was contacted and the research topic was presented without revealing the research goal. Then with the help of the contact person the other three participants were selected and then interviewed to assess their knowledge base and experience of negotiation. In the alpha group four participants were interviewed, but one of them dropped out.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with all the representatives of both alpha and beta group at their work place or homes. The interview guide was followed in all interviews to avoid interviewer bias. All interviews with the alpha and the beta group participants were recorded, so that the interviews could be listened to again and thus to gain reliability in later data analysis and also to avoid interviewer bias (Shaughnessy et al, 1999).

Instead of being interviewed, the gamma group filled in a questionnaire corresponding to the interview guide. This was due to problems in scheduling interviews with the gamma group’s participants in time before administering the negotiation role-play. Thus the questionnaire was sent by e-mail to the participants. They were asked to fill it out send it back to the researcher. It is possible that the questionnaire was not as comprehensive as the interviews in finding out the gamma group’s participants prior knowledge of negotiation, since the responsibility to answer
extensively was left to the participants. Despite this the gamma groups level of experience could be assessed, which was the primary goal of the pre role-play questionnaire.

**Role-play**

All the role-plays were conducted as follows. First the role-play instructions were given out and the experiment leader read them aloud. For the Instructions see the Appendix. Besides these instructions the participants were encouraged to use their own negotiation techniques in the role-play. Then the four roles were assigned to the participants and the case description and specific role information were distributed. The participants had a limited time of 15 minutes to read through the material. The participants were allowed to use and go back to the case material even during the role-play, so that individual memory would not be an explanation to the resulting collective memory after the negotiation. After reading the case description the participants engaged in a two-by-two negotiation between roles A1 and A2, B1 and B2, the time limit again being 15 minutes. During this time the participants could ask questions from the experiment leader. The experiment leader answered only by repeating the instructions or information from the case material.

The internal negotiations (negotiation within a group) were conducted under the experiment leaders’ supervision, that also included monitoring of the time, limiting it to one hour. All role-plays were tape-recorded. The only exception in the role-play procedure was the alpha group, where only three members of four could attend. The role-play was conducted as above but one of the participants received the individual role information of both Technique consultant and Office manager (A1 and A2). Due to the resources invested in the experiment the results of this group were included in the report, but results have been analyzed with subject loss in mind.

After the negotiation, the experiment leader gave new instructions before administering the questionnaire. The questionnaire, found in Appendix 3 D, was distributed to the participants who were asked to follow the instructions given on the questionnaire. The questionnaire included a note from the HR asking for a description of the negotiation. The time limit for filling out the questionnaire was 30 minutes. The participants were debriefed about the role-play and the research question after filling out the questionnaire. The participants could freely ventilate
about the role-play and unwind from their roles. They were encouraged to comment on their performance, the negotiation case and the research. Also the debriefing was recorded.

Preliminary data analysis

After conducting all the role-plays the tape recordings were transcripted from tape to text. Transcription was done as easy and manageable as possible, according to basic transcription principles reviewed by O’Connel and Kowal (1995). The goal of transcription was to allow comparison between the case information and the participants’ self-produced arguments during the negotiation. Transcription focused only on the spoken communication and did not mark for any specific linguistics, pronunciation, facial expressions or gestures. However, overlapping speech, pauses, broken words and unclear speech were marked, so that it was apparent which information, if any, was left out (Drew, 1995). The transcripts were used to analyze the role-play negotiations concerning the negotiation process (opening statements and positions, definitions of problem, negotiator behavior, information seeking, provisional offers and counteroffers, and outcome).

All questionnaire answers were revised for comparative analysis of the participants’ collective memory within a group and between the participating groups. The questionnaire answers were transferred from the answer sheets to an Excel work sheet, one experiment groups’ answers per work sheet. Then answers to each question were grouped together. Thereafter each individual answer was separated into information entities, or thoughts that could stand alone as an answer to each question. Each information entity was matched with the other entities in the same group of answers resulting in units ranging from a minimum of two matched entities (e.g. two matching entities A1 and B1) to a maximum of four matched entities (e.g. four matching entities A1, A2, B1 and B2). Matching information entities depicted conformity in the memories of the participants. These results were treated in nominal scale, since entities were seen as either matching or not. Also, a unit of matched entities could never have two entities from the same participants (e.g. A1 and A1 not possible), since each entity represented a statement that could stand for itself in comparison to other statements and thus be matched only with other statements of its kind. In order to summarize and compare the results, the units were weighted as follows. A unit of two entities was multiplied with 0,50 and a unit of three entities with 0,75 and a unit of four entities with 1,00. As an example, for any answer a group could have two different
units of matched entities, one unit with three matching entities (A1, B1, B2) and one unit with two matching entities (A1, B1). These were weighted by calculating $3 \times 0.75$ for the first unit and $2 \times 0.50$ for the second. The sum of this calculation and thus the conformity of collective memory in that answer would be: $3 \times 0.75 + 2 \times 0.50 = 3.25$. (For a distinct explanation of the results, see Results – The conformity of the collective memory.) To compensate for the drop out in alpha group the results of this group were multiplied with $0.75$ for units with two matching entities ($2 \times 0.75$) and with $1.00$ for units with three matching entities ($3 \times 1.00$). This allowed comparison of the results between all groups despite the drop out in alpha group.

The overall interpretation of the answers to entities and matching of these entities, may have been a source of experimenter bias. To avoid bias, the coding and matching process was done twice on two different work sheets at different occasions. The two work sheets were compared and the assessments were corrected if any differences were found. The procedure led to correcting changes and should have increased the reliability of the analyses.

**RESULTS**

*Conformity of the collective memory*

The aim of the analysis was to assess the conformity of the groups’ collective memory after the negotiation role-play. The results were first analyzed concerning the similarity of the collective memory within each group. The calculations for the weighted conformity of the answers of each group are presented in the Table 1 below. The total conformity (last row in Table 1) stands for the sum of the weighted conformities of each question (numbers to the right in each column). Thus, the total conformity is a numeric depiction of the conformity of the group’s answers. The table also reveals which participants (or role-play roles) had matching entities in their answers. Matching entities are marked by grouped role identifications (A1, A2, B1, B2). For example ”A1,A2” means that these participants had matching entities in their answer. For each answer, the same two participants could have several units composed of matched entities of other statements. The highest possible grouping was when entities of all participants matched, a unit marked “A1,A2,B1,B2” (or “A2,B1,B2” for alpha group). The results of each group are explained below.

The alpha group had a total conformity of 27.00. The alpha groups’ highest conformity score was for question 4 – the agenda of the meeting. The high score for this question could be
explained partly by the fact that there were several points on the groups’ agenda and thus the amount of matching entities was more than to a question answered with only a few words. The participants B1 and B2 had most matching entities - all together seven, distributed evenly over questions. It is interesting to point out that their answers to questions 1 and 2 were nearly worded alike. These two questions concerned the purpose and the goal of the negotiation. At five occasions (questions 3, 5, 6, and 7) all the participants had a similar entity in their answer.

The beta group had a total conformity of 35,75. Like the alpha group, the beta group had the highest conformity score for question 4 – the agenda of the meeting. Also here the high score for question 4 should be explained partly by the length of the answers, which resulted in several possible matching entities. On six occasions the matched entities accounted for all the four participants, and on three occasions they accounted for three participants. All other possible groupings of entities, such as A2,B1 varied across the questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q</th>
<th>Alpha group Matching entities</th>
<th>Conformity</th>
<th>Beta group Matching entities</th>
<th>Conformity</th>
<th>Gamma group Matching entities</th>
<th>Conformity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>B1,B2</td>
<td>1,50</td>
<td>A1,A2,B1,B2,B2</td>
<td>5,00</td>
<td>A1,A2</td>
<td>2,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>B1,B2</td>
<td>1,50</td>
<td>A2,B1,B2</td>
<td>2,25</td>
<td>A1,A2,B1,B2</td>
<td>4,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>A2,B1,B2,B1,B2</td>
<td>3,00</td>
<td>A1,A2,B1,B2,B2</td>
<td>2,00</td>
<td>A1,A2,B1,B2,B2,A2,B1,B2,A1,A2</td>
<td>2,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total conformity | 27,00 | Total conformity | 35,75 | Total conformity | 25,00 |

The gamma group had a total conformity of 25,00. The gamma group had the highest conformity score for questions 3 and 4. Also here the high score for these questions can partly
be explained by the length of the answers, thus resulting in several possible matching entities. At only one occasion (question 2) all the participants had a matching entity. The unit A1,B1,B2 was most frequent, appearing at four different occasions. Besides these units the participants A1 and A2 had matching entities at four occasions and the participants A2 and B1 had three matching entities.

The comparison between the groups (see Figure 4, below) reveals that in total the beta group had the highest conformity in their answers, followed by the alpha group and then the gamma group (35,75>27,00>25,00 as can be interpreted from Table 1). The conformity of the beta groups answers was exceptionally high (interpreted as high blocks in the block chart) for questions number 1, 4, 5, and 6, while gamma group had a higher conformity for questions 2 and 3. The conformity of alpha groups’ answers was highest in comparison only for questions 3 and 7.

Figure 4. A comparison of the weighted results of the conformity of all group’s answers. The blocks for each question show from left to right the results of the alpha, beta and gamma groups.
Collective memory as a process

The figure (Figure 1) presented in the introduction can be used to explain the process of creating a collective memory in negotiation. Presented below, in Figure 5, is a modified version of the same model. In this modified negotiation model the personality, prior experiences and motives of individual negotiators is seen as three important variables that affect the negotiators cognitions and thus behavior. Also communication is lifted as an important variable that has an effect on the co-negotiators cognitions during negotiation. Communication is also important in this model, since the individual memories of negotiators are perceived to be communicated explicitly during negotiation, so that in the outcome of negotiation, a collective memory prevails. The Figure 5, below, is used as a frame in the analysis of the negotiation role-play processes.

![Figure 5. A cognitive negotiation model to explain the relationship between collective memory and negotiator cognitions.](image)

The analysis of the results of the transcriptions and the case information reveals that the participants used both the information from the case but also self-produced information. All groups used the case information extensively (remember that the case materials were available to the participants during the role-play). Participants could actively look for information instead of memorizing it. Despite this, participants did produce own information, in other words make-believe information. The participants reacted differently to the case information and the self-produced information. The information from the case description was accepted, when brought up during the role-play. At times when participants did not agree to case information they could always control with the case description during the negotiation. The self-produced information
that the participants fabricated was often information in their favor. On one hand, some of the self-produced information was total make-believe, in the framework of the role-play. For example, the participants could imagine a co-worker, which they referred to in their arguments. This occurred in all groups and was accepted by the participants as a means to go forth in negotiation. On the other hand, some of the self-produced information was the participants’ own reasoning, seemingly unrelated to motivational interest, which may have been based on the case information or on previous experience other than negotiation. For example groups could discuss arguments such as “finding a balance between work and leisure” and “we should not invade our co-workers’ personal lives”. These arguments were most likely made to support the motives of the individual role description and were thus part of the negotiators’ strategy. Besides this, they may have been perceived as reasonable arguments and thus accepted. Some of the self-produced information was similar in two groups or even in all three groups. The groups had several similar arguments that were the same. For example, all groups had an argument for the ski vacation, that the co-workers could do individual activities at the ski resort during the day, but in the evening they could find time for team activities. Also all groups had a similar argument against the dragon boat contest as they saw several contests during summer as an invasion on leisure time.

**DISCUSSION**

The primary aim of this work was the inductive goal to study collective memory in negotiation. The question addressed was whether or not the collective memory of negotiators would conform more if negotiators had similar negotiation experience. In the context of this study, it has to be concluded that the conformity of collective memory was not greater in the groups with a similar negotiation experience (both alpha and gamma group) but instead in the diversified group (beta group). One possible explanation is that the results reflect the nature of the relationship between negotiation experience and collective memory. In other words negotiation experience does not have a positive effect the conformity of collective memory. Though negotiator experience in the sense of the negotiation skills benefits integrative negotiations (win-win negotiations) according to Thompson (1990), this is not true for the degree of conformity of collective memory. However, experience of the co-negotiator and opponent, or familiarity which Thompson (1990) found beneficial for negotiation outcome, might have had a positive affect even on conformity.
of collective memory. This is seen in the comparatively higher total conformity of beta group. Three of beta group participants had worked together for a longer time at other organisations prior to the present one, than participants of the other groups. This prior experience and a familiarity with one another may to some extent explain the results and thus reveal an uncontrolled variable – extent of familiarity of a negotiating group. It is important to point out that these conclusions and suggestions are not statistically grounded, and thus further relevant research is needed in order to confirm the relationship between the phenomena negotiation experience and collective memory.

Another possible explanation for differences in conformity of the groups’ collective memories may have been caused by uncontrolled variables, such as the use of a summary. Hosking and Morley (1990) proposed that if negotiators should achieve a collective agreement then they should agree on a negotiation summary (an agreed recollection of the situation) telling them what has happened and why. All the groups were encouraged twice in the instructions of the role-play to decide together on a report, but only the beta group made, on their own initiative, a summary of the negotiation situation before filling out their questionnaires. The use of a summary may be reflected in the questions concerning the final decision, since the beta groups answers were highly conform on these questions.

Concerning the process of collective remembering, the results of the negotiation process analysis reveal that individuals customise the contents and communication of knowledge in relation to one another. The individual negotiators have individual information and make decisions based partly on that knowledge, but also based on knowledge revealed during a negotiation situation. Distortions from truth can occur due to participants believing something though it is not true, or that they give out information knowing it is not true. Thus they may base their decisions on facts that are not true. The distortions here may be have been caused by the method, that is role-play, which sets the seen and the structure of the negotiation on a make believe basis. Still, it is obvious even here that negotiators have to have some understanding i.e. knowledge and experience of the subject that is negotiated.

The analysis of the negotiation process reveals that the negotiators did not exchange information though information would be available, as Bazerman et al. (1983) suggested. As negotiators engage in knowledge and information exchange they are more or less actively part of jointly reconstructing and rediscovering a collective memory of the negotiated subject. The collective memory can be assumed to be at least partly communicated in negotiations. The results
here reveal that though information is negotiated, just because information is discussed in a forum called a negotiation the individual information does not become collective memories. It might become collective information that is information that is revealed for everybody to use, but it is not absorbed i.e. explicit information is not transferred to tacit information.

A collective memory may simply exist as a philosophical phenomenon, but to exist in the empirical world the collective memories have to be shared by several individuals. It could be argued that memories shared by only two individuals are simply shared memories, but to be part of the collective memory they have to be shared by all in that collective. However, if the collective memory would be seen as the sum of every individuals’ memories, then the collective memory of the negotiations role-play is the total of each groups’ answers. In the light of this argument the results of this work can be interpreted differently, meaning that both beta and gamma groups had highly conform collective memories. In this case, the results gathered here do not account for the total collective memory of the negotiators, since many aspects and information that certainly is collective memory is not reviewed by a simple questionnaire.

The second aim of this study, the methodological aim, was to see how the use of the negotiation role-play could be applied in this research. The method aimed at creating a condensed process of collective memory or a make believe past that would be controlled. The method is not fully evolved, but does serve for its purpose since role-play allows for the study of human interaction, which still can be controlled. Of course study of real life situations would be favourable, but then the researcher interested in the study of collective memory would not know what the participants know and thus which information they exchange and adopt. The downsides of the role-play were that the groups showed different understanding of the case information, which might be caused by individual reference frames. The method may also have caused some of the variations in the results. The difference in results can be caused by researchers failure in the assessment of groups’ negotiation skills. Another reason can be that the negotiation situation was so different that the participants, who are familiar to other situations, found this experiment problem difficult to solve. The participants reflected upon this in the after-math discussions saying that is was difficult and the situation was more competitive than they were used to. Also as mentioned above, the questionnaire might not have been an adequate instrument to catch the entire memory of individual negotiators. This is however, an overwhelming assignment and therefore manageable instruments, for measuring the collective memory of groups of people, should be developed for future research.
Though empirical research and laboratory experiments have not found working models to explain negotiation (Hosking & Morley, 1991), this does not imply that alternative models will necessarily be more successful. Instead, alternative models in the field of negotiation opens up a possibility to conduct new research, and reveal new findings and view them from new perspectives. However, alternative negotiation methods can enlighten the field of collective memory, since it is essential for the phenomenon that it should be grounded in the process of collective human interaction. Although the type of research that has been conducted here is resource demanding, it has examined the phenomenon in human interaction. Further research on negotiation and collective memory should strongly consider the use of extensive research design i.e. one that is grounded in real human interaction, so that more of the natures of the phenomena are revealed. The normative research literature can of course be helpful for negotiators, but as many psychologists have pointed out humans do not act rationally. Thus to understand the irrational behaviour of negotiators it is of interest to study the negotiation process and collective memory in their complexity rather than as single laboratory incidents.

Due to the small sample size and that the sample was handpicked the results awake more questions than answers concerning negotiation and collective memory. That is, the work done here is not sufficient to make generalisations giving the present study low external validity. The results are also insufficient to allow for statistically tested conclusions about the effect of the independent variable. Therefore further research on collective memory and negotiation experience is highly recommended, in which case the possibility of using negotiation, as a means of creating collective memory should be considered. The question, whether or not the implementation of negotiated agreements is easier if the negotiating parties have collective memory, is also left unanswered. Or if striving for a collective memory would motivate negotiators to seek and provide information? Even, other questions that the present study has shown light are of interest for future research. For example, it is not certain if the collective memory of negotiators is more conform when negotiators use a summary after a completed negotiation, or not. Another phenomenon, which this study has touched, is the familiarity (either informal or formal social relation) of the negotiating group, and what effect familiarity has both on the outcome of negotiation and the collective memory. Or what are the benefits of negotiating social relations between negotiators before negotiating issues at hand? These are interesting research questions for the future in the field of negotiation and collective memory.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX

Appendix 1 - Interview guide

A) Interview guide - original version

Hej och välkommen. Tack att du kunde delta i denna intervju… (Sätt på handspelet och se till att mikrofonen är tillräckligt nära IP:n.)


Berätta lite om din (yrkesmässiga) bakgrund…
(Söker svar på: ålder, arbetsfarenhet, erfarenhet på nuvarande jobb/arbetsgrupp.)
Vad är din egen definition på förhandling?
Följfrågor: Vilka olika typer av förhandlingar skulle du vilja identifiera? I vilka arbetsupplevelser uppstår förhandling? Vad är viktigt i förhandling?

Jag vill att du väljer en förhandlings situation inte så långt sedan som du kommer väl ihåg. Berätta om den…

Berätta om hur du har lärt dig att förhandla/ fått erfarenhet om att förhandla…
(Frågan syftar till att veta ifall IP:n har fått träning i förhandling från den egna organisationen och ifall hon/han är medveten om detta.)
Det kan uppstå olika situationer i förhandlingar som måste lösas. Vilka problem/konflikter har du upptäckt att kan uppstå vid förhandlingar. Berätta om någon mindre problem som har uppstått vid en förhandlings situation…
Följfrågor: Vad var problemet? Lösades problemet?
Om NEJ-svar: Varför tror du att det inte löste sig? Vad tänkte du då?

Berätta om någon mer allvarlig problem som har uppstått vid en förhandlings situation…
Följfrågor: Vad var problemet? Lösades problemet?
Om NEJ-svar: Varför tror du att det inte löste sig? Vad tänkte du då?

Vilka egenskaper tycker du att kännetecknar en bra/ skicklig förhandlare…
(OBS! Kan vara en svår fråga så ge IP tid att tänka.)
Vilka egenskaper är inte bra hos en förhandlare…

Denna intervju har gått ut på att få reda på dina erfarenheter om förhandling. Har du några frågor du skulle vilja ställa till mig? … Varsågod…
(Svara på eventuella frågor men avslöja inte forskningsfrågan.)

Tack för att du ville ställa upp för denna intervju. (Stäng av handspelet.)
B) Interview guide - English translation

Hello and welcome. Thank you for being able to take part in this interview. I will start taping from this moment… (Put on the tape recorder. Accept for taping has been received before hand.)

You are taking part in a master thesis in psychology at Lund University. This interview aims at discovering your personal experience of negotiation. Therefore there are no wrong answers, but all your answers are interesting for this work. Further I want to assure you that your answers will not be made traceable to you.

Tell me little about your professional background…
(Age, work experience, experience and time in current job.)

What is your own definition of the concept negotiation?
(What different kinds of negotiation would you identify? In which situations does negotiation take place? What is important in negotiation?)

Think of one negotiation situation that took place not too long ago. Tell about it…
(Describe the situation… How had you prepared yourself? What was your goal? How did you feel before hand? Did you follow a certain negotiation plan? Did something special happen during this negotiation? What were your thoughts after the negotiation?)

Where have you learned to negotiate?
(How have you learned to negotiate/conduct negotiation?)

When negotiating, you might have come across different situations that had to be solved. What kind of problems or conflicts have you experienced?

Tell first of a problem that was not too severe/complicated…
(What was the situation? Was it solved? If YES: How was the problem solved? What did you do? What did you think of the situation? How did you know how to solve the problem? If NO: Why wasn’t the problem solved? What did you think?)

Now tell about a more severe problem or situation…
(What was the situation? Was it solved? If YES: How was the problem solved? What did you do? What did you think of the situation? How did you know how to solve the problem? If NO: Why wasn’t the problem solved? What did you think?)

What are the qualities of a good negotiator…?

What qualities are not good for a negotiator…?

The aim (synonym) of this interview was time find out about your experiences of negotiation. Now do you have any questions for me…?

Thank you for taking part in this interview. (Turn of the tape recorder.)
Appendix 2 - Questionnaire

Hej


Vänligen besvara följande frågor skriftligen

Kön:
Ålder:

Beskriv din yrkesmässiga bakgrund.

Vad är din egen definition av begreppet förhandling?


Berätta om hur du har fått erfarenhet om att forhandla.

Det kan uppstå olika situationer i förhandlingar som måste lösas. Vilka problem/konflikter har du upplevt att kan uppstå vid förhandlingar?

Beskriv någon mindre problem som har uppstått vid en förhandlings situation. Till din hjälp har du följande frågor: Vad var problemet? Lösades problemet?
Om JA-svar: Hur löstes detta? Hur resonerade du kring problem lösning?
Om NEJ-svar: Varför tror du att det inte löste sig? Vad tänkte du då?

Berätta om någon mer allvarlig problem som har uppstått vid en förhandlings situation…
Till din hjälp har du följande frågor: Vad var problemet? Lösades problemet?
Om JA-svar: Hur löstes detta? Hur resonerade du kring problem lösning?
Om NEJ-svar: Varför tror du att det inte löste sig? Vad tänkte du då?

Vilka egenskaper tycker du att kännetecknar en bra/ skicklig förhandlare.

Vilka egenskaper är mindre bra hos en förhandlare.


Med vänliga hälsningar,
Elisa Swanson
### Appendix 3 - Role-play materials

**A) Negotiation role-play instructions**

**Förhandlingsspel instruktioner**

**CASE: ServiceMix AB**

- Förhandlingspelet är ingen tävling utan en möjlighet för dig att pröva dina färdigheter i rollspelets sammanhang.

- Du får en beskrivning om fallet och information om din rollfigur. Den personliga informationen ger dig ramar för din rollfigurs förhållningssätt till situationen som diskuteras under förhandlingen. Ha denna ram klar för dig själv och använd den i ditt agerande med de andra deltagarna. Det är viktigt att de andra deltagarna inte läser ditt personliga material.

- Du behöver cirka 15 min att ta dig genom materialet, vilket innehåller all relevant information. Vid eventuella oklarheter har du tolkningsfrihet.

- Efter att du har läst färdigt materialet kommer du och en av dina kollegor att diskutera hur ni ska gå till väga vid förhandlingen. Ni får 15 min på er innan ni ska börja mötet med de andra två kollegor.


B) Negotiation case description

Förhandlingsspel

ServiceMix AB

Verksamhetsbeskrivning

ServiceMix AB är ett konsultbolag inom helhetslösningar för återvinning av industri- avfall. Återvinningsbranschen är relativt ny men väletablerad i Sverige. Miljöskatter och ”grön årsredovisning” har varit några av anledningarna varför flera kemi- och teknikindustrierna vill idag återvinna avfall. Det är främst gamla tunga industrier och nya bioteknikindustrier som använder sig av återvinningskonsulter och -tjänster.


ServiceMix AB:s verksamhet drivs på projektbasis. För varje kunduppdrag sammanställs en ny projektgrupp från de 32 konsulter, vilka arbetar under ett av de tre operativa områden: miljö teknik, kemi eller logistik. De operativa cheferna ansvarar för försäljning och administration av kunduppdraget samt sammansättning av projektgruppen. Projektgrupperna ansvarar självt för planering och utförandet av konsultarbetet, vilket utförs både hos kunderna och på det egna kontoret, beläget i södra Sverige.

Situationsbeskrivning


EfterÄtta har bland annat ett aktivt drakhästssällskap, som deltar i flera årliga drakhästsamlingar och aktiviteter. De senaste åren har drakhästssällskapet som bäst kommit på tredje plats i tävlingar, men nu är ambitionen hög att vinna år 2002. Ett
tävlingslag för små drakbåtar består av 12 personer men sällskapet består sammanlagt av 18 personer. Flera anställda är intresserade av att vara med på nästa års drakbåtsfestivaler. I så fall kan sällskapet delta i tävlingar för stora drakbåtar som har 22 personer per båt samt en trumslagare.


Frågan om disponering av 100 000kr har diskuterats med hela personalen. De har fått föreslå olika alternativ som sedan har sammantäckts av EfterÅttas ledning. Två alternativ har fått lika stort stöd och ett tredje alternativ tycks accepteras av de flesta men är ingen favorit. Alla tre förslag har lagts fram för ServiceMix AB:s styrelse, vilken har beviljat EfterÅttas ledning fria händer för att bestämma hur pengarna skall disponeras. Deras enda krav är att det slutgiltiga beslutet skall främja laganda och samhörighet i personalen.

De två favoritalternativen är:

- **Skidresa till Åre.** Kostnader för en veckas skidresa inklusive busstransport och logi är 2800kr per person om minst 20 personer deltar. Då får varje person betala 530kr av avgiften själv. Två anställda måste dock stanna på kontoret över semestern för att inte störa ServiceMix AB:s verksamhet. Dessa personer kommer att få åtta månaders betald medlemskap på stadens simhall/gym som kompensation.

- **Drakbåts satsningen.** Kostnaden för köp av två egna 22-mans drakbåtar till sällskapet (30 000kr), deltagaravgifter på tre tävlingar i Göteborg, Stockholm och Malmö (40kr per person per tävling), sex kanotövningstillfällen innan festival säsongen (100kr per person per gång) samt nya festivalkostymer för det tävlande laget (20 000kr) är sammanlagt 81 680kr. Det återstående 18 320kr är tänkt att räcka resekostnader till festivalerna.

**Kompromissalternativet är:**

- **En weekendkryssning med Stena Lines till Oslo.** Resan med en övernattning i Oslo kostar 2200kr per person. Dagsläge


HR chefen tycker att kompromissalternativet är det mest demokratiska alternativet och därför den bästa lösningen. Resan till Oslo kan göras på helgen och då behöver ingen stanna kvar på kontoret. Under kryssningen kan man också arrangera olika aktiviteter för att bygga och skapa team-känsla, vilket är så viktigt för ServiceMix AB:s styrelse.

HR-chefen kan dock inte delta i diskussionen utan har i ett e-post till de andra berättat sin åsikt. Han kan tänka sig andra lösningar om de kan anses vara demokratiska och främja laganda. Då HR-chefen inte kan delta i mötet har han bet om en rapport, som ska presenteras till styrelsen.

De fyra andra i EfterÅttas ledning måste nu sinsemellan diskutera saken och bestämma hur kapitalet på bästa sätt skall komma till användning. De har begränsat tid på sig för att hitta en lösning i denna fråga och sätter sig därför i arbete omedelbart.
A1 Personlig information till: TEKNIKKONSULT

Ditt namn: __________________________

Du är teknikkonsult hos ServiceMix AB sedan 1989 och är en av konsulterna med längst erfarenhet i företaget. Du arbetar främst med ditt eget kundkonto och har regelbundna arbetstider.


Du har pratat med dokumentationskonsulenten och det är hans mening att drakbåtssatsningen är det bästa alternativet för att använda kapitalet för hela personalens bästa. Drakbåtssatsningen är ett utmärkt sätt för ServiceMix AB att synas i ett positivt sammanhang i hela landet. Du vill att alla ska delta med och är intresserad av att delta i nästa tävling. Du vill att nästa tävling ska vara ett stort evenemang och att alla ska delta med två stora drakbåtar.

Ditt namn: __________________________


Du gillar att åka skidor och har dessutom varit med på tidigare resor, vilka varit väldigt bra organiserade. Om skidresan skulle bli av är det mest sannolikt du som funderar på kontoret då andra åker på semester. Ingen annan kan ta hand om kontoret och besvara kundernas frågor som du. Att stanna kvar då andra är borta är dock ingen bra lösning från din synvinkel. Därför tänker du hellre hålla med teknikkonsulenten och förslå drakbåtstävling än att stödra skidäckningsalternativet.

Drakbåtssatsningen är det ett utmärkt sätt för ServiceMix AB att synas i ett positivt sammanhang i hela landet. Men du vet väldigt lite om drakbåtspaddling och är osäker om drakbåtstävling skulle vara något för hela personalen. Om drakbåtssatsningen blir av vill du att laget ska göras reklam för företaget, annars är satsningen inte till någon nytta alls.
B1 Personlig information till: LOGISTIKKONSULT

Ditt namn: __________________________


B2 Personlig information till: KEMIKONSULT

Ditt namn: __________________________


Du stödjer alternativet att åka på en skidsemester men tycker att något annat alternativ skulle vara lika bra förutsatt att det blir roligt och kul. Du vill dock inte spendera tre helgar under sommaren på några drakbåtsfestivaler utan vill göra annat skoj på sommaren. Däremot verkar Oslo-kryssningen som ett bra andra alternativ om de andra inte vill rösta för skidresan.
D) Post role-play questionnaire

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<td>Ålder: _____år</td>
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<td>Kön: Man     Kvinna</td>
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<td>Rollfigur: ________________________</td>
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**Meddelande från HR-chefen**


1. Beskriv anledningen för mötet.

2. Vad var målet med mötet?


4. Ange kortfattat mötets dagordning.

5. Vad beslutades vid mötet?

6. Hur avslutades mötet?

7. Beskriv stämningen vid mötet.