ANNA HEIKKINEN

Discursive Constructions
of Climate Change Engagement
in Business Organisations

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To my family

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Abstract

Climate change is one of the most pressing sustainability issues of the modern era affecting individuals, organisations and societies. Climate change poses physical threats to our survival and challenges the way we view ourselves and the economic and political systems. Today, business organisations control substantial resources and knowledge and thus have a crucial role in addressing climate change. However, climate change is a complex issue with no commonly accepted standards and guidelines. This study is concerned with the dilemma that business organisations face when they are striving address climate change.

This study contributes to previous literature on corporate sustainability and climate change by using discourse analysis to examine climate change engagement in business organisations. Business organisations and managers are vital leaders in providing solutions to sustainability challenges and therefore, examining their discursive constructions of climate change engagement is crucial. The study asks: How is climate change engagement discursively constructed in business organisations? Theoretically, this is addressed by discussing literature on environmental, sustainability and climate change issues in business and the social constructionist and discourse analytic approaches.

The empirical focus is on Finnish business professionals who have participated in a Finnish low-carbon economy project called 'Peloton' in 2009–2011. The empirical data consists of workshop observations and interviews. The analysis identifies two discourses that are used to discuss climate change engagement in business organisations: the rational and moral discourses. The rational discourse constructs climate change engagement first and foremost as a strategic issue utilising traditional business language focusing on profitability, win-win opportunities, and efficiency. The moral discourse both complements and questions the rational discourse by suggesting that, in addition to strategic business reasons, there are moral reasons for engaging with climate change.

Furthermore, by examining the functions of these two discourses, this study explicates how the rational discourse is used to discursively manage climate change engagement in business organisations, while the moral discourse is used to extend the view of the rational discourse. The functions of the rational discourse are to

mitigate uncertainty, to produce action and to manage one's own position. The functions of the moral discourse are to produce moral meaning for climate change engagement in business and for the business professionals' work, as well as to provide an opposing perspective to the rational discourse. Moreover, this study discusses how the discursive management of climate change engagement produces a simplified view of climate change engagement with potentially concerning consequences for climate change.

To summarise, the study contributes to earlier research by revealing the sophisticated ways in which the business professionals construct climate change engagement and how they create, maintain, and recreate meaning and reconcile the tensions of climate change engagement in their language use. Utilising two discourses to discuss climate change engagement indicates that the complex issue is multidimensional and somewhat challenging for business professionals. In addition, it shows that the climate change engagement discourses contain a discursive struggle between the two ways used to talk about climate change in business organisations.

As a practical contribution the study brings forth that although climate change is a complex phenomenon, it can be effectively engaged with. In addition, findings indicate that values and emotions are an essential, though less emphasised, aspect of climate change engagement in business organisations.

Tiivistelmä

Ilmastonmuutos on yksi keskeisimmistä kestävän kehityksen haasteista, koska se vaikuttaa niin yksilöihin, organisaatioihin kuin yhteiskuntaan. Ilmastonmuutos on fyysinen ihmiskunnan tulevaisuuteen kohdistuva uhka, joka asettaa kyseenalaiseksi käsityksiä itsestämme sekä taloudellisista ja poliittisista järjestelmistä. Yrityksillä on hallussaan huomattavia resursseja, kuten tietotaitoa, ja siten niillä on keskeinen rooli ilmastonmuutoksen tuomiin haasteisiin tarttumisessa. Haasteena on kuitenkin ilmastonmuutoksen monitahoisuus ja sitä koskevien, yleisesti hyväksyttyjen normien ja ohjeistuksien puute. Tutkimus tarkastelee tätä väistämättä syntyvää pulmatilannetta, kun yritykset pyrkivät toimimaan suhteessa ilmastonmuutokseen.

Tutkimus liittyy kestävää kehitystä ja ilmastonmuutosta käsittelevään kirjallisuuteen tarkastelemalla diskurssianalyysin keinoin ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutumista yrityksissä. Yritykset ja johtajat ovat keskeisessä asemassa tuottamassa ratkaisuja kestävän kehityksen haasteisiin, ja siksi on ratkaisevan tärkeää tutkia, kuinka he rakentavat diskursiivisesti ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutumista. Tämä tutkimus kysyy: Kuinka ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutuminen rakentuu diskursiivisesti yrityksissä? Teoreettisesti tätä kysymystä tarkastellaan ympäristöä, kestävää kehitystä ja ilmastonmuutosta liiketoiminnassa käsittelevän kirjallisuuden näkökulmista sekä sosiaalisen konstruktionismin ja diskurssianalyysin lähestymistapojen kautta.

Tutkimuksen empiirinen tarkastelu keskittyy suomalaisiin yritysammattilaisiin, jotka ovat osallistuneet suomalaiseen vuosina 2009–2011 toteutettuun vähähiilisen talouden Peloton-projektiin. Empiirinen aineisto koostuu työpajahavainnoinneista ja haastatteluista. Analyysissa tunnistetaan kaksi diskurssia, joiden kautta keskustellaan ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutumisesta yrityksissä: rationaalinen ja moraalinen diskurssi. Rationaalisessa diskurssissa ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutuminen rakentuu ennen kaikkea strategisena kysymyksenä. Rationaalinen diskurssi pohjautuu perinteiseen liiketoimintapuheeseen ja keskittyy kannattavuuteen, win-win mahdollisuuksiin ja tehokkuuteen. Moraalinen diskurssi sekä täydentää että kyseenalaistaa rationaalista diskurssia esittäen, että strategisten syiden lisäksi on moraalisia syitä sitoutua ilmastonmuutostoimintaan.

Tarkastelemalla näiden diskurssien seurauksia tämä tutkimus esittää, miten rationaalisen diskurssin kautta diskursiivisesti hallitaan ilmastonmuutosta ja miten moraalista diskurssia käytetään laajentamaan rationaalisen diskurssin tuottamaa näkemystä. Rationaalisen diskurssin seurauksia ovat epävarmuuden lieventäminen, toiminnan tuottaminen ja oman aseman hallinta. Moraalisen diskurssin kautta tuotetaan moraalisia merkityksiä ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutumiselle yrityksissä ja yritysammattilaisten omalle työlle ja lisäksi esitetään vastakkainen näkemys rationaaliselle diskurssille. Tutkimuksen tulokset osoittavat, miten ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutumisen diskursiivinen hallinta tuottaa yksinkertaistetun näkemyksen ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutumisesta, ja että tällä näkemyksellä on mahdollisesti huolestuttavia seurauksia ilmastonmuutokselle.

Tutkimus kontribuoi aikaisempaan tutkimukseen tuomalla esiin niitä monimutkaisia tapoja, joilla yritysammattilaiset rakentavat ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutumista, ja miten he tuottavat, ylläpitävät ja uusintavat merkityksiä ja sovittelevat ilmastonmuutostoimintaan liittyviä jännitteitä. Se, että ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutumista rakennetaan kahden diskurssin kautta, paljastaa, että ilmastonmuutos on moniulotteinen ja jossain määrin haastava kysymys yritysammattilaisille. Lisäksi se osoittaa, että ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutumisen diskurssi sisältää diskursiivisen kamppailun tutkimuksessa tunnistettujen kahden diskurssin välillä.

Tutkimuksen käytännöllinen kontribuutio esittää, että vaikka ilmastonmuutos on monimutkainen ilmiö, siihen voidaan sitoutua käytännössä. Lisäksi tulokset osoittavat, että arvot ja tunteet ovat keskeinen, vaikkakin vähemmän huomioitu, osa ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutumista yrityksissä.

AVAINSANAT: ilmastonmuutos, ilmastonmuutokseen sitoutuminen, kestävä yritystoiminta, yritykset, johtajat, yritysammattilaiset, sosiaalinen konstruktionismi, diskurssianalyysi

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1 INTRODUCTION

> Men argue. Nature acts.
>
> *Voltaire*

1.1 Engaging with climate change

The concern and focus of this study is the wicked problem of climate change. This study explores the language of climate change engagement in business organisations, analysing how business professionals create, utilise and maintain discursive constructions of climate change engagement.

Climate change is one of the most pressing sustainability issues of our times. In management and organisations research, climate change has been identified as a drastic large-scale system change that may force us to re-examine business-as-usual, challenging how we understand the broader economic, political and social order (e.g. Hahn, Kolk, & Winn, 2010; Urry, 2011/2013; Wright, Nyberg, De Cock, & Whiteman, 2013). From a strategic point of view, climate change is identified as a major shift in the physical and political environment that managers and organisations need to address (Haigh & Griffits, 2012; Kolk & Pinkse, 2004, 2007a; Linnenluecke & Griffits, 2010). Business organisations' moral obligations stem from the financial, technological and organisational resources they control that are vital when developing responses to climate change (Okereke, Wittneben, & Bowen, 2012). In addition, climate regulations and societal demands call for businesses to mitigate their direct and indirect greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions.

So, what is so special about climate change? First, it is currently acknowledged as one of the most pressing issues facing humankind. International organisations, governments and local level actors are calling for individuals and business organisations to take action. Climate change is expected to cause cultural, social and physical changes, affecting our current and future lifestyles. Second, climate change is infused with uncertainties concerning the scale, impacts and rate of progression. As Hulme (2009, p. xxvii) has noted: "Climate change is not simply a 'fact' waiting to be discovered", rather it is continually created and re-created in the

ways we conceive of nature, culture and society. The complexity and uncertainty pose new challenges for organisations and business professionals, who are required to simultaneously interpret and engage with the issue.

In business organisations addressing climate change usually refers to identifying and mitigating the impacts of organisational activities, i.e. reducing GHG emissions. The impacts of climate change on organisations can be prepared for; this approach is usually described as climate change adaptation. However, there is still uncertainty concerning the definition of climate change and how it can be engaged with. This study assumes a social constructionist approach and accordingly, sustainability issues are seen as socially constructed in human interaction (Hajer, 1995; Joutsenvirta, 2009; Väliverronen, 1996). This means that they are not 'problems' or 'issues' automatically; rather, they are constructed as such in public debates and other discussions. In public debates, climate change is constructed as a major environmental and social challenge. However, there are other constructions as well: in some geographical areas global warming is seen as a positive development, while others deny the existence of climate change altogether.

Corporate sustainability and climate change interpretations and constructions have been previously examined by management and organisations and social and environmental accounting scholars (e.g. Laine, 2005, 2009a, 2009b, 2010b; Livesey, 2002a, 2002b; Nyberg & Wright, 2012; Tregidga, 2007; Tregidga, Kearins, & Milne, 2013; Tregidga, Milne, & Kearins, 2014; Wright, Nyberg, & Grant, 2012; Wright et al., 2013). Business organisations and managers are perceived as vital actors for providing solutions to sustainability challenges and therefore, the ways they understand and talk about these issues are of importance (Laine, 2010b; Spence, 2007; Tregidga & Milne, 2006). However, to date there has been very little empirical examination focusing of how business professionals themselves describe and construct their climate change engagement (Laine, 2005; Nyberg & Wright, 2012; Springett, 2003; Williams & Schaefer, 2013; Wright et al., 2012). This study contributes to previous research by using discourse analysis to explore climate change engagement in business organisations. Discourse analysis focuses on studying language as social interaction and the consequences of language use (Phillips & Hardy, 2002; Potter & Wetherell, 1987). Accordingly, the aim of discourse analysis is to address both what is being said; i.e. how climate change engagement is discussed in business organisations, and how what is said is done in a meaningful way. Thus, this study subscribes to the constitutive view of language, submitting that language not only reflects and records realities but also creates, maintains and shapes them (Joutsenvirta, 2009; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). In

addition, discourse analysis posits that meanings are not stable; rather, they are constantly recreated and negotiated in different contexts and situations (Jokinen, Juhila, & Suoninen, 1993; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). An essential advantage of the discourse analytical approach is that it allows a researcher to examine and to create new categories of analysis, while traditional methods often reiterate and reify existing categories (Phillips & Hardy, 2002).

The empirical focus of this study is on Finnish business professionals working in companies that seek to integrate climate change engagement into their business operations. These companies and business professionals have participated in a low-carbon economy project called 'Peloton' in 2009–2011. The project's main objective was to empower professionals and peer groups to fight against climate change. Finland is known as an active and well-established country advancing sustainability issues (Berg & Hukkinen, 2011a, 2011b; Kerkkänen, 2010; Mäkelä & Laine, 2011; Onkila, 2009) and Peloton was one of the pioneer projects focusing on advancing climate change engagement in business organisations. Thus, this project and the participating companies and professionals provide a unique context to study the creation and use of climate change engagement constructions.

In this study climate change is defined as a sustainability issue. The terms 'sustainability' and 'sustainable development' are commonly used as synonyms, because they both refer broadly to the notion that society must use no more of a resource than what can be regenerated (Sharma, 2007; UNWCED, 1987). I use the term 'climate change' to refer to "a past, present or future change in climate, with the implication that the predominant–but not exclusive–cause of this change is human in origin." (Hulme, 2009, pp. xxxviii-xxxix). Other commonly used terms are 'global warming' and the slightly outdated 'greenhouse effect'. The term global warming overly simplifies the potential impacts around the globe, as significant cooling could occur in some areas. These terms are often used as synonyms in popular use although their technical meanings differ significantly.

1.2 Aim of the study

This study focuses on the discursive constructions of climate change engagement in business organisations. Focusing on business professionals' talk about climate change engagement and the meanings that are constructed in language use allows an examination of the diverse and often paradoxical interests and demands within an organisation (Nyberg & Wright, 2012). The overarching motivation of this study

is to study how the complex issue of climate change is addressed in business organisations.

The study of organisations and sustainability has been increasingly focused on language and linguistics (e.g. Alvesson & Kärreman, 2000; Fairhurst & Grant, 2010; Joutsenvirta, 2009; Laine 2005, 2010b; Livesey, 2002a, 2002b; Siltaoja, 2009; Tregidga et al., 2013). While the 'traditional' approaches to sustainability consider organisational issues as objective and measurable phenomena, the linguistic-oriented approaches are interested in the various meanings and constructs that are created in social interaction and how they receive different meanings in different contexts and situations (Jokinen et al., 1993; Phillips & Hardy, 2002; Siltaoja, 2009).

In the spirit of these studies, the aim of this study is to identify and interpret the discursive constructions of climate change engagement in business organisations. Specifically, this study is interested in explicating how business professionals create, maintain, and utilise discursive constructions of climate change engagement in business organisations, and the consequences of such language use.

This study asks:

How is climate change engagement discursively constructed in business organisations?

The research question is first addressed theoretically. The theoretical framework of this study consists of a conceptual and a methodological part. The conceptual part reviews and discusses previous literature on environmental, sustainability and climate change issues in business to arrive at a conceptual starting point for analysing and interpreting the discursive constructions of climate change engagement in business organisations. The methodological part discusses social constructionism as a theoretical approach and discourse analysis as an analytical approach that are used to examine the research phenomenon. The decision to construct the theoretical framework as consisting of conceptual and methodological discussions reflects the social constructionist tradition in which the aim is not to test theory or reify existing categories, but to examine how meanings are constructed in social interaction and create new categories for analysis (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). Accordingly, theory is viewed as "a collection of ideas under ongoing redefinition instead of stable and rigid testable formalizations" (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008, p. 41). This decision is further supported by the topic and aim of this study: climate change engagement is a rather novel phenomenon in management and organisation literature. Thus from the point of view of the aim of this study, it is fitting to draw on insights from

different theoretical and conceptual discussions rather than focus on any single theoretical approach.

The empirical part is addressed with the following question:

What kinds of climate change engagement discourses do business professionals construct and what are the functions of these discourses?

The twofold question is answered in the empirical part first, by identifying and analysing the business professionals' constructions of climate change engagement. While the focus of the analysis is on the constructions of climate change engagement, it is inevitable that also the constructions of climate change become of interest, as they are an innate part of the climate change engagement discourses. The analysis focuses on the themes and meanings constructing, and constructed in, these discourses. The analysis further examines how these meanings are created, maintained and recreated in social interaction. In addition to identifying discourses, discourse analysis is interested in the consequences of language use, i.e. the functions of discourses (Potter & Wetherell, 1987). Second, this is addressed by empirically examining the functions of climate change engagement discourses to interpret how they are used to tackle climate change in business organisations.

This study joins and contributes to earlier research on corporate sustainability and climate change in the following ways. Firstly, this study focuses on how business professionals themselves describe and construct their climate change engagement, while previous research has primarily analysed corporate reports (Laine, 2005; Nyberg & Wright, 2012; Springett, 2003; Williams & Schaefer, 2013; Wright et al., 2012). The Peloton project was used as a source of two data sets focusing on business professionals' constructions of climate change engagement. Empirical data was generated in workshops organised for business professionals and interviews were conducted after the workshops. Thus, this study focuses on business professionals who are actively engaged with climate change and whose daily jobs involve environmental issues and/or climate change work. Secondly, while previous research has noted that sustainability and climate change are presented as manageable phenomena in business organisations (Besio & Pronzini, 2014; Laine, 2005; Mäkelä & Laine, 2011; Spence, 2007; Tregidga & Milne, 2006), empirical examinations analysing how they are constructed as such in language use are scarce if not non-existent to date. This study addresses this by examining the functions of the climate change engagement discourses. This is of utmost

importance to further understand the consequences of such language use on business organisations, climate change and society.

The focus on language and language use does not mean that climate change activities or their effectiveness are seen as irrelevant. The constitutive view of language posits that the ways issues are discussed can both construct and maintain social reality, thus resulting in practical implications (Joutsenvirta, 2009; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). When issues are publicly presented, they become 'facts' that speakers take into account later. Further, these stated 'facts' influence the activities and practices of an organisation. The ways that climate change is discussed can further commitment to certain schemes while limiting the number of acceptable responses (Joutsenvirta, 2006). This approach adopted in this study is reminiscent of the notion of enactment presented by Weick (1979, 1995, 2001). In his work, Weick has argued that people as active agents shape and give meaning to social contructions of reality. Moreover, he has presented that these created structures shape and give substance to the context in which people operate. In this study, I use the terms social construction, discourses and functions of discourses to describe and analyse this complex phenomenon in which social interaction, language use and practice become inseparably interwoven.

Sustainability and corporate social responsibility (CSR) research often discuss a perceived lack of consistency between words and actions, which is typically considered a serious problem (Christensen, Morsing, & Thyssen, 2013; Kujala, Rehbein, Toikka, & Enroth, 2013). Identifying and examining these gaps is not the intention of this study and moreover, it would not be in line with the research approach of social constructionism as chosen for this study. Examining the gap between what the business' real behaviour is and what they state they are doing can be highly problematic (Joutsenvirta, 2006), especially related to CSR and sustainability phenomena, as they cannot be easily measured.

1.3 Research process and structure of the thesis

When this study commenced in 2010, I had the intention to examine stakeholder collaboration. This is how I became interested in the Peloton project: I assumed that a project involving a large number of companies would entail these companies collaborating with each other and also with other stakeholders. Specifically, I assumed that a complex phenomenon such as climate change engagement would require the joint efforts of various companies.

For the most part, my initials assumptions held up. However, after starting data generation and becoming more familiar with the project, I realised that even though stakeholder collaboration was an integral part of addressing climate change, it was rather scattered and data generation would be a challenge. However, I had access to a unique project and a set of companies focusing on climate change. Thus, I embarked on generating different types of data within the project.

I started to read and analyse the data early in the process, while I was still generating it. This is typical for qualitative studies and was useful while planning the subsequent data generation (Alasuutari, 1995; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Silverman, 2005). I started the analysis by familiarising myself with the data, creating empirical themes, and keeping a research diary (Alasuutari, 1995). In the preliminary rounds of analysis, I considered different theoretical and conceptual ideas to analyse the data, such as stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984; Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar, & de Colle, 2010), institutional theory (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Scott & Meyer, 1994), and sensemaking in organisations (Weick, 1979, 1995, 2001). When I started data generation, I assumed that business professionals would consider making sense of climate change and engaging with climate change a challenge, because the phenomenon is so vast and complex. However, I was surprised to find that rather than being perplexed, they described climate change engagement as easy and even fun. Other outlined theoretical and conceptual ideas would have been possible in this study but as I continued with the analysis, it became more and more clear that focusing on one theoretical approach might entail that not all the aspects of the data were revealed.

Thus, I began further to examine how business professionals use language to give meaning to climate change and to related issues and how the way issues are presented produces action. This led me to choose social constructionism as a theoretical and discourse analysis as an analytical approach. At this point I decided on a data-driven, or inductive, analysis process. I acknowledge that pure induction is virtually impossible (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008, 22) as is also the case in this study. In this study this means that while I was familiar with some conceptual frameworks, they were not used to analyse the data; rather I utilised those ideas presented in previous literature to interpret the findings of the analysis.

While generating and analysing data, I constantly read previous studies on the topic to see what was already known and how discursive approaches had been used by other scholars. As there is not a coherent body of climate change literature in the field of management and organisations studies, I looked for related fields for guidance. In particular, corporate sustainability and social and environmental

accounting literatures proved useful. The study proceeded by trial and error: I would find something conceptually and methodologically interesting, and then test it (Alasuutari, 1995; Joutsenvirta, 2006). The study became more coherent after every round of analysis.

As is typical of qualitative research, the theoretical framework was finalised in the last stages of this study (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008), intertwined with the interpretation of the findings. The theoretical framework consists of conceptual and methodological discussions; rather than of one 'grand theory'. This decision suits the topic and aim of this study for two interlinked reasons. The first reason is based on the current status of theorising related to climate change engagement and corporate sustainability. Climate change engagement is a rather novel topic in management and organisation literature and it is still searching for content and standing within the field of study. Scholars have noted that currently there is no one theoretical or conceptual framework that would capture the complexity of sustainability challenges or climate change. Rather, scholars have pointed out challenges in using current concepts and theories (Bansal & Knox-Hayes, 2013; Slawinski & Bansal, 2012; Sprengel & Busch, 2011; Starik & Kanashiro, 2013). Thus, drawing on insights from different fields and theoretical and conceptual discussions is a justified decision in order to explore this emerging topic. Secondly, the decision to utilise a conceptual framework consisting of previous literature on environmental, sustainability and climate change issues in business is consistent with the social constructionist and discourse analytic approaches chosen for this study. The aim of these approaches is not to test theory or reify existing categories, but to examine how meanings are constructed in social interaction and create new categories for analysis (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). To sum up, the theoretical framework focuses both on key concepts, theories and research discussions that relate to the topic of this study and on theoretical and analytical choices that guide the ways this study proceeds to create new knowledge. Table 1 illustrates the multidimensionality of the research process.

Table 1 Research process

Time	Activities
1–6/2010	Research plan Access to the Peloton project Familiarisation with the research topic
7–12/2010	Data generation: workshop and interviews Preliminary data analysis: themes Preliminary literature review
1–6/2011	Data generation: workshop Preliminary data analysis: themes Methodological choices
7–12/2011	Data generation: workshop and interviews Preliminary data analysis: preliminary discourses Methodological choices
1–6/2012	Data analysis: preliminary discourses
7–12/2012	Data analysis: preliminary discourses Focused literature review
1–6/2013	Data analysis: constructing the final discourses
7–12/2013	Data analysis: interpreting the discourses and functions Focused literature review Writing the research report
1–6/2014	Finalising the theoretical framework for the study Writing the research report
7–9/2014	Finalising the research report

This thesis is structured as follows. After this introduction, chapter two presents a review of previous research on environmental, sustainability and climate change issues in business to arrive at a conceptual starting point. In previous literature, business climate change activities have been largely discussed within the environmental management and corporate sustainability frameworks. These streams of literature are discussed first to provide a premise for discussing climate change in business organisations. Next, climate change as a physical and social phenomenon is discussed and linked to business organisations. The discussion began in the 1990s, when companies and industry associations typically opposed climate change regulations. At the time, taking action on climate change was considered very costly. More recently, attitudes have changed from scepticism and lack of attention to recognising climate change as a serious and ongoing concern for business and society. Next, the motivations and challenges for responding to climate change, as well as previous research on climate change activities and

strategies are presented. Lastly, the conceptual part reviews previous studies that focused on discursive research on corporate responsibility, sustainability and climate change. The chapter concludes by positioning this thesis within the conceptual framework.

Chapter three presents the methodological and analytical choices of this study. The chapter starts by presenting social constructionism as a theoretical framework and discourse analysis as an analytical approach. Next, the contexts of the study and the data generation are presented: Finland as a macro context and the Peloton project, workshops and interview data as micro contexts. Lastly, the data analysis process is explicated.

Chapters four and five present the empirical findings. Chapter four discusses the rational and moral discourses that are used to discuss climate change engagement in business organisations. This chapter concludes with a discussion of how meanings are created, maintained and recreated in the discourses.

Chapter five presents the functions of the rational and moral discourses and interprets how they are used to tackle climate change in business organisations. This chapter concludes with a summary of the empirical findings.

Chapter six discusses the findings of this study and interprets them in relation to climate change engagement. In addition, the issues that were not addressed in the data are discussed. The chapter outlines the theoretical and practical contributions and concludes with a research evaluation and discussion of limitations and suggestions for future research.

2 CONCEPTUALISING CLIMATE CHANGE

2.1 Natural environment and sustainability in business organisations

2.1.1 Business and nature

With varying extent, business organisations have been paying attention to environmental issues from the 1960s onwards following the publication of Rachel Carson's seminal book about the detrimental effects on pesticides on the environment (Carson, 1962). In the late 1980s, environmental management in organisations started to shift from a reactive to a more strategic, proactive stance (Clarke & Roome, 1999). In the 1990s environmental issues started to gain substantial attention, in particularly subsequent to such events as the 1992 Rio de Janeiro United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), also known as Earth Summit (Etzion, 2007; Laine, 2010a). Already at the 1992 conference, climate change was at the centre of attention, as the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC, FCCC) called for countries to begin to monitor and report their emissions (Levy, 1997). Further discussions and Conference of the Parties (COP) meetings lead to setting binding emissions targets for developed countries and the Kyoto Protocol being signed in 1997.

Fundamentally, business organisations are physically inseparable from the natural environment surrounding them. Essentially, all humans and organisations are composed of the natural environment and would not exist and could not survive without the rest of the natural environment (Driscoll & Starik, 2004; Winn & Pogutz, 2013). In addition, virtually all business decisions have an impact on the environment, even though the organisation might be unaware of these impacts (Etzion, 2007). The natural environment-business relationships have been extensively examined in various disciplines using their respective theories, resulting an incohesive body of academic literature on organisations and the natural environment (Etzion, 2007; Kallio, 2004). Banerjee (2001, pp. 490–491) has presented that there are two areas of research incorporating the biophysical

environment into organisation theory. First, the interdisciplinary area discusses the implications of including the dynamics of the biophysical environment into traditional economic and management paradigms in order to overcome the anthropocentric bias in organisation theory. This area of research discusses paradigms, such as the 'ecocentric' and the 'sustaincentric' paradigms that are contradictory to the neoclassical economic paradigm.

The second area focuses on the strategic implications of environmental issues for organisations and on environmental management strategies (Banerjee, 2001, pp. 490–491). Environmental management aims to identify and manage actions to reduce the environmental impacts of an organisation utilising environmental management practices to improve a company's competitiveness (Bansal, 2005; Darnall, Henriques, & Sadorsky, 2008; Jones, 2013; Onkila, 2009, 2011). Similarly, the related concepts of 'corporate environmentalism', 'ecological sustainability' and 'ecological modernisation' suggest that by becoming or being 'green', companies can simultaneously achieve economic goals, reduce costs, open new market opportunities and improve the environment (Eden, 1999; Hajer, 1995; Kallio, 2004; Nyberg & Wright, 2012). Even though these streams of research have been developing for the past decades, scholars have argued that the aim of infusing management and organisations theory with biophysical foundations has so far remained underdeveloped (Kallio, 2004; Starik & Kanashiro, 2013).

Kallio (2004) presented a theoretical study of corporate greening and a critical overview of the field of organisational environmental studies. Kallio (2004) concluded that organisational environmental studies have concentrated on studying corporate greening from the business perspective, while the other side of the greening process and the business-nature relationship - nature - has been largely ignored. He suggested that the interaction between social and natural sciences must be enforced to solve environmental problems.

Marcus, Kurucz, and Colbert (2010) have analysed the conceptions of business-society-nature relationship in management literature. They presented three general conceptions: the disparate, intertwined and embedded views. The disparate view regards society and nature as separable from and peripheral to the business system, thus presenting an externalising perspective. The intertwined view provides a relating perspective where society and nature are regarded as important and integrated to the business system. The embedded view maintains the main principle of the intertwined view suggesting that business, society and nature are innately intertwined. The embedded view presents that they are not only interrelated but nested systems. In the embedded view, nature as a finite and an all-

encompassing life-sustaining system provides the foundation for both society and business. Business exists within the society and likewise society is completely nested within the natural environment. Thus, the embedded view presents a reorganising perspective of the conceptions of business-society-nature interface. The alternate conceptions of business-society-nature interface are illustrated in figure 1 (adapted from Marcus et al., 2010, p. 406).

The disparate view

The integrated view

The embedded view
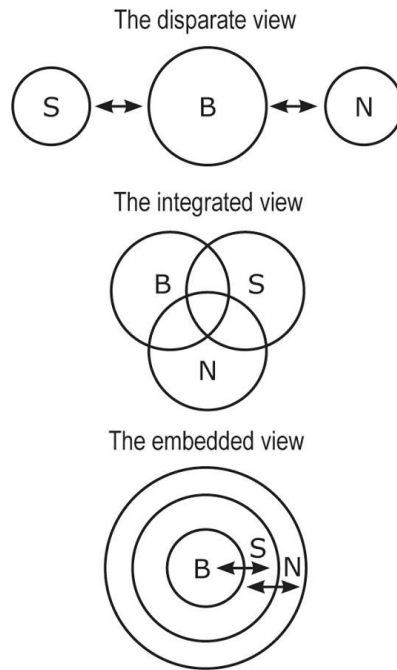
Figure 1 Conceptions of the business-society-nature interface (adapted from Marcus et al. 2010).
Note. S = society, B = business, N = nature.

Marcus et al. (2010) noted that the integrated view is mostly used by environmental management and sustainability scholars, and it is in line with the widely used triple-bottom-line model (Elkington, 1998). The embedded view is the most recent view and Marcus et al. (2010) suggested that it would be the most useful in addressing complex global sustainability problems.

The business-nature relationship has received considerable attention also in the stakeholder literature. The status of nature as a stakeholder is debated and currently has a mixed status (e.g. Driscoll & Starik, 2004; Freeman et al., 2010; Onkila, 2011;

Orts & Strudel, 2002; Phillips & Reichart, 2000: Starik 1994; 1995; Stead & Stead, 2000; for discussions see Haigh & Griffits, 2009; Laine, 2010a). The debate has predominantly focused on the question of how inclusive the scope of stakeholders should be (Haigh & Griffits, 2009). In the traditional models, as a non-human actor who does not have voiced claims or expectations, nature and the natural environment are not granted the stakeholder status. The natural environment is advocated by other stakeholders, mostly NGOs (non-governmental organisations) and activist groups. Driscoll and Starik (2004) have argued that the natural environment should be recognised as the primary and primordial stakeholder of the firm, as it has mutually dependent, exchange-based relationships with companies: companies depend on local and global ecosystems for resources and exchange more with the natural environment than with any other stakeholder.

Management research has been more focused on the impacts of organisations on the environment, while the natural environment's impacts on organisations have been less examined (Winn & Kirchgeorg, 2005). However, climate change has been identified as an issue where the changes in the natural environment, such as the increasingly abnormal weather events and changes in the biodiversity, provide a potential risk for business operations (e.g. Busch & Hoffman, 2007; Linnenluecke & Griffits, 2010, 2012; Winn, Kirchgeorg, Griffits, Linnenluecke, & Günther, 2011). Thus, in the case of climate change, it has been argued that climate change and the resulting changes in the natural environment meet Freeman's (1984) 'can affect or is affected by' criterion of stakeholder and should therefore be considered as stakeholders (Starik, 1994, 1995; Kolk & Pinkse, 2007b). Further, Haigh and Griffits (2009) argued that the natural environment can be identified as a primary stakeholder when the potential strategic impacts of climate change are examined. Haigh and Griffits (2009) have presented that recognising the natural environment as a primary stakeholder could help businesses to create opportunities for sustainable operations and to understand the strategic landscape better.

In sum, while previous literature has discussed alternative ways of including the natural environment in management and organisation studies, there are still no uniform conceptions for doing this. Recent literature, however, more and more sees the natural environment as the most crucial issue for the well-being and survival of organisations. Especially understanding of the natural environment-business relationships is vital for conceptualising sustainability challenges.

2.1.2 Corporate sustainability

The sustainability revolution, referring to the movement of individuals, organisations and societies toward developing a socio-economically and environmentally sustainable society, has been characterised as the most transformative cultural phenomenon since the industrial, agricultural and information revolutions (Edwards, 2005). The terms 'sustainability' and 'sustainable development' are commonly used as synonyms, because they both refer broadly to the notion that society must use no more of a resource than what can be regenerated. However, it has been argued that they do not necessarily always mean the same (for a discussion see Sharma, 2007, pp. 85–87), there are many definitions of the terms and the terms themselves have become a source of confusion and debate (Livesey, 2002b).

The most widely accepted and used definition of sustainable development is taken from 'Our Common Future' report, commonly known as the Brundtland Report, produced by the World Commission on Environment and Development in 1987, stating that "sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (UNWCED, 1987, p. 8). In the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development the concept of sustainable development was defined according to three pillars of sustainability: economic development, social development and environmental protection (United Nations, 2002). The three pillars have been rapidly adopted for common use since the Summit, even though there is no universal agreement of their details and the categorisation has been criticised as being a narrow definition that largely ignores human development, equity and social justice (for a discussion, see Kates et al., 2005). In addition, culture has been proposed as the fourth pillar of sustainability (Hawkes, 2001).

Sustainability focuses on the concepts of environmental limits and carrying capacity of the Earth originating from the 1972 publication 'The Limits to Growth' by the Club of Rome (Meadows, Goldsmith, & Meadow, 1972). The main idea of the report was that the availability of natural resources is limited and thus economic growth cannot continue indefinitely. Related and nowadays widely used concepts, such as ecological footprint, are based on the same idea. The discourse of limits is commonly utilised in public debates and discussions concerning sustainability and climate change (e.g. Hulme, 2009; Rockström et al., 2009).

Tregidga (2007, 53–56) has presented a thorough discussion of different conceptions of sustainable development. A commonly used dichotomy labels sustainability as 'weak' or 'strong' (see also Laine, 2005, 2009a). 'Weak' sustainability refers to a view where the three principles (economic and social development and environmental protection) are related but separate entities. In this view, sustainable development is based on trade-offs, where the advancing of one principle will occur at the expense of the others. In 'strong' sustainability the three principles are not viewed as separate, rather society is a subset of the environment and economy a subset of both society and the environment. This view recognises that the economy not only relies on the environment and society for its success but also for its existence. Laine (2005) notes that in 'weak' sustainability environmental and social problems are viewed as less severe than in the 'strong' view, and that in the 'weak' view no radical changes are deemed necessary. These conceptions of 'weak' and 'strong' sustainability are analogous to the above presented conceptions of business-society-nature interface and the integrated and embedded views, respectively (Figure 1).

The principles of sustainable development have been adapted to the practice and research of corporate sustainability. Starting from the intergenerational perspective to sustainability (UNWCED, 1987), Dyllick and Hockerts (2002, p. 131) present that the idea of continuous satisfaction of human needs can be transmitted to business level and present that "corporate sustainability can be accordingly defined as meeting the needs of a firm's direct and indirect stakeholders (such as shareholders, employees, pressure groups, communities etc.), without compromising the ability to meet the needs of future stakeholders as well".

Corporate sustainability often focuses more on the environmental dimension, while the social dimension (e.g. Gladwin, Krause, & Kennelly, 1995) has received less attention. This has resulted in corporate sustainability often being discussed in terms of environmental impacts and eco-efficiency, i.e. the economic value added in relation to aggregated ecological impact (Dyllick & Hockerts, 2002; Figge & Hahn, 2004). A related term, socio-efficiency refers to the relation between value added and the social impact (Dyllick & Hockerts, 2002; Figge & Hahn, 2004). The environmental impacts of an organisation are mostly only negative (except for example, in the case of environmental conservation), while social impacts can be both negative and positive. Global and local negative impacts include for example child labour and poor work conditions, while positive impacts can be achieved by organisations striving to reduce global inequality, to benefit marginalised groups and the local community.

At the level of the society at large, corporate sustainability considers the participation or the role of companies as drivers and enablers of sustainable development of the economy and society (Schaltegger, Beckmann, & Hansen, 2013). However, the ideas of companies as drivers of sustainable development or as sustainable entities are much debated (e.g. Laine, 2005, 2009a; Spence, 2007; Tregidga et al., 2013). Laine (2005) has presented that the so-called business interpretation of sustainability is very similar to 'weak' sustainability requiring no radical changes to the business-as-usual. Further, it has been argued that the original idea of sustainability has been reframed as sustainable development by the western capitalistic, neo-liberal ideology (Urry, 2011/2013, p. 49) and that business has even "hijacked" the concept and redefined sustainable development so that it does not challenge economic progress, growth and development (Tregidga et al., 2013). The main argument seems to be that organisations seek to "sustain the corporation" rather than aiming for sustainability (Banerjee, 2003; Laine, 2009a) and that corporate environmentalism can only occur where such practices generate profit and support business growth (Nyberg & Wright, 2012).

These critical remarks are in apparent contrast with the view emphasising profit, growth and competitiveness that is used to promote sustainability for business organisations. For instance, the EU explicitly promotes CSR for its economic and strategic benefits (Vallentin & Murillo, 2012). Concerning corporate sustainability, a good rule of the thumb is presented by Dyllick and Hockerts (2002, 135): "as long as a firm is operating close to the environment's carrying capacity, it can never be sustainable".

2.1.3 Sustainability management

Companies present the productive resources of the economy (Bansal, 2005). Therefore, even though the idea of companies as drivers of sustainability is contested, they have substantial resources that can be used in helping the society become more sustainable. Yet, addressing sustainability has both practical and theoretical challenges; it requires knowledge that might not be ordinarily found in companies' existing repertoire or experience (Clarke & Roome, 1999). Likewise, Bansal (2005) has noted that corporate sustainability is defined ambiguously, has high uncertainties and the organisational outcomes for it are often unknown.

Addressing sustainability requires organisations to collaborate both outside and inside of the organisation's boundaries (Loorbach, van Bakel, Whiteman, &

Rotmans, 2010; Okereke et al., 2012). Loorbach et al. (2010, p. 133) have presented that sustainability issues cannot be addressed by single organisations "but need to be thought of as systemic challenges in which business, government and civil society each play different roles" and that sustainability "requires co-evolutionary changes in technology, economy, culture and organisational forms". The authors concluded that in order for businesses to achieve radical innovation leading to sustainability, they need to consider themselves as coevolving actors within wider societal system. Also Clarke and Roome (1999) have presented that sustainability management in an organisational context is a multi-party, learning-action process that cuts across existing sectors, functions and disciplinary boundaries.

Recently researchers have called for a more inclusive theory of sustainability management that would acknowledge the natural and social environments at the centre of all human organisational activity (Bansal & Knox-Hayes, 2013; Starik & Kanashiro, 2013). Starik and Kanashiro (2013) noted that while so far management theories have been employed "to help explain the need for and advancement of sustainability management, none of those theories appear to have the unique features, benefits, opportunities, challenges, or orientations to assist individuals, organizations, and societies to move toward sustainability as much and as soon as appears necessary" (ibid, 7). Likewise, Bansal and Knox-Hayes (2013) have argued that management research still relies on existing management practices and theories, the same ones that have contributed to environmental problems. While Starik and Kanashiro (2013) noted that the management profession has a significant role in addressing sustainability challenges, they presented that sustainability should be practised in all human activities; professional and personal, public and private. Thus, their proposition for a sustainability theory is not just a management theory intended to manage sustainability in business organisations (and for profit maximisation), rather it is a theory suggesting that sustainability needs to be infused throughout our daily lives, as other human values (health, freedom) are (ibid, 25). These discussions incorporate a broad view to corporate sustainability discussions, thus expanding organisational boundaries.

As a response to Starik and Kanashiro (2013), Hörisch, Freeman, and Schaltegger (2014) have discussed the applicability and application of stakeholder theory to sustainability management. The authors have presented that their approach applies and advances an existing management theory in the context of sustainability and argue that in this way it would be possible to integrate sustainability to mainstream business discussions. In conclusion the authors acknowledge that both approaches – a distinct theory of sustainability

management, as proposed by Starik and Kanashiro (2013) and building on existing approaches – are justified and necessary to promote sustainability management.

To summarise, addressing and managing sustainability in business organisations requires systemic changes in management practice and conceptions. The current discussion centres on whether we should create a new sustainability theory in order to overcome the shortcomings of existing approaches or whether we should incorporate the sustainability ideas and conceptions to existing theories to make them more suitable to address these complex challenges. In other words, should we remould the existing language or create a new language? So far, this question has been mostly theoretically and conceptually approached while empirical research has remained scarce.

2.2 Climate change in business organisations

2.2.1 The nature of climate change

Climate change is a current but not a new phenomenon. Humans throughout the history have observed changes in climate. Understandings about climate and how it changes have evolved starting from the idea of stable climate to the notion of benign consequences associated with climate change, and finally to the recent vision of abrupt, dangerous human-induced climate change. Ideas about human-induced, often referred to as anthropogenic, climate change have been put forward from the 1900s onwards and such ideas as thresholds, abrupt and non-linear changes, and tipping points were presented in the late 1980s. (Hulme, 2009).

Climate change has intertwined physical and social dimensions. Initially, climate change was constructed as an environmental science problem (Hulme, 2009, xxxii) but is currently framed as a broader societal and sustainability issue. The physical dimension refers to climate change as an environmental change process. A natural process - the same process that keeps the Earth inhabitable - causes climate change and global warming. As the concentration of carbon dioxide (CO_2) and other certain chemicals (methane, nitrous oxide, hydroluorocarbons, perfluorocarbons and sulfur hexafluoride) in the atmosphere increases, the amount of heat from sunlight in the form of infrared radiation captured within our atmosphere increases as well. Without these chemicals, known as 'greenhouse gases' (GHG), the

radiation would reflect off the Earth's surface and radiate back into space. (IPCC, 2007).

According to the Working Reports of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), human action and the resulting GHG and other emissions are the main cause of observed climatic changes (IPCC, 2007). Mitigating climate change requires reducing GHG emissions which is not a simple task: globally the main sources of GHG emissions are population and economic growth. IPCC (2007) has presented that continued GHG emissions will cause further climatic changes and that even if GHG emissions were to cease now, the already started changes in climate would not stop.

Climate change is not a smooth, linear or predictable process. Rather, it is expected to cause dramatic and abrupt changes: growing energy insecurity and higher energy prices, extreme weather events causing economic and physical damage, shortage of fresh water and food, and even declining economies as they try to deal with a different climate. The impacts of climate change are not the same everywhere: notably those will suffer who have not caused the changes or benefited from the industrial era. The natural environment is being exploited, but is not at final jeopardy. The Earth will be able to recover even though humanity might not.

While recognising that climate change has a physical dimension - it is caused by a natural process and has physical impacts on the natural environment, societal systems and societies - this study also considers the social dimension of the phenomenon. The social dimension refers to the notion that climate change has received and continues to receive different situational and cultural meanings depending most notably on the values and beliefs of the communities and individuals discussing it (Hulme, 2009). The cultural meanings of climate change are context dependent and intertwined with the expected physical impacts of climate change. For example, in areas where the average temperatures are expected to rise climate change might receive positive meanings as it could be predicted to boost certain industries such as agriculture and tourism. In other areas where there is a fear of rising sea levels for example, climate change could instead be associated with catastrophic meanings.

The social dimension also refers to the challenges that climate change poses to the ways that we understand the broader social, economic and political order (Wright et al., 2013). This means that our current notions of the economic and social system, especially related to growth, consumption and the markets, might not provide the answers we need in order to tackle climate change and to survive

in a climate changed society (Urry, 2011/2013). Wright et al. (2013) have presented that climate change presents a conceptual challenge to the way in which imagine our existence.

Recent decades have shown that scientific controversy is an inherent element of environmental and sustainability debates. Laymen, policy-makers and consumers are confronted with a multitude of views, research results and suggestions, experts from different disciplines and countries arguing with each other (Hajer, 1995). The controversiality and perceived uncertainty of climate science adds to the complexity of climate change (for a recent discussion of climate science see Cook et al., 2013). This is the paradox of climate change: it is one of the most topical issues facing individuals, businesses and societies and yet the public opinion and discussions are mostly contradicting and inconsistent.

2.2.2 Introducing climate change to business agendas

Climate change was brought to management and organisation studies agendas in the late 1990s. It is curious that management and organisations scholars were rather slow to engage with climate change research, even though the international community had already for long put forward the ideas of 'climate catastrophe' and the links between business and the changes in climate. The first article appeared in the top 30 management journals in 1997 (Levy, 1997), even though global warming and climate change had already been discussed since the 1970s especially in economics and policy journals (Goodall, 2008). During the 1990s articles in management and organisation journals mainly touched upon those issues and it was not until the 2000s that published research on climate change started to increase. In 2007, Harvard Business Review published a special issue 'Climate business/Business climate', and in 2012 special issues of Business & Society (Okereke et al., 2012) and Organization Studies (Wittneben, Okereke, Banerjee, & Levy, 2012) were published. In 2013 these were followed by a special issue of Organization (Wright et al., 2013). Despite these advances and the material and conceptual challenges climate change poses to organisations and to societies, the study of climate change and organisations has still remained a fringe topic within the social sciences (Urry, 2011/2013; Wright et al., 2013)

In current research discussing climate change and management, the relationship between business organisations and climate change is often presented as one of the most fundamental issues of our times. Business organisations and industries have a

critical role in addressing climate change, as they account for a vast majority of GHG emissions. In addition, they have a key role in supporting climate change mitigation which refers to activities aiming to reduce GHG emissions to prevent further climate change, as well as in supporting adaptation that consists of adjustments in managing and responding to actual or expected physical impacts and risks of climate change (Linnenluecke et al., 2013).

The relationship between business and climate change is also a complex one. In 1992 at the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) presented the almost paradoxical relationship between business and climate change: industrial activity is the main cause of CO_2 emissions, yet economic development is needed to achieve innovation and other means to protect the climate (Okereke et al. 2012). Thus, businesses face the challenge of simultaneously achieving economic growth and reducing emissions. So far this has not worked as desired: even though the material threats of climate change have become more severe every year, businesses engage increasingly with sustainability, and politicians call for urgent action, global GHG emissions have increased to record levels (IEA, 2012). Thus, even though climate change and climate change activities are no longer regarded with scepticims in business context, a disconnection between the perceptions of socio-economic activities and climate science is still evident (Urry, 2011/2013; Wright et al., 2013).

2.2.3 Opposition and uncertainty

In the 1990s, climate change and international initiatives to develop emissions regulation faced strong industry opposition (Kolk & Levy, 2001; Kolk & Pinkse, 2005; Levy, 1997). The zeitgeist was that addressing climate change would be very costly and destroy the competiveness of organisations, whereas the contemporary view, popularised by Stern Review (2006), among others, is that not acting will be more costly than immediate action.

Especially industries dependent on fossil fuels, most notably oil and coal, lobbied against climate change regulation. These industries were reluctant to change their businesses as they had many vested interests in using carbon. From the society's point of view, this approach to climate change seems paradoxical: these companies possessed, and possess, substantial technological, financial and organisational resources that could play a major role in mitigating climate change (Kolk & Levy, 2001). Additionally, several industry associations were formed to

oppose international climate treaties. The largest industry group opposing climate change regulation, the Global Climate Coalition (GCC), was established by more than 50 companies and trade associations in the energy and auto industries to oppose activities aiming to mitigate climate change and to convince policy makers not to limit CO_2 emissions (Levy, 1997; Urry, 2011/2013).

The disunited business interests of the 1990s have made it very difficult to reach any binding international agreements about climate change engagement or GHG emissions controls (Levy, 1997). International discussions on climate change are still concerned with establishing GHG reduction targets and the economic implications of the targets and this process. The proposed policies would affect industries and industrial countries in different ways and thus the countries have expressed their concern about the impacts of these policies on international competitiveness (Boiral, Henri, & Talbot, 2012). This dynamic political context exposes businesses to a high level of regulatory uncertainty: it is difficult for businesses to predict what the future international and national regulatory frameworks will be (Boiral et al., 2012; Kolk & Pinkse, 2007a). Thus, uncertainty about regulatory developments may strive companies to adopt a 'wait-and-see' attitude. It is not only the regulatory developments that are uncertain and cause inaction, but the whole issue of climate change is filled with controversies and uncertainties. These uncertainties, in turn, inhibit the development of internationally binding agreements allowing for industry associations to lobby for (de)regulation aligned with their interests.

Uncertainty about the causes and impacts of climate change can inhibit climate activities and investments. The fragmented state of climate science is one reason for uncertainty: there is no consistent climate science and the scientific findings presented are incomplete, uncertain and contested (Hulme, 2009; Urry 2011/2013, 42–43; Winn et al., 2011; see also Cook et al., 2013). In particular, 2009 witnessed an international climate scandal, 'climategate', resulting from the unauthorised release of emails between climate scientists in England and United States (e.g. Leiserowitz, Mailbach, Roser-Renouf, Smith, & Dawson, 2012). The uncertainty of climate science is derived from an incomplete understanding of how the physical climate works, the innate unpredictability of large, complex, and chaotic systems such as the global atmosphere, and the unpredictability of human behaviour now and in the future (Hulme, 2009). Thus, when organisations do not know what the future might hold and what to do, they may choose to remain passive. From a strategic perspective, corporate inertia can be related to companies' specialised competencies and assets that have taken a long time to develop and that provide

competitive advantage. Thus, changing an organisation's strategic or operational direction becomes a major and possibly an unattractive task in the fear of stranded assets (Wittneben et al., 2012).

However, it should be noted that previous literature concerning uncertainty and (in)action remains inconclusive to date: it has been argued that uncertainty about the future helps to push climate change into the strategic agenda and drives action (Arnell & Delaney, 2006; Hertin, Berkhout, Gann, & Barlow, 2003). Others have suggested that although uncertainty may increase the strategic importance of climate change, it may not necessarily drive action (Haigh & Griffits, 2012). Eden (1999) has presented that uncertainty can also be used to excuse inaction by claiming for instance that further research is required to eliminate uncertainty.

Some individuals and organisations choose to deny or ignore climate change. One of the reasons for climate change denial is coined as "Giddens's paradox" (Giddens, 2009; Urry 2011/2013) according to which the dangers of global warming are not palpable and therefore most people do not take action. Giddens (2009) notes that it is difficult for most people to appreciate the future to the same extent that present life and current experiences are valued. In addition, climate change requires changes in consumption patterns which presumes a dramatic shift in cultural values and personal identities. These shifts pose a threat to the industry and question many of the taken-for-granted comforts and norms that we in the Western world are used to (Wittneben et al., 2012, p. 1432). Addressing this is a vast task for companies, industries and the society at large.

2.2.4 Motivations and challenges

In their seminal article, Bansal and Roth (2000) have analysed corporate motivations for environmental behaviour. They have identified three motivations; competitiveness (potential for ecological responsiveness to improve long-term profitability), legitimation (the desire of a firm to improve the appropriateness of its actions within an established set of regulations, norms, values, or beliefs) and ecological responsibility (a motivation that stems from the concern that a firm has for its social obligations and values).

Likewise, motivations to engage with climate change include a series of external and internal factors, ranging from stakeholder pressures to economic and social motives (Boiral et al., 2012; Kolk & Pinkse, 2004). Stakeholder pressures include government regulation, customer expectations and pressures from non-

governmental organisations and other societal actors. These pressures have been identified as a significant determinant of corporate climate strategies (Pinkse & Kolk, 2010; Sprengel & Busch, 2011). Governments pressure organisations to reduce their emissions through regulation of which the Kyoto Protocol is the most prominent example. The countries that ratified the Kyoto protocol have committed to reducing GHG emissions to a pre-specified level, which has a direct impact on companies located in these countries (Kolk & Pinkse, 2007a). Another type of regulation is carbon tax that has been introduced for instance in Finland. Government regulation varies between geographical locations and depending on the type of industry it is viewed as a risk or an opportunity (Kolk & Pinkse, 2004). Industries that have been the main targets of emissions regulations, most notably oil and gas, perceive regulation as a major risk. Financial companies anticipating to facilitate their customers to respond to regulation view it as an opportunity.

The relationship between business and regulation is, however, more complex than just governments pressuring companies to engage with social and environmental issues and companies reacting to these demands. For one, companies and industry associations engage in creating their own standards and initiatives to respond to expected upcoming regulation and to legitimate their activities (Levy & Egan, 2003). Secondly, a recent discussion on CSR and governmentality (Shamir, 2008; Vallentin & Murillo, 2012) has suggested that government is increasingly working "to help private companies to identify/create and act upon strategic opportunities in their environment – not to put social or environmental restrains on them" (Vallentin & Murillo, 2012, p. 826) and that the CSR policy field is characterised by principles of voluntariness and collaboration (ibid.). Thus, government is more than just a demanding force imposing additional costs on business - it promotes CSR as a source of business opportunities and profit.

Economic motivations which are linked to the potential financial benefits that may result from GHG emission reductions are often presented as a primary argument for climate change engagement. Empirical research has suggested that strategic and moral motives coexist while in some instances moral reasons seem to be prioritised over strategic reasons (Brønn & Vidaver-Cohen, 2008, p. 95). For example, in a study focusing on SME manager's motivations to engage with climate change, Williams and Schaefer (2013) found that the most notable motivations seem to be managers' personal values and beliefs after economic arguments and external pressure. In contrast, Brønn and Vidaver-Cohen (2008) found that legitimacy motives gained most support while moral motives were

considered less relevant than motives related to strategic concerns. Nyberg and Wright (2012, p. 1820) have identified that business justifications for climate change activities include such issues as social contribution, organisational and personal well-being, public reputation, and genuine concern for the environment and humanity. Thus, empirical research has identified that there is a wide variety of motivations. Often, due to the complex nature of climate change, these motivations cannot be categorised strictly as economic/strategic or moral. Rather, for instance organisational and personal well-being can include both economic and ethical concerns.

Ignoring climate change and the need to reduce GHG emissions exposes companies such risks as threatened legitimacy of even existence of the company (Boiral et al., 2012; Griffits, Haigh, & Rassias, 2007). The changing regulation could come as a surprise for companies not prepared to take action. In addition, customers and the society are increasingly demanding climate friendly and energy efficient services and products and are quick to point out and draw public attention to misconducts and operations that are deemed to be harmful or indifferent to environmental depletion. In today's world of fast and global communication, companies cannot afford to take such risks. Ignoring climate change exposes companies and organisations to physical risks as well, depending on their industry (Weinhofer & Busch, 2013; Winn et al., 2011).

Climate change challenges current organisational activities in many ways. For one, it is a relatively new, emerging issue and thus there exists no theory or a widely accepted set of practices to engage with it. While environmental management and corporate sustainability frames offer valid starting points to conceptualise corporate responses to climate change it has been noted that these frames might not be able to cover the full complexity of climate change (Slawinski & Bansal, 2012; Sprengel & Busch, 2011). Sprengel and Busch (2011) have presented that climate change is fundamentally different compared to most environmental issues in three ways: it happens on a truly global scale with almost irreversible, yet uncertain, consequences; the cause-and-effect relationships related to climate change are long-term in nature; and climate change impacts cannot be directly attributed to individual causers. In addition, time and time perceptions are key in climate change responses (Slawinski & Bansal, 2012; Weinhofer & Hoffmann, 2010). The effects of climate change are uncertain and might not become reality for decades. On the contrary, the business world tends to focus on the short term which impinges upon planning for decades ahead and dealing with the uncertainties related to the issue.

There is a demand for new capabilities throughout the organisation (Okereke et al., 2012). Firstly, these capabilities include carbon accounting and disclosure. New capabilities are also needed for distilling 'truths' and insights for effective strategy within the organisation and balancing competing opinions, coalitions, and discourses (Haigh & Griffits, 2012; Rothenberg & Levy, 2012). Scholars have suggested partnerships as one way to gain the required resources to address these challenges (Clarke & Roome, 1999; Pinkse & Kolk, 2012). In addition to changes in technology and activities, climate change requires fundamental changes in behaviour, values and culture which might be more difficult than picking the 'low hanging fruit' (Okereke et al., 2012, p. 16). A broader shift in values and culture might be needed as well: a firm might be ready to produce low-carbon products, but it needs the market to change accordingly (Rothenberg & Levy, 2012).

To sum up, motivations for climate action vary from external and strategic motivations to moral concerns for the environment and humanity. In addition, often these motivations combine both strategic and moral elements. However, while previous research has identified that business organisations are motivated to take action on climate change, there are numerous challenges both within and outside the organisations for such action. On the other hand, also the consequences of not taking action are discussed as potentially threatening the existence of organisations. Next, I will turn to previous research on business climate change activities and strategies to further discuss the different ways used to balance the challenges of climate change engagement and the risks of ignoring climate change.

2.2.5 Climate change activities and strategies

Climate change activities are typically classified as mitigation and adaptation. Mitigation refers to activities aiming to cut down GHG and other emissions in order to prevent further global warming (Pinkse & Kolk, 2012). Internal activities leading to reductions in energy use mainly consist of changes in the production process enabled by technological developments in addition to new product development, product innovations, and changes in organisational culture (Kolk & Pinkse, 2004). As well as paying attention to energy use, companies can focus on the types of energy sources. Carbon-based technologies can be substituted by purchasing carbon-free renewable energy or by building the capacity to generate renewable energy in the form of solar or wind power, for example (Kolk & Pinkse,

2004; Slawinski & Bansal, 2012). Activities to reduce emissions can also be externally-oriented (Kolk & Pinkse, 2004). Such activities can focus on impacting subcontractors' activities or customers' emissions through improved energy efficiency of products and services.

So far most business climate change activities have focused on mitigation and organisations are only beginning to consider adaptation (Kolk & Pinkse, 2011). Adaptation refers to activities by which a company learns to deal with actual or expected impacts of climate change (Klein, Schipper, & Desai, 2005), for example by operating in a low-carbon society with weather extremes and higher energy prices. Research has suggested that adaptation occurs as a pre-emptive response to increasing awareness and perceived risks and uncertainty. Recently, Haigh & Griffits (2012) have argued that adaptation occurs as a result of organisations being surprised by changing climatic conditions rather than as a proactive process as discussed in previous literature.

Berkhout, Hertin and Gann (2006) have identified that companies can adapt by making changes to their commercial strategy, technologies used to provide products or services, financial management systems and information and monitoring processes. The required adaptation strategies differ between industries; for example agriculture will face more severe impacts than a clothing store. Both mitigation and adaptation cover a wide variety of activities of which some are a part of companies' existing competences while some require new resources and innovativeness. In addition, some activities, such as substituting carbon-based energy with renewable energy sources, have both mitigation and adaptation elements.

The limitations of the existing categorisations and notions to address climate change have been explicated by Slawinski and Bansal (2012). For one, Slawinski and Bansal (2012) have discussed the typical categorisation of responses to environmental and social issues along a continuum from reactive, or defensive, to proactive, which has been also used in climate change research (Boiral et al., 2012). According to this categorisation, reactive companies deny responsibility and resist responding to social and environmental issues while proactive companies strive to take a leadership position. Slawinski and Bansal (2012) suggested that this categorisation might not be sufficient to provide a thorough explanation of corporate responses to climate change. The authors criticised the hierarchical categorisation implying that one category is superior to another and present that companies can engage in activities that cannot be limited to one distinct category.

For instance, companies emphasising compliance and risks can appear reactive yet their activities focusing on energy efficiency could be categorised as proactive.

For second, Slawinski and Bansal (2012) have argued that an organisation's time perspective relates to its responses to climate change. They have identified two groups of organisations based on their time perspective. The first group of organisations exhibited a linear time perspective that refers to time progressing from past to present and future. These organisations were focused on internal operations to innovate new technologies to improve energy efficiency and competitiveness. They focused on the present and tended to execute a narrow set of solutions to climate change, but they were able to respond with agility and speed. The second group of organisations exhibited a cyclical time perspective that refers to a view where events are seen to repeat themselves. These organisations engaged in a broad range of activities and collaborated with other actors to identify new solutions to climate change, but the breadth of these activities and the complexity of the issue impeded swift responses.

Corporate climate change strategies have been identified as political or non-market, (e.g. influencing policy debates, opposing upcoming regulations) and market strategies (e.g. product and process improvements, emissions trading) (Kolk & Pinkse, 2005, 2007a). Political strategies are most discussed in literature in the US context and related to large multinational corporations such as oil and gas companies (e.g. Kolk & Pinkse, 2005, 2007a). These companies have an integrated strategy consisting of political and market activities that are company-specific and dependent on the perceived risks and opportunities related to climate change and the type of regulation the company is imposed to (Kolk & Pinkse, 2005).

A three-step continuum has been suggested for evaluating corporate climate change strategies (Kolk, 2000). At one end, a defensive posture refers to active opposition of international climate agreements. The opportunistic/hesitant strategy involves preparation for possible regulatory and market changes. At the other end, companies following an offensive strategy strive to take the first step for environmental reasons and increase their competitiveness. At the same time, the potential risks of changing climate are considered so severe that precaution is in order. Kolk and Pinkse (2004) note that companies can move between these strategies and that there might be divergent views between different geographical locations of large organisations.

Kolk and Pinkse (2005) have identified that companies can choose to implement an innovation or a compensation strategy. A company using an innovation strategy focuses on improving its activities or assets through the

development of new technologies or services. A compensation strategy means that a company does not primarily aim to reduce emissions, but merely transfers emissions or emission-generating activities within the company or to other companies. These strategies can be implemented by individual companies or by interacting with other actors. This classification does not explicitly take into account the adaptation perspective since it has a clear emphasis on the present and on short-term activities. It could be argued, though, that some of these activities have long-term effects in addition to the direct, short-term ones. For example, the development of new technologies can have substantial effects on future activities which have not been even planned yet. The classification of innovation and compensation strategies has a short-term, mitigation orientation implied.

To summarise, previous literature has identified and empirically examined climate change activities using a categorisation to mitigation and adaptation activities. The notions presented by Slawinski and Bansal (2012) highlight the challenge of using existing terminology to address climate change, for these conceptualisations and categorisations are developed to address mostly environmental issues whereas climate change is more complex than a 'mere' environmental challenge. In addition to climate change activities, climate change strategies have attracted empirical research. This study does not address climate change activities or strategies as such, rather the constructionist approach of this study directs attention to how climate change engagement is constructed in business organisations. In turn, this study maintains that the ways that climate change engagement is discussed have consequences for subsequent action (Joutsenvirta, 2006) and hence this study explicates also the functions (Potter & Wetherell, 1987) of the climate change engagement discourses.

2.3 Discourses on corporate sustainability and climate change

2.3.1 Corporate environmental and sustainability discourses

Environmental discourses, as such, can be classified in many ways. One useful classification is presented by Livesey (2001): the traditional development paradigm, radical environmentalism, and reform environmentalism. These discourses have been already thoroughly reviewed elsewhere, for a discussion see Tregidga (2007, 41–45). The organisational environmental discourse, as such, is rather fragmented.

The lack of a general theory of management, organisations and the natural environment has been noted as an explanation for this fragmentariness (Etzion, 2007; Kallio, 2004). Within the organisation environmental discourse, the environmental management discourse is however quite established. The environmental management discourse is based on the ideas of identifying and managing actions to reduce the environmental impacts of an organisation, and of utilising environmental management practices to improve a company's competitiveness (Bansal, 2005; Darnall et al., 2008; Jones, 2013; Onkila, 2009, 2011).

The sustainable development discourse has been the focus of research interest of management and organisation and social and environmental accounting scholars. For instance, research has explicated how sustainable development is constructed in business organisation context and how these constructions have affected, or been affected by, broader discourses of sustainable development (e.g. Livesey, 2002b; Tregidga et al., 2013, 2014). Considerable attention has been paid to analysing the constructions in corporate reports, focusing on what "organisations and managers mean when they refer to sustainable development" (Tregidga et al., 2013).

Tregidga et al. (2013, 2014; see also Tregidga, 2007; Tregidga & Milne, 2006) have examined corporate sustainability constructions in New Zealand. Tregidga et al. (2014) have focused on how organisations have constructed an identity in relation to sustainable development and how these identities have evolved over time. They presented a critical analysis of three identities: environmentally responsible and compliant organisations; leaders in sustainability; and strategically "good" organisations. The authors discussed how organisations have maintained a "right to speak" within the sustainable development debate and argue that organisations have been able to both transform the concept of sustainable development and to represent themselves as transformed. Further, they have argued that through the identity transformation, organisations have been able to resist change to business-as-usual.

Laine (2005; see also 2009a, 2009b, 2010b) has examined how sustainable development is constructed in Finnish corporate disclosures. He has presented that sustainable development has been constructed as a win-win concept, "which allows society to enjoy economic growth, environmental protection and social improvements with no trade-offs or radical restructurings in the social order" (2005, 395). Mäkelä and Laine (2011) have discussed how corporate reporting has been used to reinforce particular worldviews in the sustainability debate. The

authors have identified that in annual reports the economic discourse of growth and profitability is used while sustainability reports utilise a "wellbeing" discourse. Mäkelä and Laine (2011) concluded that despite the differences in discourse, both annual and sustainability reports can be seen to serve the dominant social paradigm.

Livesey (2002a) has examined the rhetoric of ExxonMobil's corporate documents. She has presented that the corporate texts promote particular corporate understandings of the problem of the natural environment and legitimate the corporate stance. Livesey (2002a) has argued that ExxonMobil exploited strategies of constructing the company as a protector of life while scapegoating environmentalists and most climate scientists. The author concluded that the ExxonMobil discourse preserves the discourse and practices of economic development, even if it accommodates ecological issues.

Focusing on corporate environmental statements and environmental managers, Onkila (2009) has analysed the rhetoric construction of acceptable environmental management in Finnish business. She has identified three different forms of rhetoric used in environmental statements: rhetoric of autonomy, rhetoric of subordination and rhetoric of joint action and equality. In the interviews of environmental managers the following rhetoric forms were identified: rhetoric of complementary values, rhetoric of conflicting values and rhetoric of intrinsic value of the environment. She has concluded that Finnish business professionals construct conflicting and competing arguments about power relations between different actors and relationships between environmental and economic values. In addition, she has suggested that the position of environmental responsibility is still ambiguous in Finnish business.

Overall, the corporate sustainability discourse is by no means linear or smooth, rather it contains discursive struggles over the role of business in society and over the meaning of sustainable development (Laine, 2009; Livesey, 2002a, 2002b; Livesey & Kearins, 2002; Mäkelä & Laine, 2011; Onkila, 2009; Siltaoja, 2009; Spence, 2007; and many others). A number of actors; business and non-governmental organisations, governments and academics, all construct the meaning of sustainability in their own terms (Eden, 1994; Tregidga et al., 2013). It has been noted that influencing the discourse may be beneficial for organisations (Tregidga et al., 2013). The ones who have the legitimacy to formulate the meaning of sustainable development, and further, of corporate sustainability, and who get their voice heard, are the ones likely to be able to push their agendas and to benefit from the future developments one way or another. Business organisations have engaged

especially in the debate concerning the pragmatics of sustainable development (Tregidga et al., 2013) and overall, the sustainability discourse has been occupied by attempts to reify the concepts (Springett, 2013). Making sense on new, complex issues related to sustainability remains a challenge for business managers. Springett (2003) has presented that a lack of clarity about the core concepts of sustainable development has resulted in a reliance on 'management' concepts and language: in order to manage externalities, such as ecological or political issues, the traditional management paradigm subjects them to technical solutions, unwillingly or not. As discussed in Chapter 2.1.2, corporate sustainability initiatives have been criticised by scholars arguing that the potentially radical term has been altered to benefit primarily business aims, and to "sustain the corporation" (e.g. Banerjee, 2003; Eden, 1994; Laine, 2009a; Spence, 2007; Springett, 2003; Wright et al., 2013).

It seems that a certain criticality toward corporate sustainability is typical for studies addressing the corporate sustainability discourse. Such criticism could be, in turn, criticised for not being constructive and for only pointing out faults without providing solutions. This is, however, not the aim of the stream of literature presented here, rather the critical tone stems from the (critically oriented) discourse analytic, or other related, approaches that these studies have utilised. The aim to look for and question taken-for-granted assumptions is innate to research approaches that strive to challenge rather than reify existing categories in order to point pathways to new understandings (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). The sustainability discourse provides a fertile ground for such examinations. For one, sustainability is a complex phenomenon and thus managing it and accounting for all the dimensions is a challenging task. For second, the debate whether business and sustainability aims can be reconciled is still ongoing and thus attracts considerable research attention. Thirdly, public discussions often criticise corporate sustainability and other related initiatives and the issue attracts academic interest. This study uses a constructive rather than critical approach to examine climate change engagement discourses in business organisations. However, as discussed, a certain criticality is innate to such an approach.

2.3.2 Win-win discourse

The debate whether 'it pays to be green' is still unresolved. There is no consensus of how environmental management and corporate sustainability impact an organisation's success, competitiveness or profitability. The proponents of CSR,

corporate sustainability and similar initiatives argue that social and environmental responsibilities are necessary foundations for achieving the organisations' goals in the long-term and for increasing profitability (e.g. European Commission, 2001, 2006, 2011). For others, taking care of social and environmental issues is an outgrowth of economic profitability – something that can be taken care of to further increase profitability or other business aims, for example image. Despite these differences in opinion and the ongoing debate, the win-win logic has begun to dominate environmental management, corporate sustainability and climate change engagement discourses. Also known as the 'business case approach', the win-win view suggests that environmental, social and economic goals are mutually compatible (e.g. Bansal, 2005; Hahn et al., 2010).

The win-win logic and the business case approach are widespread ways to make sense about and promote environmental and sustainability management. Corporate management, trade associations and also governments are increasingly using the 'economised' language of responsibility (Shamir, 2008) promoting a positive image of CSR as based on strategic and economic opportunities (Vallentin & Murillo, 2012). The discourse emphasises that doing good is good for business. This reasoning is used as a justification for voluntary initiatives as opposed to strict regulation (Shamir, 2008).

This popular view is not without its critics. The critics argue that in the end, corporate environmentalism is based on, and thus restricted by, the business logic of maximising shareholder returns and therefore always prioritises this goal over environmental or sustainability goals (Banerjee, 2003; Hahn et al., 2010; Levy & Egan, 2003; Nyberg & Wright, 2012). Hahn et al. (2010) have stated that the win-win view is simplistic and argue that trade-offs and conflicts in corporate sustainability are the rule rather than the exception. They presented that "in trade-off situations it is impossible to achieve two or more desirable objectives simultaneously; rather decision-makers need to weight a loss in at least one dimension against a gain in other dimensions" (2010, p. 219). Further, they argued that the win-win view limits the scope of potential corporate responses and approaches to sustainable development and that the win-win paradigm leads research to be trapped in a tunnel vision where contributions outside the win-win logic are systematically overlooked. Also Banerjee (2001) has noted that it remains unclear what happens to environmental issues that do not meet the win-win criteria, i.e. when what is good for the environment is not good for business?

The win-win logic implies a false sense of security promoting the impression that the issues have been solved for all parties, while for example problems of

systemic injustice have not been solved or have even been increased (Levy, 2008, Crane, Palazzo, Spence, & Matten, 2014). It has been argued that the win-win activities are only able to provide partial solutions to the 'easy problems', rather than being able to address complex sustainability issues. On the other hand, research has also identified that economic goals are not the only motivation for managers to engage with sustainability issues, rather the importance of personal values and beliefs has been acknowledged (Bansal & Roth, 2000; Jones, 2013; Williams & Schaefer, 2013; Wright & Nyberg, 2012). Thus, discussing motives and justifications for sustainability and climate change activities only in economic terms belittles the complexity of managerial interests.

2.3.3 Climate change discourses

Business organisations have a crucial role in addressing climate change and developing solutions for the society to cope with the issue. Thus, the business managers' perceptions of climate change become focal, because they are linked to the decisions regarding technologies and production methods, products and marketing, energy management and lobbying activity that will shape the way the society addresses the issue (Wittneben et al., 2012). In addition, as business managers with high status and good reputation are often powerful figures in society, they can act in the forefront in creating societal change.

Business managers' perceptions of climate change can be influenced by a multitude of actors and actions. Most notably, these perceptions are rooted in the ways climate change is discussed in public arenas, in politics and by media institutions. The economic, scientific, catastrophe and denial discourses dominate the public debates. A dominant way to discuss climate change in the developed countries is by using language focusing on economics and technological development. In the economic discourse, climate change is constructed as a business opportunity rather than a threat (Urry, 2011/2013). The economic discourse suggests that technological development and steady economic progression enables fossil fuels to be gradually replaced by renewable sources of energy. This discourse is mostly used by business professionals and economists. The Stern Review is an example of the economic discourse as it frames climate change as a market failure and emphasises the role of technology in providing solutions (Hulme, 2009).

The economic and the win-win focus dominate discussions about corporate climate change engagement as well (Wittneben et al., 2012). Related to climate change, the underlying rationale of the win-win discourse is that saving energy saves money. Energy saving and energy efficiency are key ways to reduce organisations' GHG emissions. It is often argued that these energy savings can be achieved by rationalising business activities which requires little or no economic investments. In relation to climate change the paradox of maximising economic and environmental benefits simultaneously is most evident in industries producing luxury consumer items, for example SUV's. The business logic in these industries is largely based on the idea of cheap energy and on continuous growth and consumerism which are inconsistent with such business climate change initiatives as emissions reductions of production processes and consumer products.

The economic discourse of climate change has been criticised for encouraging improvements in energy efficiency because of operational advantages rather than investments in renewable energy sources or seeking to develop alternative business models (Wright et al., 2012). Technological solutions and energy efficiency are also emphasised in the current cleantech discourse (Caprotti, 2012). The discourse presents cleantech as a 'technical fix' or a solution to the climate crisis. It should be noted, however, that the cleantech discourse also puts forward innovative approaches and renewable energy (Caprotti, 2012).

A more drastic view of climate change is presented by climate scientists, most notably by the IPCC. The scientific discourse is based on a view of radical, abrupt climatic changes that require fundamental changes in societies, in societal structures and activities (Urry, 2011/2013). Change and adaptation are seen as possible, yet requiring immediate action. Scientific constructions dominate climate change policy debates and global environmental problems are mostly known to us through the language of science (Eden, 1999; Hulme, 2009). However, climate science is a controversial issue attracting the attention of the media and other societal actors (Hulme, 2009). The scientific discourse and the emphasis of climate change as a threat is more and more utilised in research focusing on climate change and organisations. Especially research criticising the current state or organisational responses to climate change utilised the threat construction to highlight the urgency for practical and academic action (e.g. Starik & Kanashiro, 2013; Wright et al., 2013).

Rothenberg and Levy (2011) have examined corporate perceptions of climate science using institutional theory perspective. Institutional theory is based on the idea that markets and organisations are embedded within institutional fields with

cultural, symbolic and regulatory dimensions (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Thus, the institutional perspective implies that corporate strategies regarding climate change are based on understandings of climate science, expected regulation and the market potential for mitigation technologies (Rothenberg & Levy, 2011). The authors presented that corporate scientists can act as institutional entrepreneurs introducing new discourses to the organisation. Each company interprets the discourses through their own unique frames which are produced by institutional history and organisational culture (Boxenbaum, 2006; Rothenberg & Levy, 2011). The authors concluded that a company's perception of climate science affects not only their own decisions but it can also impact the behaviour of competitors, policy makers and other stakeholders.

The climate catastrophe discourse remains a marginalised discourse in the business realm. The discourse emphasises that the society will not be able to adjust to the radical changes and that there will be climate wars over diminishing natural resources and as climate refugees seek for asylum (Urry, 2011/2013). Lastly, the denial discourse criticises and denies climate change and related science, because of the many uncertainties prevailing in research. Some argue that there is no anthropogenic climate change while others state that the possible global warming might actually benefit societies.

To conclude, sustainability and climate change discourses have the potential to challenge the dominating conventional discourses focusing on shareholder value, economic growth and profit maximisation (Wright et al., 2012). And it is not only the business world and business language that climate change challenges. As Wright et al. (2012, p. 1452) have presented "climate change discourse therefore challenges not only established assumptions of social and economic activity, but also our understanding of ourselves as individuals, our social roles and identities." It becomes the daunting task of business managers and practitioners to negotiate these conflicting discourses in order to manage themselves and others.

2.4 Positioning the study within the conceptual framework

This chapter has presented the conceptual framework for this study. In this study, climate change is defined as a sustainability issue and thus the chapter began with presenting previous research on environmental management and corporate sustainability in order to provide a basis for discussing climate change. Previous research on the relationship between the natural environment and business has

suggested that understanding the natural environment-business relationship is crucial for the well-being and survival of an organisation (Driscoll & Starik, 2004; Marcus et al., 2010; Winn & Pogutz, 2013). In particular, climate change brings forth how the natural environment is affected by business operations, and how changes in the environment can affect these operations (e.g. Haigh & Griffits, 2009).

Research on corporate sustainability has discussed the principles of sustainable development and the integration of these principles within business objectives (e.g. Dyllick & Hockerts, 2002; Laine, 2005; Tregidga, 2007). Typically sustainability is conceptualised as 'weak' or 'strong'. 'Strong' sustainability recognises that the economy not only relies on the environment and society for its success but also for its existence, whereas 'weak' sustainability views environmental and social problems as less severe (Laine, 2005; Tregidga, 2007). Organisational sustainability has also been criticised by scholars arguing that business actors have redefined sustainability so that it does not challenge the business interests of econmic growth and development (e.g. Banerjee, 2003; Laine, 2009a; Nyberg & Wright, 2012; Tregidga et al., 2013; Wright et al. 2013).

After that, the chapter presented previous research focusing on climate change in business organisations. First, the complexity of climate change was discussed by explicating the physical and social dimensions of climate change and how they are intertwined. The social dimension refers to the notion that climate change has received and continues to receive different situational and cultural meanings depending most notably on the values and beliefs of the communities and individuals discussing it (Hulme, 2009). This study assumes a social constructionist approach to address climate change engagement. This view does not denote that the physical and material sides of climate change are ignored; rather, they are acknowledged and discussed in the ways they are given meaning in the empirical data.

The review of previous research on corporate climate change presented the ways in which climate change hit business agendas from the 1990s onwards. Business responses to climate change has evolved from opposition and inaction to action and to viewing climate change as a strategic issue. Motivations to address climate change include a series of external and internal factors, ranging from stakeholder pressures to economic and social motives (Boiral et al., 2012; Kolk & Pinkse, 2004). While economic benefits are often presented as primary motive studies have suggested that strategic and moral motives coexist and that in some cases moral motives and managers' personal values and beliefs are even prioritised

over strategic motives (Brønn & Vidaver-Cohen, 2008; Williams & Schaefer, 2013). However, due to the complex nature of climate change, these motivations cannot always be categorised strictly as economic/strategic or moral.

Climate change activities are typically classified as mitigation, i.e. activities cutting down GHG and other emissions, and adaptation, i.e. activities by which a company learns to deal with actual or expected impacts of climate change (e.g. Haigh & Griffits, 2012; Kolk & Pinkse, 2011; Pinkse & Kolk, 2012) and strategies as non-market and market strategies (Kolk & Pinkse, 2005, 2007). The notions presented by Slawinski and Bansal (2012) highlight the challenge of using existing terminology to address climate change, for these conceptualisations and categorisations are developed to address mostly environmental issues whereas climate change is more complex than a 'mere' environmental challenge.

Lastly, the theoretical part reviewed previous studies focusing specifically on research on environmental, sustainability and climate change discourses. There has been a steady and increasing interest in studying sustainability in business context from a linguistic perspective. Previous research has examined how environmental and sustainability issues are constructed in business context and the opportunities and challenges of addressing economic, environmental and social goals simultaneously. A typical way to discuss sustainability and to integrate the three goals is presented by the win-win view. The win-win view suggests that the economic, social and environmental goals can be achieved simultaneously. Critics of the win-win view have expressed that in the end, economic goals are always prioritised over environmental and social goals in business organisations. Previous research has also examined discursive legitimation of CSR and justification of climate change practices.

It has been argued that conceptual changes are needed in order to tackle climate change and that the research needs new ways of "imagining climate changed world(s)" (Wright et al., 2013). It is an issue that does not subject itself easily to be governed or managed, at least not in the traditional sense. Even though businesses are aware of the possible impacts of climate change, the implemented policies and measures remain generally limited (Boiral et al., 2012). According to Urry (2011/2013, p. 11) we need changes in societal processes and structures. Thus we need to reform societal worlds and manifestations at a fundamental level in order to achieve shifts in the world views of business and consumers.

To summarise, empirical research on climate change engagement discourses in business organisations remains incohesive and scarce to date. This study joins and contributes to earlier research on corporate sustainability and climate change by

analysing business professionals' constructions of climate change engagament. This study focuses on how business professionals themselves describe and construct their climate change engagement while previous research has mostly analysed corporate reports (Laine, 2005; Nyberg & Wright, 2012; Springett, 2003; Williams & Schaefer, 2013; Wright, Nyberg & Grant, 2012). Previous research has noted that sustainability and climate change are presented as manageable phenomena in business organisations (Besio & Pronzini, 2014; Laine, 2005; Mäkelä & Laine, 2011; Spence, 2007; Tregidga & Milne, 2006) but empirical examinations analysing how they are constructed as such in language use are scarce if not non-existent to date. This viewpoint is addressed in this study as it is of utmost importance in order to further understand the consequences of such language use to business organisations, climate change and to society at large.

3 METHODOLOGICAL CHOICES

3.1 Joining the research tradition of social constructionism

Doing research is about making choices. The choices a researcher makes provide the backbone to a piece of research; they guide the research journey giving answers and providing help and ultimately defining the kind of research to be conducted. The most fundamental choice is related to the paradigm or research tradition the research desires to join, for paradigms are based on certain a world views or belief systems the researcher subsequently subscribes to. Then, methodological choices related to data generation and analysis define in the end the kinds of results and conclusions the research can aim for. All of these choices should be clearly presented and argued for in order for the reader to understand and to be able to evaluate the study. In the following chapters I will present and discuss the choices I have made in this research.

The most fundamental choice is related to the research paradigm, also referred to as the research tradition or philosophy. I have chosen the interpretive, constructionist research tradition for this study. Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, p. 19) note that even though there are many versions of interpretivism and constructionism they all share a concern with subjective and shared meanings and how people interpret and understand social events and settings. These traditions are philosophically based on hermeneutics and phenomenology (ibid, p. 19).

In this study, my interest is on the shared understandings of climate change engagement and how they become constructed through language use as social interaction. Social constructionism is one form of the interpretive, constructionist research tradition. The main idea of social constructionism is that social reality is created and maintained within social human interaction (Berger & Luckmann, 1966), thus the social reality is not seen as independent of its actors. This approach assumes a relativist ontology, referring to that there are multiple realities, and a subjectivist epistemology acknowledging that knower and subject create understandings (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, pp. 13–14). Thus, "as the word [constructionism] suggests, meaning is not discovered but constructed" (Crotty, 1998, p. 42). Access to shared dynamic and individually constructed realities is

possible only through social constructions such as language and shared meanings (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008, p. 19).

Typically environmental and sustainability issues are studied as natural scientific phenomena and the perception of objective reality has dominated the field (Onkila, 2009, p. 70). While the realist perspctive assumes that the natural environment presented in discussions is equivalent to the environment 'out there', it fails to recognise that we act upon images and constructions of reality (Hajer, 1995, p. 16). Researchers who have adopted a constructionist perspective have presented that environmental issues are subjective and socially constructed (e.g. Joutsenvirta, 2006; Onkila, 2009; Väliverronen, 1996). Accordingly, sustainability issues, such as climate change, are seen to receive meaning through social interaction and they can be only defined as problems after they have been identified as such (Joutsenvirta, 2006; Hajer, 1995; Wolff, 1998). Defining something as a problem is both a description and a definition of the issue and thus all information concerning the natural environment contains an interpretation of the object of speech (Väliverronen, 1996, p. 43).

I recognise that there are many understandings about social constructionism and the expediency of the concept can be argued. For example, Hacking (1999/2009) has argued that when an issue is presented as 'socially constructed' it becomes separated from its material manifestation or the physical dimension of the issue becomes diminished or even denied. In this study, the constructionist perspective does not denote that sustainability issues are not 'real' problems or that the nature 'out there' is seen as irrelevant (Hajer, 1995). Rather, material objects, such as the nature, exist independent of our knowledge of them, but they only receive meaning and become meaningful when human beings engage with them (Crotty, 1998). For example the natural environment could receive quite different meanings when discussed by forestry companies, farmers or radical environmentalists. While a realist perspective would focus on revealing one, objective reality, the constructionist perspective allows for multiple perspectives and is interested in how people construct versions of social reality (Burr, 1995; Crotty, 1998). Further, the ways these issues are presented have practical consequences (Joutsenvirta ,2006, pp. 31–32; Hajer, 1995; Harré, Brockmeier, & Mühlhäusler, 1999; Phillips & Hardy, 2002; Potter & Wetherell, 1987). The constructionist perspective highlights that 'certain ways of talking' define issues, subjects and social relations (Joutsenvirta, 2009). These definitions and interpretations become 'facts' when they are presented and thus they will be drawn

upon in future discussions (Alasuutari, 1995, pp. 156, 282; Joutsenvirta, 2006, p. 37).

The term social construction has been criticised for being contrived (Hacking, 1999/2009). Hacking (1999/2009) has presented that calling something 'socially constructed' is stating the obvious, when we already know that we are interested in the "idea" representing something. Further, he has noted that it is not sensible to talk about construction when the 'actual' construction of the issue is not being explicated. In this study, 'social' refers to the discourses and constructions under study becoming created in language use as (granted, quite obviously) social interaction. However, the term 'social' directs attention to the view that a topic can receive different meanings depending on the context in which the interaction takes place. The construction of the climate change engagement discourses is explicated by discussing how meanings are produced and maintained and how these meanings, in turn, shape and become shaped in discourses used to talk about climate change engagement.

When researching language, a distinction between a reflective and a constructive approach to language is often made (Joutsenvirta, 2009). The reflective approach sees language as reflecting reality and is based on a separation of the reality under study, 'out there', and the research subjects' statements about that reality. This approach ignores the crucial question of how certain 'ways to talk' about these problems define things, subjects and social relations. On the contrary, the constructive approach to language focuses on the language use and sees language practices as constituting social reality. The constructive, functional approach is interested in how particular ways to use language perform social actions, i.e. get things done (Potter & Wetherell, 1987). To recap, in this study climate change engagement is viewed as a socially constructed and discursive phenomenon that is continuosly given meaning and made meaningful in language use.

3.2 Conducting discourse analysis

3.2.1 Premises of discourse analysis

The methodological approach of this study is based on the discourse analytical tradition. In past decades, the linguistic turn has focused attention on language and on how it constructs the social world (Alvesson & Kärreman, 2000; Fairhurst &

Grant, 2010). Discourse analysis, and other analysis methods focusing on language and language use have gained increasing attention in organisation and management research, and also in studies focusing on environmental and sustainability issues (e.g. Joutsenvirta, 2009; Laine, 2005, 2010b; Livesey, 2002a, 2002b; Siltaoja, 2009; Tregidga et al., 2013, 2014).

There are many ways of defining discourses, discourse analysis and of conducting such an analysis. Typically the definitions of discourse analysis refer to the study of structure and form of language and/or language as social interaction (van Dijk, 1997), in other words human communication. Some approaches focus more on linguistics and others on broader contexts in which the discourses are produced (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). In general, the aim of discourse analysis is not to focus solely on language, rather on the cultural meanings attached to people, artefacts, events and experiences and on how these meanings are mediated through language practices (Boje, Oswick, & Ford, 2004; Chia, 2000; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008, p. 227; Fairclough, 1995; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). The aim of discourse analysis is to analyse the production and variability of these meanings and their functions in social interaction. The aim of this kind of analysis is to gain knowledge on culture and society, not so much on language per se (Pietikäinen & Mäntynen, 2009).

Discourse analytic approaches can be categorised in many ways. One such distinction is made between constructivist and critical approaches (Phillips & Ravasi, 1998 as cited in Phillips & Hardy, 2002). The constructivist approaches focus on the processes of social construction that constitute social reality whereas the critical approaches emphasise the dynamics of power, knowledge, and ideology surrounding discursive processes. Critical studies are often influenced by Foucault's work. These approaches are not mutually exclusive and good studies often combine some elements of both and are sensitive to a variety of issues (ibid.). My approach leans more to the constructivist side, as the focus of interest is on how particular phenomena are created, reified and recreated in social interaction to create particular social 'realities'. Thus, my interest is on understanding the relationships between social reality and the discourses constituting it.

In this study, the focus is on the social reality of climate change engagement in business organisations. The social reality is what 'surrounds' all action, thus it creates the frames in which new products, services and processes are created and produced. The creation of new concepts and products leads to new understandings between organisations and the natural environment (Phillips & Hardy, 2002, p. 32), and therefore it is interesting to study these new understandings and their

production. The discourse analytic approach posits that meanings are not stable; rather, they are constantly recreated and negotiated in each situation.

This study is based on the following four basic assumptions about language, discourses and discourse analysis (Jokinen et al., 1993; Joutsenvirta, 2006):

1. Language and social interaction construct reality.

Phillips and Hardy (2002, p. 5) state that discourse analysis is a powerful method for studying social phenomena because of the interconnectedness of discourse and the social world. Discourse and the social world constitute each other. Language use is seen as a practice that not only describes, but also constructs, gives meaning to and maintains social reality (Jokinen et al., 1993). Thus, language is seen as constructing social reality, not as a route to the discovery of an objective reality (Phillips & Hardy, 2002).

2. Social reality is constituted of various parallel and conflicting discourses.

Social reality takes shape as a multifold system consisting of various parallel and conflicting discourses that attach meaning to the world, processes and relations in different ways (Boje et al., 2004; Jokinen et al., 1993; Potter & Wetherell, 1987). This means that there is no single way of talking about climate change. For example, climate change can be perceived as a threat or an opportunity. At times these competing perceptions are even used by the same person or within one company.

In this study, the concept of discourse is defined according to Phillips and Hardy, following the definition originally presented by Parker in 1992 defining "a discourse as an interrelated set of texts, and the practices of their production, dissemination, and reception, that brings an object into being" (Phillips & Hardy, 2002, p. 3). The connections between discourse and texts are of utmost importance in discourse analysis. Discourses are embodied and enacted in texts that can take a variety of forms from written texts, to spoken words, pictures and so forth (Grant, Keenoy, & Oswick, 1998; Oswick, Keenoy, & Grant, 2000, p. 1116; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). Texts are considered as a material manifestation of discourse (Chalaby, 1996). Thus, discourse analysis focuses on analysing texts and how they are made meaningful through their production, dissemination and consumption.

We can never find discourses in their entirety - thus, we analyse texts to find clues about the nature of the discourse. We must analyse bodies of texts, because it

is the interrelations between texts and their production that constitute a discourse. (Phillips & Hardy, 2002, p. 5). In brief, discourse is "constituted by multiple texts in a particular social and historical context" (Phillips & Hardy, 2002, p. 19). Thus, this study assumes that people give objects, events and phenomena meaning by the way they represent them (Hall, 1997, p. 3; Joutsenvirta, 2009, p. 242).

3. Discourses are constructed in relation to various contexts.

Discourses are produced and maintained in various social practices, in various contexts and in relation to other discourses (Jokinen et al., 1993; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). Fairclough and Wodak (1997, p. 277) have noted: "Discourses are always connected to other discourses which were produced earlier, as well as to those which are produced synchronically and subsequently." In discourse analysis, (multidimensional) contexts are not seen as distractions that should be eliminated in order not to interfere with the results (Jokinen et al., 1993). Rather, understanding context is crucial for analysing discourses and ignoring these contexts would be underutilisation of the texts (Alasuutari, 1995; Silverman, 2001). Thus, in discourse analysis, the focus of attention is both on the content of the texts – on the discourses – and on the contexts in which the texts are produced and used.

Taking the context into account means that the social reality and practices under study are observed and examined in relation to the time and place where they are situated and that interpretation is done in relation to these time(s) and place(s) (Jokinen et al., 1993; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). Discourses do not possess meaning or occur in vacuum; rather, they are "shared and social, emanating out of interactions between social groups and the complex societal structures in which the discourse is embedded" (Phillips & Hardy, 2002, p. 4).

Contexts in discourse analysis can be categorised in various ways. In this study, the analysis focuses on text and context, and the aim is not to do micro-analysis or to identify grand discourses (Alvesson & Kärreman, 2000). The ideas of interaction context and cultural context, as discussed by Jokinen et al. (1993, pp. 31–33), are useful. Interaction context consists of the characteristics of interaction that are essential for interpreting the talk. Themes and arguments used in talk are not autonomous; rather, they are constructed in relation to others and other people in interaction (Jokinen et al., 1993). In this study, the workshops and interviews provide interaction contexts. Both of these interaction situations provide an interesting, unique setting where understandings about climate change in business

context were created, recreated and maintained in overlapping and competing ways.

The cultural context means that the analysis will try to identify issues that can only be interpreted by a researcher that is part of the same culture and hence shares the same views about people, objects and events. In the analysis this means that the researcher identifies issues that are taken-for-granted in the cultural context and those that are used in argumentation. (Jokinen et al., 1993, pp. 32–33). The cultural context should be an integral part of the analysis process, not just an issue defined beforehand (Alasuutari, 1995). In this study, these contexts are discussed as micro and macro contexts. Micro context refers to the interaction context and macro consisting of social and cultural contexts (Siltaoja, 2009) to the cultural context as explicated here. These are discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.3.

4. Language use has consequences.

In common use, language is often understood as a mere description of objects, people and events. Language use, however, has consequences (Boje et al., 2004; Lämsä & Tiensuu, 2002; Phillips & Hardy, 2002; Pietikäinen & Mäntynen, 2009; Potter & Wetherell, 1987; Weick 1979, 1995, 2001). In discourse analysis, language is viewed as a 'tool' for describing reality and for producing statements about it, and also as a 'tool' for constructing social reality (Jokinen et al., 1993; Potter & Wetherell, 1987, pp. 17–18, 32–33). These points are also argued for in the pragmatist approach (Wicks & Freeman, 1998; Freeman et al., 2010, pp. 70–79) emphasising the interconnectedness of accounts of a situation, reality and facts. The pragmatists argue that there is no way finding a truly objective account of a situation and that any attempt to formulate such an account is embedded in human experience, language and culture (Wicks & Freeman, 1998). Language use has both situational functions (Potter & Wetherell, 1987, pp. 32–33) and ideological consequences (ibid., p. 187). Situational functions refer to those purposes that a statement can have in given context; for example a statement can be used to legitimise something, to lighten the mood or to ask for apology. While situational functions focus on isolated situations, ideological functions transcend particular situations. The ideological consequences are related to the intertwined relations of discourse and power, and are discussed in the critical discourse analytic approach (e.g. Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

It is rarely interesting to focus the analysis solely on the discourses, rather it is more interesting to examine the consequences and functions of language use. In

addition, ignoring the consequential nature of discourses produces a rigid notion of discourses as static systems with no connection to practice (Jokinen et al., 1993, p. 28). Even though discourse analysis has an explicit focus on language and language use, it does not mean that concrete, material objects are ignored. If a study focuses merely on language and changes in language use are explained using cultural issues, the researcher cannot comment on the concrete issue that is the object of language use, i.e. what is talked about (Väliverronen, 1996). In this study this is acknowledged: the focus is on language use and on how particular ways of understanding climate change engagement are constructed by using certain discursive constructions. Further, this study discusses the functions of the discourses (Lämsä & Tiensuu, 2002; Potter & Wetherell, 1987, pp. 32–33), i.e. how the discourses are used to discursively manage climate change engagement. In addition, the study discusses the consequences of this language use for climate change, business and the society at large.

3.2.2 Functions of discourses

This study subscribes to the constructive, functional view of language suggesting that talk constructs action (Potter & Wetherell, 1987). Thus, this study is interested in the ways that climate change engagement is discussed have consequences for subsequent action (Joutsenvirta, 2006; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). In the contexts of sustainability and climate change, especially the notion of legitimacy, i.e. the sense of acceptance, has been examined. Legitimacy could be seen as a typical function of discourse. Prior research has addressed how legitimacy has been discursively created and maintained, the different discursive strategies used to legitimate organisational action and in addition, how the conflicting goals of economy and environment or the social good become justified by organisational actors. (e.g. Joutsenvirta & Vaara, 2009; Laine, 2009a, 2009b; Nyberg & Wright, 2012; Siltaoja, 2009; Vaara & Tienari, 2008; Vaara, Tienari, & Laurila, 2006). Discursive strategies typically refer to the strategic use of discourses in order to contribute to the production of a certain social reality (Hardy & Phillips, 1999).

Based on Van Leeuwen's (1995) original legitimisation categorisation, five main strategies focusing on organisational phenomena have been identified as authorisation, based on the authority of tradition, custom, law or persons with authority; moral evaluation based on norms and values; rationalisation based on utility; narrativisation constructing cautionary and moral tales; and normalisation,

referring to the normal and the natural (Siltaoja, 2009; Vaara et al., 2006). Van Leeuwen (1995) divided rationalisation further into theoretical rationalisation legitimising practices by reference to the natural order of things and to instrumental rationalisation, which is constructed by referring to the goals, uses and effects of practices. Joutsenvirta (2011) has identified in her study concerning the discursive legitimation struggles between a company and an activist NGO three types of rationalisation strategies: scientific rationalisation based on scientific and/or technological knowledge and expertise; nationalistic rationalisation based on referring to national economic benefits; and commercial rationalisation based on commercial and competitive benefits.

Siltaoja (2009) has examined the emergence of legitimation strategies in a CSR framework focusing on how a newspaper organisation is legitimised as a socially responsible organisation. She has concluded that the corporate responsibility of the organisation is constructed around a discursive struggle between business goals and social and professional claims. In addition, she suggested that some strategies are more appropriate to legitimise certain ideas of CSR than others: rationalisation legitimises practices linked to business continuity or change while moralisation was used in delegitimisation purposes in order to construct tensions between different CSR agendas.

Nyberg and Wright (2012) have analysed how organisations and managers justify their climate change practices in order to respond to criticism. They used a conceptual matrix of Boltanski and Thévenot (1999, 2000, 2006) presenting how arguments are mobilised through engagement with plural common goods, 'worths', such as market worth emphasising competitiveness and profitability, civic worth evaluated as collective welfare and green worth focusing on sustainability. The findings of the study showed that while market values were dominant, managers expressed plural values showing simultaneously passion for the environment and the aim of creating a better society.

Further, Nyberg and Wright (2012) showed how managers use discursive strategies to make these conflicting values appear compatible. The combining strategy was used to combine two different justifications in one single practice: For example, a practice was claimed to address both the good of the market and the good of the environment. The collapsing strategy refers to a situation when a practice with two justifications is evaluated primarily according to one of them. The practice was justified based on the value that was deemed most important for the particular critic. For example, the value of the environment was displaced in favour of the market. The coupling strategy bounds two justifications together

within two practices and these practices become evaluated simultaneously. Thus, the two practices are dependent on each other's justifications. For example, public policy advocacy for renewable energy (environmental) and investment in renewable technologies (market). The connecting strategy refers to multiple independent practices that were connected in terms of their later justification. The practices were connected to support an initiative and thus, references to different worths were subsumed into a more singular and later developed justification. Nyberg and Wright (2012) suggested that these strategies were at best temporary solutions: the strategies opened doors to further criticism as the critics could point out where the claimed worths were not satisfied or where alternative worths were seen as more important.

To sum up, previous research has examined discursive legitimation of CSR and justification of climate change practices. Thus, there is only limited available research focusing on the consequences of language use related to climate change engagement in business organisations, i.e. the functions of climate change engagement discourses. Previous research has noted that sustainability and climate change are presented as manageable phenomena (Besio & Pronzini, 2014; Laine, 2005; Mäkelä & Laine, 2011; Spence, 2007; Tregidga & Milne, 2006) in business organisations but empirical examinations analysing how they are constructed as such in language use are scarce if not non-existent to date. This is what this study aims to address by analysing the functions of the discourses. This viewpoint is of utmost importance in order to further understand the consequences of such language use to business organisations, climate change and to society at large.

3.3 Contextualising the research

3.3.1 Macro context – Climate change discussions in Finland

Understanding the contexts in which discourses become produced is of utmost importance in discourse analytical studies (Alasuutari, 1995; Jokinen et al., 1993; Silverman, 2001). In this chapter, I explicate the contexts of this study: climate change discussions in Finland as macro context and the Peloton project and the related workshop and interview data as micro contexts. First, the macro context focuses on the social and cultural contexts (Siltaoja, 2009) and on culturally

produced discourses and meanings that serve as a context for the climate change engagement discourse this study analyses.

The public and political discussions and debates illustrate how climate change was perceived in the society at large at the time of the study. In general, these discussions provide points of reference for business professionals working with climate change in their organisations. As climate change is a relatively new topic in public, political and business agendas, there is no single established way of speaking about it. This diversity of discourses is fueled by the controversial nature of the phenomenon. The discourses are constantly evolving which is evident in the on-going struggle for meaning in public debates about the whats and whys of climate change and climate change activities. In order to be able to account for the intertextual nature of discourse and to situate and interpret the observations drawn from the data, I will now introduce the economic-political situations and popular discourses related to climate change that were prevailing at the time of the study.

Finland is known as an active and well-established country advancing sustainability issues (see e.g. Berg & Hukkinen, 2011a, 2011b; Kerkkänen, 2010; Laine, 2005; Mäkelä & Laine, 2011; Onkila, 2009). In the light of sustainability, Finland is also a controversial country with a high use of natural resources, material and energy intensive industry and the Finns having a large ecological footprint (Berg & Hukkinen 2011a).

Overall, environmental values are widespread in the Finnish society and the Finns are concerned about climate change. In 2009, 67% of respondents of the national EVA[1] Attitude and Value Survey 2009 indicated that they are prepared in principle to lower their standard of living for the good of the environment (EVA, 2009; Haavisto & Kiljunen, 2009). In the 2011 Attitude and Value Survey 69% of the respondents agreed with the statement that climate change is the greatest environmental hazard of our times and requires global immediate action, while 17% disagreed (Haavisto & Kiljunen, 2011). The concern has decreased since 2006 when 86% agreed (5% disagreed) with the same claim. Trust in corporations acting environmentally responsibility is also common: in 2011 48% agreed with the claim that currently Finnish corporations are environmentally responsible (25% disagreed) (Haavisto & Kiljunen, 2011).

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[1]Finnish Business and Policy Forum EVA (Elinkeinoelämän valtuuskunta in Finnish) is a policy and pro-market think tank. EVA's aim is to identify and evaluate trends that are important to Finnish companies and for the long-term success of the society as a whole (www.eva.fi/en/).

In her dissertation on environmental rhetoric in Finnish business, Onkila (2009) discussed the background of environmental management in Finland. During the 1980s and 1990s, a change in business attitudes towards environmental protection took place, largely due to raising public environmental consciousness and tightening environmental legislation (Rohweder, 2004). Finnish business have since become active in implementing environmental management and also in convincing their stakeholders about responsible ways of operating (Kujala, 2010; Onkila, 2009). In the beginning of the 21st century, environmental management tools and eco-efficiency improvements have become more and more common and environmental issues are being connected to social problems (Onkila, 2009).

Climate change has been brought to the agendas and strategies of big Finnish corporations and companies during the past decade. Finnish business organisations have a long history in dealing with environmental issues and often climate change is seen as a part of the same continuum. A research report discussing the climate change perceptions of top executives of Finnish multinational corporations presents that curbing climate change is taken seriously and the issue is seen both as a business issue and a threat. The report also notes that the dominant view among corporations is that businesses can provide solutions, but in the end it is the customers who make the decisions about their own ecological footprint. (Johansson, Lilius, Pesonen, Rantanen, & Tamminen, 2007).

Focusing on Finnish companies, Laine (2010b) analysed how the business rhetoric of sustainability has transformed over time. The results show that in the early 1990s sustainability was presented as incompatible with prevailing business practices and that by 2005 this was totally displaced by the discourse of business sustainability; sustainability portrayed as a feasible object. Laine argued "It is implausible to claim that the social and environmental problems related to sustainable development have been solved in two decades. It is thus argued that the change is more in the way the companies represent themselves in respect to social and environmental issues" (Laine, 2010b, p 39). Laine (2010b) noted that the relative environmental performance of the companies studied is likely to have improved during the research period as well.

Political and corporate climate initiatives have evolved in parallel, often one influencing the other. Political initiatives provide voluntary or obligatory guidance, or a minimum required level of actions, for business organisations. The most influential international agreements and initiatives include the Kyoto Protocol, the Stern Review and the IPCC assessment reports. The Kyoto Protocol adopted in 1997 is an international agreement that sets internationally binding emissions

reduction targets on industrialised countries (Hulme, 2009). The Protocol has since resulted in international and national climate regulations. The Stern Review released in 2006 linked climate change to the world economy stating that climate change presents a unique challenge for economics, as it is the greatest and widestranging market failure ever seen. The main conclusion of the Review is that early action on climate change is needed and that the benefits of such action can outweigh the costs of not acting. (Stern Review, 2006). The IPCC was established in 1988 to undertake international assessments of scientific knowledge about climate change, its environmental and socio-economic impacts, and the range of possible response strategies. The aim of the Panel was set to achieve more credibility for the scientific community and to serve as input for policymakers (Hulme, 2009, p. 95; Siebenhüner, 2003). The Panel demonstrated the extent and impacts of global climate change already in 1990 and has since released altogether four assessment reports. The fifth report will be completed in 2014. One of the main results of the reports is that human activity has been affecting the global climate.

The core of international and Finnish policy on climate change is the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) that Finland has ratified in 1994, and the ensuing Kyoto Protocol, which expands on the committed countries' obligations to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. The Kyoto Protocol was ratified by the Finnish parliament in 2002 and it entered into force in 2005. The responsible party for the UNFCCC is the Ministry of the Environment that also coordinates climate change negotiations in Finland. (Ministry of the Environment, 2013a). In 2008, the European Union (EU) committed to a low-carbon economy by setting the "20-20-20" targets in its climate and energy package. These targets legally bound EU to a 20% reduction in EU GHG emissions from 1990 levels, raising the share of EU energy consumption produced from renewable resources to 20%, and a 20% improvement in the EU's energy efficiency. (Ministry of the Environment, 2013a).

In Finland, the preparation of the first national climate strategy was commenced in 1999 in the Ministry of Trade and Industry (Kerkkänen, 2010). The government platform required that the strategy would not compromise economic growth or the employment situation and that it supports the decrease of national debt (Kerkkänen, 2010, p. 144). The first national climate strategy was released in 2001, and new versions have been released in 2005, 2008 and 2013. (Ministry of the Environment, 2013b). In 2008, the Long-Term Climate and Energy Strategy defining key objectives and guidelines for the period up to 2020 stated that Finland

needs new, prominent climate and energy policy measures. Without any new measures, GHG emissions in 2020 would exceed those of 1990 by approximately 20%, caused almost entirely by energy production and industry. (Ministry of Employment and the Economy, 2008). More detailed information about national climate policy and targets can be found at the website for Ministry of the Environment (http://www.ym.fi).

In addition to politics, the media plays a key role in shaping the evolving public discourse and discussion about these topics. Media coverage increases awareness of these issues and the media has an important agenda-setting role. The most prominent daily newspaper in Finland, Helsingin Sanomat, has been active in reporting about domestic and international climate change discussions and politics as well as publishing feature series about the issue (e.g. 'Muuttuva ilmasto', 'Changing climate' in 2007 with more than 20 articles). From the mid-2000s the news articles and opinion pages have clearly indicated that the Finnish society and citizens are concerned about climate change. The issue was presented in the news articles as well as opinion pages as a critical problem that will affect the quality of life in many ways, and as an enormous political challenge that needs to be engaged with, albeit the costs associated with such activity were perceived as somewhat high. At the time, there was a boost in engaging in ecological activities ('ekoteko' in Finnish) and the media coverage highlighted how both laymen and politicians engaged with ecological activities.

In the financial pages, such issues as clean tech, environmental innovations, carbon trading and emission restrictions provide news topics related to corporate climate change activities. These discussions maintain the economic discourse that is based on the ideas of gradual changes, economic and technological developments and adapting economies and societies (Hulme, 2009; Urry, 2011/2013, p. 39). Economic and technological innovations are prime in addressing the challenges posed by climate change and in developing solutions for the society to cope with the issue. In the financial and economic field, climate change is viewed both as a threat to national competitiveness (for instance due to emission restrictions) and as a business opportunity in the form of clean tech and technological innovations. In Finland, eco-efficiency is a prominent discourse suggesting that we do not need to choose whether we want to protect the environment or sustain economic growth (Berg & Hukkinen, 2011a). In the science section of the newspaper, a more drastic view of climate change is discussed emphasising the predicted physical changes and their impacts on the society.

In her dissertation, Kerkkänen (2010) has focused on political and public discussions of climate change. Kerkkänen has presented climate change framed as an energy issue in both public and political discussions. Focal topics in the public discussion in the beginning of the 2000s were nuclear power and the Kyoto Protocol. The opponents argued that the ratification would endanger the competitiveness of Finnish companies, especially if all the countries do not ratify the Protocol. The proponents argued that strict environmental policies have actually enhanced the competitiveness for example of the forest industry and that climate change mitigation requires action in all countries, also in Finland.

Kerkkänen (2010, pp. 141–143) has noted that the debates concerning climate change and climate policy were largely dominated by economic arguments. She has discussed the cultural conditions that have shaped these arguments. Firstly, forest and other energy intensive industries have a long-standing history and strong status in Finland. The continued success of energy intensive industries is seen as a base for the Finnish welfare society and accordingly, the proponents of energy intensive industry show support for nuclear energy in order to produce cheap and carbon free energy to maintain the wellbeing of the energy intensive industry. Secondly, the success of information technology has produced support for developing new models, opportunities and technologies for energy production and consumption.

To summarise, in Finland environmental issues in general and climate change issues in particular are viewed as significant in the society and in business organisations. In public discussions, climate change is constructed as caused by human action and the discussions emphasise that both public and private institutions need to address climate change. While climate change regulations are seen as threat to the competitiveness of business organisations in general, especially the high tech industry views them as a business opportunity. A technical construction focusing on energy efficiency dominates the climate change discussions in Finland. Another essential feature of the climate change discussions in Finland is that private business organisations are perceived as responsible for engaging with climate change.

3.3.2 Peloton project 2009–2011

The empirical materials for this study have been collected in the 'Peloton' project. Peloton was a joint low-carbon economy project of the Finnish think tank Demos Helsinki and the Finnish Innovation Fund Sitra, and it was launched in 2009. The

project's main objective was to empower professionals and peer groups to fight climate change. The aim was to encourage companies and consumers into all-around, everyday energy consciousness and to help companies create products, services and social innovations that systematically lower the energy needs of the Finnish lifestyle.

The three-year project proceeded in three phases. In the first phase, in 2009–2010, the project organised workshops for individuals and companies from different industries. The workshops were organised as two-day intensive courses, which consisted of lectures and group work. The objective of these workshops was that the participants would together develop innovative and even radical ideas for lowering the energy usage of their operations, customers and peers.

In the second phase (2010–2011) the ideas from the first workshops were processed into actions by the participants, and new workshops were organised for new groups. In the third phase (2011–2012), the participating organisations developed their ideas into products and services.

The Peloton project proved to be a suitable research context for studying discursive constructions of climate change engagement in business organisations. Peloton has been a pioneer project focusing on climate change and targeting companies in Finland. Thus these companies were among the first to engage with the issue. There are other advances brought forward by other companies as well, but focusing on this project provides a unique setting of a group of companies and a unique set of data. In addition, being involved with the project allowed me to participate in the workshops and later to conduct interviews with the participants which provided a rich source of data.

The primary empirical materials were generated by observing the Peloton workshops and by interviewing the participants after the workshops. In addition, secondary material consists of company documents and other publicly available data from various internet sources. The secondary material is used to support the observations made from the workshop and interview data. In the next chapters I will present the data generation and the workshops and interviews as micro contexts for this study. Figure 2 presents the data generation timeline.
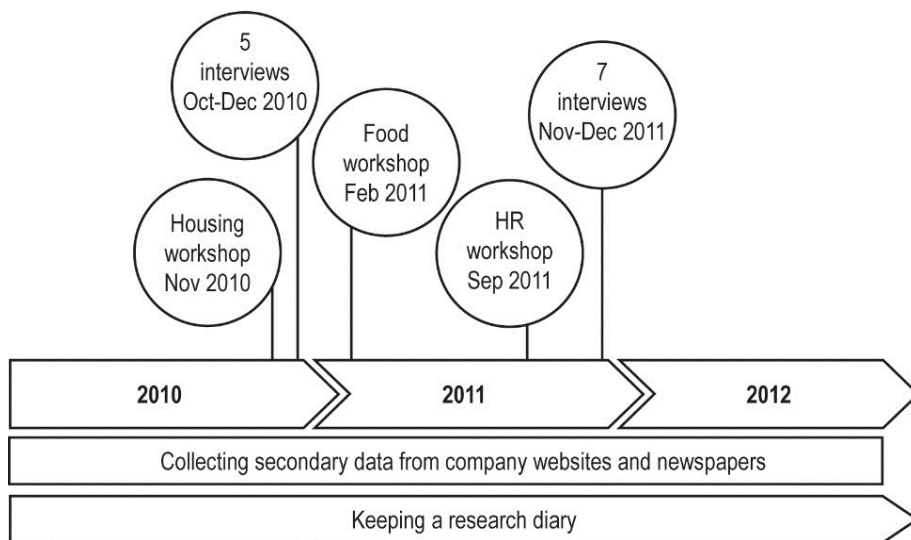
Figure 2 Data generation timeline

3.3.3 Micro context and data generation - Peloton workshops

I first contacted Demos Helsinki about Peloton project in the late spring of 2010 asking if I could collect data for my PhD dissertation from the project. Demos Helsinki agreed and we had a meeting to discuss the project so far. It was agreed that I could contact the participants from the workshops they had already organised to schedule for interviews.

Attending the housing workshop in November 2010 was my first hands-on contact with the workshops organised by the Peloton project. Prior to this workshop I had discussed the project with the organisers and conducted three interviews with participants from the earlier workshops, thus I had a preconception of what the workshop would be like, what would happen there and what its aim would be.

In the workshops, the overall purpose was to talk about climate change in the business context; what it means to industry and how industry can engage with it. Prior to attending the first workshop, I assumed that business professionals would find it hard to engage with such a new, intangible and vast issue as climate change. Thus, I assumed that climate change would be considered as a new issue in companies and that climate change engagement would require new resources,

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especially knowledge. These assumptions were proven to be only partly accurate. In addition, I assumed that climate friendly products would be profitable business now and in the future, which proved to be the general vision of the workshops.

After the workshop for housing and lodging professionals I attended to two other workshops as well; food retail workshop in February 2011 and human resource workshop in September 2011. These workshops were organised in the same manner. The content of presentations in terms of possible business activities and challenges changed from one workshop to another depending on the industry that it was meant for, but the overall themes and ideas concerning how business can engage with climate change were present in all workshops.

In the workshops I was introduced to the participants as a researcher working on the topic and as a professional interested in the topic, and I was assigned the role of a participant. During the workshops I used participant observation techniques to collect empirical data. Participant observation typically refers to observation situations in which the researcher becomes a participant in the culture or context being observed (Alasuutari, 1995; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Silverman, 2005). This was done by taking part in most of the group assignments and discussions, tape recording these discussions and collecting field notes during the workshop and writing a description of the workshop afterwards. Typically participant observation requires long periods of intensive work in order for the researcher to become immersed in the culture under study (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). The workshops, however, were organised as intensive two-day events, and thus the observation periods were limited to these events.

I had two roles in the workshops; participant and researcher. The participant role allowed for me to experience the phenomenon as the other participants were experiencing it during the workshop. In that role I, was able to observe indirectly, through experience and feeling. As a researcher I was able to ask questions or have small chats with the participants during the workshops. An important part of the researcher role was that I made notes all the time about everything I observed. In the researcher role I observed directly, by asking questions, writing memos and commenting on things I saw or heard.

The workshops followed the 'Chatham House Rule' referring to an agreement that the participants are free to use the information discussed in the meeting but that they may not reveal the identity of the speaker. Thus, the organisers briefed the participants that everything that is discussed and the ideas that are presented during the workshop can be used by any of the participants. In the spirit of this rule and as it is of no relevance in this study, I will not use the names of the

companies or the participants. In the chapters discussing the empirical findings, I provide original Finnish quotes from the empirical data to open up the interpretation for the reader. Each Finnish quote is accompanied by an English translation. I have given a code for each data set: 'W' as a first letter stands for workshop data and 'I' for interview data. The number refers to the chronological sequence of the data set, i.e. 'I1' refers to the first interview. In the workshop data, 'N' refers to field notes and 'R' to recordings. The primary empirical data and the codes are presented in Appendix 1.

Overall, the workshops proved out to be very motivational events in which the general attitude was in favour of creating new ways of doing climate-friendly business. This inspiration and motivation was present in my workshop notes and recordings. The workshops were very well organised and prepared for to support learning and novel ideas. In one of my observation diaries I have reflected upon the workshop's first impression:

> The workshop was organised as a two-day intensive workshop in the Hirvihaara manor, in Mäntsälä. The participants organised their own rides there. The Hirvihaara manor provided a grand setting for the workshop and created a good atmosphere that led to the conclusion that the workshop has been invested in by the organisers, Demos Helsinki (and Sitra), and that now we are here in order to really do things for an important cause. Demos is clearly serious about climate change and they believe that this is the way to make change, and in turn this was reflected on everything we did in the workshop and motivated the participants, I believe. (W2N)

> Työpaja järjestettiin kaksipäiväisenä intensiivisenä työpajana Hirvihaaran kartanossa, Mäntsälässä. Sinne saavuttiin omilla kyydeillä. Hirvihaaran kartano tarjosi upeat puitteet työpajalle ja samalla loi hyvän ilmapiirin, joka antoi olettaa, että tähän työpajaan on panostettu järjestäjien, Demos Helsingin (ja Sitran), puolesta, ja että nyt täällä ollaan ihan tosissaan tekemässä asioita tärkeän asian puolesta. Ilmastonmuutos on selkeästi otettu tosissaan Demoksessa ja he uskovat, että näin asioihin voidaan vaikuttaa, mikä puolestaan heijastui kaikkeen tekemiseen työpajassa ja mielestäni edelleen osallistujiin motivoiden heitä. (W2N)

A typical workshop programme was organised as follows: The workshop began in the morning with morning coffee which was followed by a session introducing the workshop and the participants. Then the workshop organisers gave a presentation on climate change, energy and lifestyle changes. This was followed by lunch. After lunch, the participants were engaged in a brainstorming session for new ideas, innovations, products and services to tackle climate change. After the initial

brainstorming a few ideas were chosen for further development and each idea was assigned a group. This groupwork continued all afternoon and was briefly paused for a coffee break and for presenting the ideas generated so far. A social dinner was organised in the evening, which was followed by other casual activities.

To start the second day, the workshop organisers gave presentations. After that, the groups had time to finalise their ideas for presentation. After lunch each group would give a presentation of the idea they had been working on in the "Idea show". The workshops were concluded with a discussion in which all the participants had the possibility to reflect on the workshop and to comment on how they planned to take forward and implement the ideas from the workshop in their organisations. All in all, the workshops were organised in order to motivate business professionals to engage with climate change, i.e. to promote positive change in the forms of innovation and motivation.

The workshops were targeted at business professionals working in different industries and they were organised for one group at a time. The size of the companies that participated in the workshops reflected the nature of the industry: in the housing and food retail workshops there were both professionals working in small and large organisations, while the human resource professionals were mostly working in medium to large companies. Thus, the positions and duties of the professionals varied from managers and experts to entrepreneurs and clerical personnel. The majority of the companies that participated in the workshops were traditional profit-oriented enterprises, companies and corporations. Thus, the aim of these workshops was to introduce the idea of climate change to standard business organisations and to motivate them to take action.

The observation material consists of field notes and of recorded materials (total of approx. 10 hours). In the field notes, I documented the events and the overall progress of the workshops and made detailed notes of the atmosphere and discussions, paying particular attention to how the participants talked about climate change. Recorded materials consist mainly of presentations held by the organisers and the participants and of group discussions. Therefore, the data generated in the workshops does not cover everything or every discussion that took place during the events. When generating the data, this was not the intention; rather the focus was on situations in which the organisers and participants together or with each other discussed climate change. Typically in these situations the talking included presenting something to others, creating consensus and common understandings or innovating together. Thus, a general feature of the generated data is a certain

spirit of consensus: the discussions proceeded in constructive spirit and conflicts were not sought.

After the workshops, I listened through the entire material and wrote down compilations of the discussions. Due to the vast amount of recorded material, I then selected parts of it for transcription and for systematic analysis. I focused on the parts that discussed the themes of this study - climate change, business operations and related themes. In total, the primary workshop data amounts to 74 pages.

3.3.4 Micro context and data generation - Interviews

In the fall of 2010, I started to contact companies that had participated in the workshops to schedule for interviews. I contacted workshop participants from those companies that had actively started to engage with climate change and to create new services or products. This focus on progressive companies and managers has been used in other studies as well (e.g. Nyberg & Wright, 2012; Williams & Schaefer, 2013; Wright et al., 2012). The interviewees were selected using 'purposeful selection' (Patton, 2002) to ensure manageable and purposeful data. The interview data was collected to provide additional information and to explore views and perceptions of the workshops, climate change and climate change engagement. The interviews were conducted approximately within one to two years after the workshops, in which time the companies had started to develop and implement climate change activities. In 2010 and 2011 altogether 12 interviews were conducted with business professionals whose work included sustainability and climate change issues, working in food and hardware services and retail enterprises, companies and corporations. The interviewees worked in managerial or expert positions in their organisations. Their ages ranged from around thirty to sixty years and three of the interviewees were male and nine were females.

I designed a semi-structured interview guide to conduct the interviews and later I updated this guide when necessary. I did not, however use the quide in all the interviews. Usually I used the interview guide to start the interview and then it was referred to when necessary. Therefore the structure of each interview was different and I did not ask all the interviewees a predefined set of questions. In the spirit of qualitative interview, the interviewees had the opportunity to talk about what they felt was relevant and important to talk about (Alvesson, 2003; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). To begin an interview, I asked the interviewee to describe the

company she/he was working at and her/his professional background. In addition, I would ask them to reflect on their perceptions on climate change. After this I typically continued with questions about the Peloton workshops and what kinds of climate change engagement activities they had engaged with after the workshops.

Most of the interviewees were very talkative and I guided them with a few questions. Some of the interviewees needed more guidance and chose to remain focused on the interview questions. At the end of each interview I asked more detailed questions about the topics they had talked about, if necessary. In addition I checked to the guide that all the main themes were covered during the interview. The interviews were not merely situations where I was asking questions and the interviewee was answering them. Rather, I was also an active participant in the interview situation, creating meaning together with the interviewee (Alvesson, 2003). I asked open interview questions and at times I probed more when we discussed climate change activities.

Most of the interviews were conducted at the interviewee's workplace, thus making it easier for the interviewees to participate in the study. I aimed for informal interview situations in order to create a relaxed and neutral atmosphere in which the interviewees would feel comfortable and free to express their views. Strict formalities were avoided also because I wanted to record their authentic stories and views about the issue.

The interviews lasted between 38 and 68 minutes and were fully transcribed. The transcripts vary between 10–17 pages in length (single spaced, Times New Roman, font size 12). The total amounts to 163 pages of primary data. In addition, I made notes from the interviews, mainly focusing on my first impressions and thoughts about the interview.

Secondary data

In addition to workshop and interview data, I have collected secondary data such as public company documents, newspaper articles, and notes from informal discussions with the project organisers. I also kept a research diary throughout the research process. This secondary data is used for supporting the observations made from the primary materials (observations and interviews). This data is used to ensure that I understand the contextual meaning of the phenomenon under study.

3.4 Data analysis

> Without discourse, there is no social reality, and without understanding discourse, we cannot understand our reality, our experiences, or ourselves. (Phillips & Hardy, 2002, p. 2)

This quote reflects my view of discourse and of the object of this study: without talk and social interaction, there would not be any social reality. Doing discourse analysis is a challenging yet an interesting task, where the researcher is required to find her own way of analysing data and essentially, to learn by doing (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). At the same time the researcher needs to keep in mind the principles of discourse analysis she/he has decided to follow in order to be consistent in her analysis and findings. I found the observations of Phillips and Hardy (2002) particularly fitting for my research intentions. They have summarised: "What makes a research technique discursive is not the method itself but the use of that method to carry out an interpretive analysis of some form of text with a view to providing an understanding of discourse and its role in constituting social reality." (Phillips & Hardy 2002, p. 10). Taking this seriously in this study means that I have analysed the texts constituting research data in order to indentify and understand climate change discourses and their role in constituting the social reality of climate change engagement in business organisations.

A central feature of discourse analysis is that it is not "a research machine" that a researcher can use to produce a "truth" (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). In discourse analysis, the data is open to many different interpretations and the researcher is not aiming to reach an 'objective truth' or generalisations about a phenomenon under study, but to find a well-grounded interpretation about the studied phenomenon (Joutsenvirta, 2009). As coined by Phillips and Hardy (2002, p. 84): "From a discourse perspective, all versions of social reality are social constructions held in place by ongoing processes of discursive production. There are no "true" representations of reality from which one can critique other, somehow less real, versions."

In qualitative research data generation and analysis are often simultaneous processes (Silverman, 2005). I began the first analysis rounds while still collecting data. At the time, the analysis focused on getting to know the data and producing preliminary categorisations. I started the analysis with interview data. This choice is supported by Pietilä (2010): in interview data the discourses and themes are usually

quite easily identifiable, thus it is a good place to start with the data. Then I proceeded with analysing the workshop data.

The analysis began by reading through the data multiple times. While I read through the data, I wrote down observations about things that caught my interest and recurrent themes and issues. To identify the discourses, I proceeded with a focus on the different meanings and concepts that were produced in the data and systematically analysed them in both sets of data. Then, I returned to the expressions and phrases describing the identified meanings and concepts to map for traces of broader discourses. This way I was able to grasp the meanings produced in the data and how they related to the meaning systems, i.e. the discourses. Throughout the analysis, I also noted possible omissions, i.e. issues that were not discussed.

The analysis focused also on the new concepts and the new meanings given to existing concepts that became constructed in the discourses. From a discourse analytical perspective it is interesting to explicate how these concepts are used in discourses and what kind of realities they construct (Alasuutari, 1995, p. 22; Joutsenvirta, 2006, p. 42). In addition, attention was paid to the argumentation used to justify the discourses as these arguments reveal the values and premises inherent in the discourses. Following Phillips and Hardy (2002, p. 8) my interest was on how the discourse of climate change makes certain practices possible or inevitable.

In discourse analysis, the interplay between text, discourse and context is key for understanding social reality (Phillips & Hardy, 2002, p. 4). In this study this means that for example such concepts as climate change, energy and responsibility were not used as 'predefined' concepts in analysis (Joutsenvirta, 2006, p. 41), rather the analysis aimed to explicate the meanings these concepts were given in the discourses and how these meanings were further maintained and recreated in the discourses.

Forming and identifying the discourses required iterative rounds of data analysis and writing, which is typical for this kind of analysis (Alasuutari, 1995; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). In the analysis, observations were made from the primary data and in order "to solve the puzzle", these observations were connected to the macro context of this study and to prior research (Alasuutari, 1995; Joutsenvirta, 2006).

Following Joutsenvirta (2006, p. 41) discourses have two analytical functions in this study. First, as discursive constructions these discourses are independent constructions that are used when talking about climate change engagement in

business organisations. In the analysis, two discourses are identified that have been created, utilised and maintained to discuss climate change engagement in business organisations. Second, these discourses form social reality that gives structure and guides action related to climate change engagement and management (Jokinen et al., 1993; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). Thus, in this study the functions of the discourses (Potter & Wetherell, 1987, pp. 32–33) are analysed, i.e. the empirical findings present how these discourses are used to discursively manage climate change engagement in business organisations. A reflection of the research process together with an evaluation of the findings is presented in the concluding chapter of the thesis.

4 CLIMATE CHANGE ENGAGEMENT DISCOURSES

4.1 Prologue to rational and moral discourses

The empirical analysis identified two discourses used to talk about climate change engagement in business organisations: a rational and a moral discourse. The rational discourse presents climate change as a measurable and controllable issue and climate change engagement as a rational activity. In this discourse, climate change engagement is rationalised by constructing it as necessary and beneficial for business organisations and for the society at large. The moral discourse complements and questions the rational discourse. The moral discourse presents that climate protection is of intrinsic value and climate change engagement is the 'right thing to do'.

Before presenting the discourses, a few comments on the data and its contents are in order. First of all, in both the workshop and interview data anthropogenic climate change was discussed as a pressing issue, as something business managers should be aware of and act upon. Anthropogenic climate change was not questioned and the discussions focused on how we can change the behaviour of ourselves and others in order to lead a low-carbon lifestyle.

Secondly, climate change as a phenomenon was rarely discussed at length in the workshops or the interviews. Rather, climate change was notably linked to environmental and energy issues. Discussions mostly centred on such concepts as energy efficiency, low-carbon and sustainability which are all closely intertwined with climate change. The discussions demonstrate an overall understanding of the causes, causing factors and consequences of climate change even though they were not explicitly pondered upon in the data.

Thirdly, this study utilises two types of data that allow for an in-depth analysis of how the climate change engagement constructions are created, maintained and recreated. First, data collected in the workshops consists of discussions that have taken place before the business professionals engaged with climate change. However, it should be noted here that some of the participating companies might have already addressed climate change before the project. Thus it cannot be claimed that the participants had no prior experience with the issue at all. The

workshop organisers used motivational talk to engage the participants and the participants maintained this spirit by using inspirational, positive language. As the workshops were organised as two-day intensive events, they provided a micro context for climate change discussions. The interviews mostly took place after the participants had already started to design and implement activities in their organisations. The interview data consists of experiences and perceptions of engaging with climate change and promoting that to colleagues. The practical experience of the interviewees shows in the data: climate change engagement is talked about from the viewpoint of hands-on experience. In other words, the workshop talk is mostly prescriptive and normative, i.e. why and how should climate change be engaged with, while the interview data describes the implemented activities and the interviewees' experiences of climate change engagement. The workshops and interviews as micro context for climate change discussions were discussed in Chapter 3.3.

The two types of data and the temporal nature of the data set provide an interesting setting for analysing how meanings are constructed in the workshops and how they are then maintained, recreated and utilised in both the workshop and interview data. Next, the analysis explicates the ways in which climate change engagement are perceived and given meaning to in business organisation context. The analysis will present the two discourses by discussing the themes and meanings constructing, and constructed in, these discourses.

The rational discourse consists of four themes:

- 'Objective and factual information' defining the kind of information that is deemed appropriate in regard to business climate change engagement;
- 'Climate change as threat and opportunity' constructing motivations for climate change engagement;
- 'Climate change activities as smart business' presenting the kinds of actions and activities that are deemed as proper and desirable; and
- 'Businesses as change agents' positioning business organisations in a key position in relation to addressing climate change.

The moral discourse consists of three themes:

- 'Climate change engagement as the 'right thing to do', presents climate change engagement as necessary and important in business organisations;
- 'Climate change engagement and personal values' emphasises the personal aspects of climate change engagement; and

- 'Critique of the market economy' questions the rational discourse focusing on efficiency and profitability.

The following chapters present my interpretation of these discourses and themes. The analysis and interpretation is opened up to the reader by providing quotes from the empirical data. Each original Finnish quote is accompanied by an English translation.

4.2 The rational discourse

4.2.1 Objective and factual information

Climate change in technical and financial terms

The first theme identified in the empirical data is the 'objective and factual information' perspective, focusing on the kind of information on climate change and the related activities that is acceptable in regard to business climate change engagement. This is a prevalent theme in the data. Constructions of acceptable and 'true' information regarding climate change are utilised to constitute a solid base for climate change engagement activities. This theme maintains that legitimate business activities are based on verifiable information and facts.

Information regarding climate change and climate change engagement was mostly discussed in terms of natural resources and energy, environmental impacts and money or costs. To start with, in the workshops climate change was presented in a straightforward, factual manner by linking it to natural resources and energy: climate change is caused by increased GHG emissions and as a consequence of climate change natural resources and energy will become scarcer in the future. Energy efficiency is required to first to mitigate GHG emissions, and second, to prepare for higher energy costs in the future:

> So, in these kinds of issues like the prices of food, living and transportation there can be dramatic changes due to increasing energy prices. When we examine where energy goes to, where the emissions come from, then we are paying attention to prices before anything else, we consider how much food costs, how much transportation costs and how much one kilometre costs. So, in the end, it is all about the price of energy. And why does the price of energy increase? Three fundamental reasons, of which probably the most

familiar for everyone is climate change, familiar to all Finns. Maybe less discussed, then, decreasing energy resources and energy safety is of course, every now and then popping up. (W3R)

Eli tälläisissä asioissa kuten ruoan, asumisen ja liikkumisen hinnoissa voi tapahtua dramaattisia muutoksia sen takia, että energian hinta nousee. Kun me tarkastellaan sitä, mihin energia menee, mistä niitä päästöjä tulee, niin silloin me tarkastellaan ennen kaikkea hintaa, me tarkastellaan sitä, paljonko ruoka maksaa, paljonko kulkeminen maksaa ja paljonko kilometri maksaa. Eli kysymys on loppujen lopuksi energian hinnasta. Ja mistä se johtuu, että energianhinta nousee? Kolme, fundamentaalista syytä, mistä kaikille varmaan tutuin on, ilmastonmuutos, sen tuntee kaikki suomalaiset. Ehkä vähemmän keskusteltu, sitten on energiavarojen hupeneminen ja energiaturvallisuus on tietenkin, vähän väliä sinne tulee pinnalle. (W3R)

Presenting climate change in terms of energy, energy efficiency and costs is used to link the abstract and complex phenomenon to something tangible that is already known in organisations and that can be measured and verified. Improving energy efficiency and mitigating environmental impacts are discussed as activities that companies already have the required knowledge to engage with. In addition, energy and environmental impacts are deemed as proper for they can be measured and controlled. The following quotes illustrate the construction of environmental impacts and climate change activities as straightforward and measurable:

Environmental impacts are quite clear, they are linked largely to such things as mobility, emissions issues, petrol and decreasing mileage […] (W3R)

Ympäristövaikutukset ovat ihan selvät, ne liittyy paljon niinkun liikkuvuuteen, päästökysymyksiä, bensa ja ajokilometrit vähenee […] (W3R)

So depending on the contents of the bag in the end, what is in a way the carbon footprint there, so is this the lower green column or a higher column, what is its impact. (W2R)

Eli riippuen siitä, että mikä on loppujen lopuksi kassin rakenne, niin mitä on sitten tietyllä tavalla sen eräänlainen hiilijalanjälki sitten siellä, että onko tää toi matalampi vihreä palkki vai korkeampi palkki, mikä sen vaikutus on. (W2R)

The goal is to be able to follow one's own energy use and to compare that to others. (W1R)

Tarkoitus on pystyä seuraamaan omaa energiankulutusta ja vertailla sitä muiden kanssa. (W1R)

In the quotes above, climate change is constructed in technical-rational terms and technical information is presented as 'true' information, as facts. This perspective proposes to solve climate change by engaging with technological activities.

The technical construction of acceptable information is complemented by a construction emphasising economic and monetary facts. Financial aspects of climate change engagement are referred to repeatedly in the data, linking climate change and energy efficiency with money and costs. Financial information is used to measure the impacts of internal climate change activities and of the products and services produced for customers. Referring to monetary information is used to emphasise the activities not only as rational but also as effective:

> Now this financial persona demands the floor again, so it is easier to depict where it [price of energy] does not show, for the time being. (W3R)

> Nyt tää talousihminen puskee täältä taas esiin, eli helpommin voidaan kuvata sitä, missä se [energian hinta] ei näy tällä hetkellä, toistaiseksi. (W3R)

> […] we tried to get a little more serious and to make this into a sort of business deal, quite crudely said, you could even call it a money-making section. (W1R)

> […] me yritettiin mennä vähän vakavampaan asiaan, ja tehdä tästä diilimäinen bisnes, ihan raaka, voisiko sanoa, rahanteko-osio. (W1R)

The interview data adds a further dimension to the 'true' information by referring to strategy and to strategic choices. Like economic and technical arguments, strategic arguments are presented as facts that require no other justification:

> Well of course this is stated in our strategy. Everything starts from the strategy. So we have created our own ay of operating and strategy. […] We have ecological, economic, well-being [dimensions], these are clearly our, like, a part of this. (I10)

> No tietysti täähän lukee meidän strategiassa. Siis strategiastahan kaikki lähtee. Et me ollaan luotu oma toimintatapa ja strategia […] Meillon ekologisuus, taloudellisuus, hyvinvointi, nää on ihan selkeesti meidän, niinku, tässä mukana. (I10)

> Yeah, we have those, well, people, planet and profit are there separately, so we consider that our responsibility consists of these three dimensions. And our planet goals include… We aim to reduce the environmental impacts of our operations, these are also written in the strategy. (I8)

Joo, meillä on ne tuota people, planet ja profit on siellä erikseen, eli me katotaan että meidän vastuullisuus koostuu näistä kolmesta osa-alueesta. Ja planet-tavoitteita meillä on että… Pyrimme vähentämään toimintamme ympäristövaikutuksia, nää lukee myös siellä strategiassa. (I8)

The above-presented constructions emphasising economic and strategic information view them as universally accepted values, and in particular, as valuable in business context. In CSR context, Siltaoja (2009, p. 196) has presented that referring to strategy can be used as a discursive resource to present something as habitual, important and as something that is taken seriously in an organisation. In the data, economic and strategic arguments are used to establish and legitimate climate change engagement activities.

Contrasting facts with beliefs

The emphasis on facts and 'true' information was further elaborated and recreated in the interview data by contrasting facts with beliefs:

[...] we do not consider it in a similar was as the really dedicated climate enthusiasts might, of course we cannot consider it like that, rather we think of it, like, in terms of common sense I'm being quite frank here that we can't go into such a craze, rather we have to have certain guidelines. (I10)

[…] me ei oteta sitä niin ehkä kun sitten ne oikeen vannoutuneet ilmastoystävän kannattajat, mehän ei voida tietenkään ottaa sitä niin, vaan me otetaan se niinku maalaisjärjen kautta, mä sanon tän ihan näin suoraan, et me ei niin kuin voida ruveta semmoseen hörhöilyyn niin sanotusti vaan meil pitää olla ne tietyt linjat. (I10)

And perhaps also sometimes I'm quite good at finding these kinds of… objective solutions to things, and I claim that I can be objective so that I don't, like… I said that I don't like happy-clappy things […] in the end it's about staying within the boundaries of objectivity in order to know what we are really able to do. (I9)

Ja ehkä myöskin joskus mä oon aika hyvä etsimään tämmösiä … objektiivisia ratkaisuja asioihin, ja väitän et pystyn olemaan objektiivinen etten niiku… Mä sanoin et mä en tykkää hörhöilystä […] kuitenkin et pysytään sen objektiivisuuden rajoissa et tiedetään et mitä oikeesti voidaan tehdä. (I9)

The quotes above illustrate how rational, acceptable, 'true' information is contrasted with biased information. Biased information is not based on facts; rather it is based on beliefs, myths or distorted illusions about the reality. In contrast, objective information is constructed as facts, as acceptable information. Further, the incongruity between beliefs and facts is underlined by constructing belief-based activities as going to the extreme and as excesses. This notion presents that decisions based on biased information are not long lasting (sustainable) or acceptable in business context and cannot be used as a basis for decision-making.

'True' information is also constructed by referring to an external, reliable source of the information - to experts. Experts are a source of neutral, 'objective' information that does not 'distort' the truth. Rather, experts are presented as knowing the 'truth' and as a source for factual information:

> […] I might not be able to critically evaluate what is humbug and what is true, so therefore it was quite nice that there [in the workshops] were such people who had really dedicated themselves to the issue and you could check these opinions and facts and the like. (I3)

> […] mä en kykene kriittisesti arvioimaan välttämättä, että mikä on huuhaata ja mikä on totta, niin sen takia sitten tietysti oli kauheen kiva että [työpajoissa] oli semmosia, jotka oli oikeasti vihkiytynyt ja näin, heiltä pystyi tarkistaa sitten niinku mielipiteitä ja faktaa ja tämmöstä. (I3)

> […] there is this expert of one kind who brings knowledge that might be otherwise hard to come by and then how reliable is this information when you go and look for it yourself. (I6)

> […] siinä on joku tämmönen asiantuntija, joka tuo tietoa, jota muuten ehkä ois vaikea itse löytää tai sitten se mikä sen tiedon luotettavuus on kun sä menet itse hakemaan sitä. (I6)

This construction uses authorisation strategy, i.e. referring to persons with authority. It has been identified in previous research as one of the main strategies to legitimise organisational phenomena (Siltaoja, 2009; Vaara et al., 2006). Experts are produced as credible subjectss who produce and distribute objective, accurate information that can be utilised by business professionals to design and implement climate change activities. In this construction experts and business professionals who know the 'facts' are contrasted with those who do not have the facts or act based on beliefs.

In the interview data, however, the diversity of available information was presented as a challenge. For one, the challenge is related to the different views and

types of information on climate change: there are competing views regarding climate change impacts and activities, depending on the point of view that one takes. Additionally, the definitions of what is 'environmentally friendly' or 'ecological' vary and there are no commonly accepted measurements for them. Consequently, business professionals construct the scarcity of commonly accepted and defined information as a challenge:

> Of course there is the first question of what is climate friendly food? The messages coming from the media, indeed I don't think they are clear at all… There are a lot of maybe even viewpoints that some people find agriculture awfully polluting and some cows, some this and that… Somehow it has not been easy to understand what being environmentally friendly even means. (I12)

> Tietenkin siinä on se että ihan se ensimmäinen kysymys on et mikä on ympäristöystävällistä ruokaa? Et kyllähän se viestintä mikä tulee tiedotusvälineistä, niin ei oo mitenkään selkeetä mun mielestä… Et tota hirveesti semmosta ehkä näkökantojakin, et joku kokee maatalouden hirveän saastuttavana ja jotkut lehmät, jotkut sitä ja tätä et et… Jotenkin siinä ei ollu helppo edes jäsentää sitä asiaa, et jos me ollaan ympäristöystävällisiä, niin mitä se, niiku, tarkottaa. (I12)

> […] we have really not gone and measured things, because the indicators and methods have not been developed yet as reliable and in a way that everybody would agree on them […] (I6)

> […] et ei mitenkään lähdetty mittailemaan, koska niitä mittareita ja laskutapoja ei vielä ole kehitetty niin että ne ois luotettavia ja kaikki ois just samaa mieltä niistä […] (I6)

> The situations are surprisingly interesting. What we consider as ecological might not be ecological. (I9)

> Niin yllättävän mielenkiintosia nää tilanteet siinä, että se mitä me luullaan, että on ekologista ei välttämättä olekaan ekologista. (I9)

These quotes above highlight interesting points regarding the validity and acceptability of information. Firstly, it is acknowledged that there are differing views on climate change and on climate change activities, depending on the point of view that one takes. However, these different views are not discussed in an evualuative way, some being superior or more right than the others. Rather, it is acknowledged that the many ways of defining and presenting something as

environmentally or climate friendly makes it difficult for an organisation to define and justify its own position and practices.

Secondly, collectively defined information is considered as objective and reliable. In other words, in addition to a factual premise, information is required to be evaluated as valid by the community it affects. By stating, "all would agree on them" the speaker implies that collectively defined information is less likely to be considered as controversial. Information that is considered as accurate also by others, in this case experts, business community and/or the society at large, can be used as a sound premise for designing and implementing activities. Similarly, Eden (1999) has noted that information produced by a collectivity of businesses is claimed as credible in terms of objectivity and accuracy.

Thus, even though different types of information are not explicitly evaluated, the discourse purports that there is an objective truth that can be reached and should be used as a base for decision-making. Climate change engagement in particular and environmental issues in general are constructed as objective issues: there is a 'truth' that can be obtained by a rigorous process. This is an interesting construction, because for example Onkila (2009) has identified a contrary construction in which environmental management has been perceived as a subjective and controversial issue and that a common basis for acceptability is acknowledged as something that might not be defined. In the data, the subjective realities are not altogether denied but there is a clear tendency to produce climate change engagement as something that can be objectively defined.

To summarise, the theme of rational and factual information discusses the kind of information on climate change and climate change engagement that is accurate and acceptable in business organisations. In the workshops, acceptable information was constructed by focusing on economic and technical issues; on issues that are tangible and measurable such as energy efficiency. The interview data brought up another dimension related to information discussing the dissemination and use of this information: experts were produced as the credible subject and as a source of objective information. Further, commonly accepted information and definitions were emphasised as a valid base for activities.

The theme shows how basic assumptions of economic values and technocentricity dominate the construction of information about climate change in organisational context. These constructions of information suggest that issues that can be discussed in terms of accurate information, can be solved based on the information: as environmental impacts are known and measurable, they can be solved.

The rational construction is not surprising in relation to climate change. Firstly, previous research has discussed that expertise in environmental issues is claimed through scientific discourse and objectivity (e.g. Eden, 1999) and that management concepts and language are relied on in business context to bring clarity to complex sustainability issues (Kallio, 2004; Springett, 2003). Global environmental problems are mostly known to us through the language of science and scientific constructions dominate climate change policy debates (Eden, 1999; Hulme, 2009). Without climate science, we would not know about climate change the way we do now. Science is considered as a 'way to truth', as objective and thus, as a solid basis for climate change mitigation and adaptation. In addition, as many scholars have pointed out, rational constructions are identified also to dominate business constructions of corporate responsibility and sustainability. Eden (1999) has identified technocratic rationality as a way to legitimate business' viewpoints on environmental issues: environmental 'truth' can be accessed through specialised information, objective data and scientific research. The factual discourse of information was also identified by Joutsenvirta (2006, 2009) in research examining the debates between a Finnish forest industry company and a NGO. Joutsenvirta has presented that the factual discourse is used to portray information or knowledge as right and true or wrong and untrue. Sustainability has been noted as being understood by managers as mainly an eco-efficiency issue (Bebbington & Thomson, 1996).

The rational construction is also a dominant discourse in public discussions. The traditional view of business presents business activity in economic-rational terms by emphasising profitability, effectiveness and related values. In relation to business operations, beliefs, intuitive information and at times also ethical assessment are marginalised as not belonging to business context

Accuracy of information is critical in relation to climate change as a complex, abstract and controversial phenomenon. The data shows how the complexity of climate change and the related information is acknowledged and presented as a challenge for organisations. There is no one 'truth' about climate change, or about definitions of what is 'ecological' or 'climate friendly', rather there are differing views based on the different points of view. Therefore, the 'mere' scientific base of information is not adequate for decision-making in business context. Interestingly, climate science and the inherent controversies were not however explicitly discussed. The data shows how the validity of information is constructed as a combination of reliability and non-controversiality: experts are a source of objective, valid information which is further justified by the collectivity of

businesses or another community linked to the issue. This is one way to prevent critique and to mitigate uncertainty: by using information that is deemed valid by the community, the company can act according to the commonly accepted principles.

4.2.2 Climate change as threat and opportunity

Climate change as threat

Another focal theme in the data was one emphasising the need for change. 'Climate change as threat and opportunity' discusses change related to climate change; why is change required in business operations and how should business change. In the workshops, change and the need for change is constructed by using two interrelated images, threat and opportunity. In the interview data, these images are later maintained and reconstructed to receive new meanings.

In the workshops, climate change was presented as a threat to our current lifestyle, society and business operations (business-as-usual). This construction implies that the current well-being and lifestyle are based on the availability of natural resources such as fossil-fuel based energy. Threat is constructed as tangible and as a compulsive order by linking it to diminishing natural resources, energy and the resulting increases in energy prices. Thus, this threat forces business to change in order to avoid undesirable consequences and to survive (to avoid the realisation of the worst case scenario). The following quotes show how referring to natural resources and energy are utilised in order to construct climate change as a threat:

> When we take a look at how the Finns utilise natural resources, it is evident that we have really distinguished ourselves in that regard. In other words, we can see that we have used up the yearly amount of natural resources that we should use during 12 months already by the first of April, if we lived ecologically, if we didn't live in dept to our planet. (W3R)

> Sit kun katotaan suomalaisten luonnonvarojen käyttöä, niin mehän ollaan kunnostauduttu tässä oikein mainiosti. Täällä nimittäin näkee, että me ollaan jo aprillipäivänä käytetty se vuosittainen luonnonvaramäärä, mitä meidän pitäis käyttää 12 kuukauden aikana, jos me eläisiin, ekologisella tavalla, jos me ei eläisi velaksi meidän maapallollemme. (W3R)

Well, the unscrupulous reason why we really are here is that Finns could also in the future afford other things than merely warming their houses, buying basic groceries and the like, to commute. (W3R)

No, se raadollinen syy miksi me oikeestaan ollaan täällä, että suomalaisilla olisi tulevaisuudessakin varaa muihin asioihin kun, ihan sen kotinsa lämmittämiseen, peruselintarvikkeisiin, ja et siihen, työmatkoihin. (W3R)

The image of threat produced in the talk is tangible and grim. A gloomy future is visioned if immediate action is not taken to mitigate climate change. In the first quote, an ironic tone is used, stating "we have really distinguished ourselves in that regard", to introduce the topic as important in the workshop. This quote also illustrates another typical way to talk about the causes of climate change: at the workshops, no particular private, business or political actor was blamed for climate change. Rather, climate change was presented as caused by joint, cumulative actions of the society and the current lifestyle.

The factual construction of climate change presented in the information theme, is utilised to present climate change as a threat and to highlight the need for immediate action. The threat image resonates with the climate change discourse of fear, emphasising the idea of a looming climate catastrophe. The fear discourse is used widely in popular discourse, in the media and in popular science books (Hulme, 2009). The threat discourse is also a typical business discourse (Wright & Nyberg, 2012; Wright et al., 2012). Thus, the image of threat is a powerful way to argument for businesses' need to engage with climate change activities.

Change as opportunity

In the workshops, the images of threat were paired with images of change as a business opportunity. The construction of change as an opportunity presents a vision of a low-carbon society and economy that are created by progressive business professionals and organisations. The low-carbon society is constructed as a vision of a future that has avoided the catastrophic consequences of climate change.

The opportunity talk focuses on progress that intertwines economical development and low-carbon society with each other: the aim is to create a new economy that will run a low-carbon society. Thus, the aim is not to cut down or ban business activities, rather business is developed and new business is created:

The goal is energy-smart, new economy that we knew nothing about 10 years ago. (W1N)

Tavoitteena energiaviisas, uusi talous, josta 10 v. sitten ei tiedetty mitään. (W1N)

Thus, how we see Peloton in the future is that energy use will start to decrease, by no means by cutting down, but by creating new business, new business and operating models that will become the engine of our new economy. […] This is how Peloton will push Finland towards an energy efficient, new economy. (W3R)

Eli se mikä ajatus meillä on tästä Pelottomasta tulevaisuudesta on se että energiankulutus lähtee laskuun, ei suinkaan vähentämällä, vaan luomalla uutta liiketoimintaa, uudenlaisia toimintamalleja, siitä tulee meidän uuden talouden moottori. […] Eli tällä tavalla, Peloton, sysää Suomea kohti energiatehokasta uutta taloutta. (W3R)

Interestingly, the emphasis is on business development and progress while economic growth is not explicitly discussed. Previous research has identified that sustainable development and economic growth are constructed as compatible and supporting each other (Laine, 2005). However, the data emphasises a transformation towards a 'new economy' and a 'new society', hence the idea of growth is implicit in the discourse. While the explicit focus is on business development and on the ways it produces societal change, it is implied that the idea of economic growth is compatible with climate change engagement.

By using the opportunity image, change is constructed as positive development. Progress is linked with new, innovative and smart actions. This construction contrasts new and developing with old (or current): old is presented as obsolete, backward and not in accordance with the requirements of the new society. Being innovative is equated with modern, smart business and thereby new business opportunities. In the data, 'smart' and 'innovative', are emphasised and innovative products and services are presented as a solution for climate change:

The third example we have is the equivalent of 'Hese' in Sweden, 'Max Burger' that measured the carbon footprint of their products and concluded that "wow, it is indeed quite high" and that then again "well, this is a smart business opportunity for us". (W3R)

Kolmas esimerkki meillä on siitä kun Ruotsissa vastaava Hese, eli Max Burger, mittasi omien tuotteidensa hiilijalanjäljen ja tuli siihen tulokseen, että "oho, aika korkea se hiilijalanjälki on", ja toisaalta että "no, tässähän me voitais rueta tekemään ihan fiksua bisnestä". (W3R)

Similarly to the threat image, the opportunity image draws on popular conceptions about business and society: the current economic discourse emphasises development, competitiveness and profitability - the same images that the image of change as opportunity evokes. The opportunity image maintains the view that business is required to develop in order to be successful. Energy efficient society, economic and business development are all intertwined in this construction.

Change as challenge

As discussed above, in the workshops climate change and the required business and societal change are constructed by using two complementary constructions. The construction of climate change as a threat introduces the need for change: change is required for survival. The construction of change as an opportunity provides meaningful direction for change: by becoming innovative and smart, businesses create a new, better, energy-smart society.

In the interviews, the above-presented constructions of threat and opportunity are reconstructed to receive different meanings. Most notably, threat is discussed more implicitly and progress and change are constructed in less positive terms. In the interviews, climate change and the related societal change (developing technology, practices and values) are constructed as a challenge for business. In the interviews, challenge is constructed in terms of increasing energy-prices, costs and customer expectations:

> It [climate change] can become a major issue, if you think about how climate affects the growth conditions and such, so in the long run it will surely affect our availability, our price level, and thus our product range, and then again our customers, so yes, it is yet difficult to say when and how and how accurately but still we see that these things are at least not getting any easier. They will create brand new challenges that might be different now and completely something else in ten to twenty years' time. (I5)

> Siitä [ilmastonmuutos] voi tulla iso kysymys, että jos ajatellaan miten ilmasto vaikuttaa sitten meidän kasvuolosuhteisiin ja kaikkeen tämmösiin, niin kyllä se pitkällä juoksulla varmasti tulee vaikuttamaan meidän saatavuuteen, meidän hintatasoon, sitä kautta meidän tarjoomaan, ja sitä kautta sitten taas asiakkaisiin, että kyllä se, se on tietysti nyt vähän vaikea sanoa, että milloin ja miten ja kuinka tarkasti, mutta, mut kyllä se niinku nähdään, että ei nää asiat ainakaan tuu helpottumaan. Että näistä tulee taas ihan uudenlaisia haasteita, että nyt on ehkä erilaisia ja sitten 10-20 vuoden päästä voi olla ihan erityyppistä. (I5)

[…] how could we make it more climate friendly and economical because pressures to control material costs are quite high. Material costs have increased while in a way, selling prices have not yet risen, and this is the reason we need to consider this. (I10)

[…] miten siitä saatais ilmastoystävällisempi ja taloudellisempi, koska paineet siihen raaka-aineen hinnan säätelemiseen on aika suuret, koska raaka-ainehinnat on noussu mutta sitten tavallaan myyntihinta ei ole noussu vielä tässä vaiheessa, niin sen takia täytyy sitten vähän tarkastella. (I10)

The interviewees expressed uncertainty about the pace and direction of the future developments. In addition, increasing energy prices are constructed as a challenge: the business costs are increasing while the product costs have largely remained the same.

In the workshops, the change talk constructed new and developing as desirable while current, or old, was constructed as obsolete and non-competitive. This construction is maintained and reconstructed in the interview data: business is required to keep up with change and recent developments of the operational environment and external expectations.

[…] in the future. So all these kinds of things we do in order to… This always creates more and more new things and this is how the continuum should be. We can't merely tread water. (I10)

[…] tulevaisuudessa. Et tämmösiä kaikkia juttuja me aina sitten tehään näitten… Tästä aina niinku kehkeytyy lisää ja lisää ja jatkumo pitää olla. Me ei voida jäädä polkemaan paikalleen. (I10)

A: Is this good business now and in the future?
I: If we want to stay in this market, there are no other options. So, we have to master this. (I2)

A: Onko tää hyvää bisnestä nyt tai tulevaisuudessa?
H: Jos me halutaan olla näissä markkinoilla, niin mä en näe muuta vaihtoehtoa. Että tää on pakko osata. (I2)

When you think about the amount of components that are involved before it arrives at the restaurant, so considering that, things progress all the time. I don't quite know if we could talk about being pioneers, but like, staying up-to-date, and I claim that we are nevertheless quite good at that. (I5)

Sit kun ajattelee, että kuinka monta osatekijää tässä on, ennen kuin se on siellä ravintolassa, niin siihen nähden, niin kyllä se koko ajan niinku asiat etenee. En mä nyt tiedä voidaanko puhua edelläkävijyydestä, mutta

semmoselta niinku, ajan hermolla niin kyllä mä väitän että me kuitenkin ollaan siinä aika hyviä. (I5)

Even though societal change was mostly constructed as a challenge for business, some positive consequences were also identified. For one, as the pro-environmental and pro-climate values become more widespread in the society, it creates market opportunities for ecological products and services. Secondly, new business opportunities might develop as the climatic conditions change. The following quotes illustrate these positive visions:

Well, the general awareness has really increased, and a whole new level of awakening and basically that is also seen as a business opportunity, whereas before I was more regarded someone who increases costs…(I2)

No se, että yleinen tietoisuus on hirveesti, ja ihan erilainen heräämisen taso ja tota periaatteessa se nähdään myös bisnesmahdollisuutena, että silloin [ennen] mua pidettiin enemmänkin kustannusten tuojana… (I2)

Things like, related to sales come to my mind first. Then for example in the food industry, we might be able to grow all sorts of food in Finland… Who knows what possibilities we could find! Or, maybe we are able to grow some things, like the seasons change and it creates new opportunities or some domestic wine… (I8)

Semmoset, niiku, myyntiin liittyvät mahdollisuudet ensimmäisenä tulee mieleen. Sit esimerkiks ruokapuolella, niin voihan olla että meillä pystytään Suomessa tuottamaan kohta kaikenlaista ruokaa että… Sieltähän voi löytyä vaikka mitä mahdollisuuksia! Tai että meillä alkaakin kasvaa niiku jotkut asiat niiku ihan sesongit muuttuu ja siitä tulee mahdollisuuksia tai jotain kotimaista viiniä… (I8)

The quotes show how climate change is not only a business opportunity in terms of creating new energy efficient products, services and markets, but also in terms of positive changes in the operational environment. These kinds of meanings were presented with caution, in a wishful way. This kind of discourse associating climate change with positive consequences has been a popular way to construct climate change and it was especially used in the early 1900s (Hulme, 2009). However, this discourse is currently a marginal discourse while climate change is more commobly associated with negative and even catastrophic outcomes. Yet, the use of this and other meanings highlight the complexity inherent to climate change-business – relations and the various interlinked and competing meanings about climate change and business climate activities.

The change theme illustrates how meanings attached to climate change evolve from the workshop data to the interviews. The analysis shows how certain meanings are at first constructed in the workshops and how they are then utilised and reconstructed in the interview data. The analysis shows how the workshops created a motivational setting to promote climate change engagement. Further, the analysis suggests that as the business professionals have gained experience with climate change activities, the views on climate change and 'actual' climate change engagement have started to change.

Motivation for change is a central concern of this theme. Change in relation to business activities and the society at large are emphasised while current institutions, such as the economy, are not questioned. Change refers to businesses, products and services becoming more energy efficient and thus enabling the transformation of society into a new, low-carbon society. Hence, it is not only about business related change, rather the whole society is required to change (certainly within the existing economic and societal order. This maintains what Laine (2005) has noted: the way in which sustainability is presented in corporate disclosures implies there is nothing essentially wrong with the companies or industried core activities as they are practised at the moment. This is maintained in the data: there is nothing essentially wrong and business activities should not be reduced, rather it is put forward that climate change can be addressed by innovative businesses.

To conclude, change is mostly constructed in positive terms in the workshop data: even though the discourse of threat is based on a compulsive order to change, it is simultaneously linked to the possibility to create new business models and hence to enhance the company's competitiveness. The progress discourse emphasises voluntariness, innovativeness and business opportunities. In the interviews, in contrast, change is presented in a less enthusiastic manner: societal change is something that business should keep up with. Thus, the tensions of threat, progress and change are constantly negotiated and reconstructed in the data.

Similarly to the construction of rational information, change is presented as a rational activity. Rationalisation is based on factual and monetary constructions of business–natural resources–society relations.

4.2.3 Climate change activities as smart business

The theme 'climate change activities as smart business' discusses climate change engagement by focusing on climate change activities. This theme is closely linked

to the above-discussed themes of information and change. While the information theme presented the kind of information that is acceptable as a basis for climate change engagement and the change theme provided motivation and direction for such engagement, the win-win theme discusses the kinds of actions and activities that are deemed as proper and desirable in organisational context. In this theme, the meanings attached to profitability and responsibility, win-win activities and smart business are discussed.

(In)compatibility of profitability and responsibility

In the workshop data, profitability and responsibility are constructed as incompatible to start with. The dominant construction of business and business aims emphasises economic goals and profitability defining the kinds of activities that are possible and appropriate, and the kinds that are not. The priority of economic goals is emphasised, especially when they are in danger of becoming compromised. When the overall financial situation is alarming, all 'extra' activities and practices like those related to employee well-being and environmental protection, are discontinued. In contrast to the economic construction of business, responsibility is constructed as unprofitable activity. The following quote from the food retail workshop is a good example of how the incompatibility of profitability and responsibility was constructed:

> Then this last issue which is how responsibility forges profitability, so it is by no means self-evident but requires thought, and, er, forging. (W2R)

> Sitten tämä viimeinen, eli miten vastuullisuudesta rakennetaan kannattavuutta, niin sehän ei ole mikään itsestäänselvyys missään tapauksessa vaan se pitää miettiä, ja, tuota, rakentaa. (W2R)

The construction of the incompatibility of responsibility and profitability was commonly used in the workshops and further maintained in the interview data. However, it should be noted that this construction does not imply that profitability and responsibility were viewed as altogether impossible to link, rather it is remarked that it is a challenging task to find common ground for responsibility and profitability.

In addition to defining the limits for business activities as profitability, the interview data discussed the climate change engagement activities as depending on organisations' resources. Resources such as knowledge, financial, and human

resources, are required in order to carry out the activities. Again, financial resources are prioritised:

> It is not possible to come up with the kind of solutions that are not within the frames of these kinds of investments. So they have to be fitted in there… There is no other possibility. No one has such extra money, especially in this economic situation. So financial realities need to be considered. (I9)

> Ei pystytä tekemään semmosia ratkaisuja, mitkä ei tapahdu normaalien tällasten investointien puitteissa. Eli ne on pakko mahduttaa sinne… Ei muuta mahdollisuutta oo. Ei kenelläkään oo olemassa sellasta ylimäärästä rahaa, ei varsinkaan tässä taloudellisessa tilanteessa. Et taloudelliset realiteetit pitää ottaa huomioon. (I9)

The level of appropriate climate change engagement becomes defined in relation to the company's activities and goals. The interviewees discuss that firstly a company needs to consider whether climate change activities are compatible with the company's business aims. A rather vague notion of 'business aims' is used to refer to the priority of financial goals. The next quotes maintain what has been presented earlier: climate change engagement is appropriate and possible so far as it does not conflict with the other aims of the company.

> But it is totally different thing when every company needs to consider whether this is compatible with our things and aims. (I8)

> Mut sitten on eri asia kun jokaisen firman täytyy miettiä et sopiiko tää meidän juttuihin ja tarkotuksiin. (I8)

> In a way they all are included within, so that we will not advance one single issue fanatically, but they all should, like I said to begin with, so all should naturally intertwine, and no-one… None one of them can be in contradiction with the others. (I10)

> Ne tulee tavallaan sillä tavalla siel sisällä, et ei me lähetä siihen et me jotain yhtä tiettyä lähetään fanaattisesti viemään, vaan kaikkien pitää, niiku mä aluks sanoinki, et kaikkien luontevasti nivoutua yhteen, eikä kukaan… mikään niistä ei voi olla ristiriidassa toistensa kanssa. (I10)

This construction of incompatibility of profitability and responsibility is created in the workshops and maintained in the interview data. In this construction, responsibility is presented as something vague, as something that cannot be

measured and thus, as non-factual and unacceptable, as discussed in the information theme.

Climate change activities as win-win and easy

The above discussed meanings associated with climate change, business, and responsibility become intertwined in the win-win view. The win-win view emphasises the 'double goal' of climate change engagement activities: profitability and climate change mitigation can be achieved simultaneously. Thus, the tension between profitability and responsibility becomes reconciled in the win-win talk.

The win-win talk emphasises the integration of economic and environmental goals and sees that they can, and should, be achieved simultaneously. The win-win construction suggests that business activities can be used to create solutions to sustainability challenges and that the solutions can be both of economic and environmental value, or a combination of environmental value and some other desirable value (status, image, time saving). This construction is used to present climate activities as a source of business value and as an attractive opportunity for business. The following quotes demonstrate the win-win focus in the workshops:

> Let's advertise, let's tell them that "you do these things, we will accomplish this, others have already done this, this is a big thing, this is beneficial, you will profit from this financially, status improves […]" (W1R)

> Mainostetaan, kerrotaan sille, että "teet tämmöset jutut, saavutetaan tämä, muut on tämän tehny, tää on kova juttu, tästä hyötyy, sä hyödyt tästä rahallisesti, status nousee […]" (W1R)

> […] I see that it is important for the employer image to promote these ecological choices […] these choices have sort of direct impacts on business, by making ecological choices we can have more business and increased profitability. (W3R)

> […] mä nään, että työnantajakuvan kannalta on tärkeetä edistää tämmösiä ekologisia valintoja […] näillä valinnoilla on niinku suoria liiketoiminnallisia vaikutuksia, et valitsemalla ekologisen saadaan enemmän bisnestä ja parempi tulos. (W3R)

The win-win talk links climate change engagement to cost savings and profitability, and in addition to enhanced quality and business image. Especially quality was emphasised in the interview data: ecological choices and products were constructed

as a quality issue, as something that is valued both by business and customers. References to improved company image were also frequent:

> And it creates a certain image of us as a company, and I also think about creating a good image of our company, that we are really interested in these things and we are doing something about it. […] In a way it improves our company image. (I4)

> Ja se luo tietty kuvaa meistä yrityksenä, että mä mietin myös sitä, että meidän yrityksestä tulee, tulee hyvä kuva, että me ollaan oikeasti kiinnostuneita näistä asioista ja me tehdään jotain. […] Se tavallaan kohottaa meidän yrityskuvaa. (I4)

Climate change activities are further presented as desirable by constructing them as 'easy'. This construction was particularly used in the interview data and the image of 'easy' was constructed in more than one way. For one, climate change activities were presented as straightforward by constructing them as a matter of 'common sense'. A related view emphasised minor, tangible activities – 'small steps' - as important. The following quotes illustrate the emphasis on 'common sense' and 'small steps':

> Yeah, it is not, it is not a problem. It does not mean extra work, if you consider it from the prespective of the employee, when they usually only think that it means extra work, but there's no extra work. You just think about the work in a different way, perhaps do things in a different order. (I4)

> Joo, eihän se oo, ei se oo mikään ongelma. Ei siitä tule ylimääräistä työtä, jos ajattelee työntekijän kannalta, että ne aina yleensä aattelee vaan sitä, että se on lisää työtä, mutta ei se ole lisää työtä. Sä vaan mietit sitä työtä vähän eri tavalla, teet eri järjestyksessä ehkä. (I4)

> But we must start somewhere and small steps is the way forward, not by forcefully introducing it all at once. (I3)

> Mutta jostain pitää aika aloittaa ja pienin askelin kuitenkin mennä, eikä heti läväyttää kaikkea. (I3)

The focus on small steps suggests that minor activities can be easily fitted into existing business processes and that incremental changes are sufficient and easily achievable. This construction is interesting, because contrary to what I expected, climate change activities are not viewed as difficult or complex. This seems to be a tendency in the current sustainability discourse, as for example also Laine (2005) has presented that in corporate disclosures, sustainability is "reduced to a simple

process". Mäkelä and Laine (2011) have discussed that CEOs create the impression that sustainability is under control and that sustainability can be achieved by a mere decision to act. By presenting climate change activities as 'small steps', change becomes constructed as a process that unfolds as a series of minor activities and incremental improvements. Radical change is thus not seen as an option to engage with climate change, as it is not deemed as fitting to business aims. In addition, Spence (2007) has presented that finding a balance between sustainability and profitability aims were emphasised and that conflicts between different interests were not completely denied; rather, they were presented as manageable.

Secondly, climate change activities are presented as easy by underlining the experience that is gained from previous environmental activities. This kind of experience is viewed as a source of useful and rational knowledge: the business professionals already have experience of what works and what does not.

> A: Why, where there similarities, that issues were already familiar to you?
> I: Probably that's it, and then when we had already started to promote that in our company, so there was in a way nothing new to that. (I4)

> A: Miksi, oliko siinä vähän niinku samaa, että asiat oli jo tuttua?
> H: Varmaan se, ja sitten kun me oltiin jo omassa yrityksessä sitä asiaa lähdetty viemään eteenpäin jo niin pitkälle, niin siitä ei tullut tavallaan enää mitään uutta siihen. (I4)

> So yes, like the Peloton project showed, we have quite a lot of information and knowledge in the organisation […]. It [the project] in a way, it taught us that we have a rather large amount of resources here, when we could just be able to use them and bring the right people together. (I5)

> No kyllä, niinku toi Peloton projekti osotti sen, että kyllä meillä on hirveesti sitä tietoa ja taitoa talon sisällä[…]. Se [projekti] niinku, se opetti sen, että kyllä meillä on aika isot voimavarat täällä, kun me vaan osattais käyttää niitä ja koota ne oikeat henkilöt yhteen. (I5)

To summarise the 'smart business' theme, the focus of the theme is on climate change activities. The theme discusses climate change activities as win-win opportunities that firstly overcome the incompatibility of profitability and responsibility, and secondly are easy to implement. The win-win construction presents that there is no contradiction between climate change activities and business aims. This is further emphasised by discussing climate change activities as easy because they can be implemented with 'small steps'. Again, any general business aim is not jeopardised, as climate change engagement is presented a

process consisting of incremental improvements to the existing practices. The discussions of climate change activities focus on activities such as recycling, energy efficient machinery and logistics - all of these have been paid attention to prior to the emergence of climate change as a pressing issue. Now, in relation to climate change, these activities are given new significance and their emphasis might have shifted, as measured in terms of climate emissions.

The win-win construction has been identified as a dominant theme in earlier research on corporate sustainability and climate change (e.g. Laine, 2005; Livesey, 2002a; Spence, 2007; Tregidga et al., 2013; Wittneben et al., 2012). The win-win view maintains the 'triple bottom line' of corporate responsibility and the environmental, social and economic responsibilities seen as separable from each other. In the data, climate change is described mainly as an environmental issue and the social dimension is not discussed. The environmental dimension is a 'natural' way to describe climate change activities: environmental management typically addresses such issues as energy efficiency that are also utilised to mitigate climate change. The win-win construction prioritises economic goals and subscribes to 'weak' responsibility. This maintains what Laine (2005) has presented: if financial performance is not satisfactory, environmental and social matters cannot be addressed.

The smart business theme is closely intertwined with the constructions of change. The basic assumption underlying the rational discourse is apparent in both of these themes: climate change requires businesses to engage with it, and this engagement is actually profitable. While the change theme discussed the motivations for climate change engagement, the smart business theme emphasised climate change activities as easy and beneficial.

This theme illustrates how meanings become constructed by opposing them to one another. The traditional contradiction between business aims and responsibility is maintained in the data to start with. This contradiction is then overcome by focusing on win-win opportunities. This is a rather powerful rhetorical means to present climate change activities as attractive opportunities. Similarly, in the change theme, climate change is at first discussed as a threat and then progress and change are emphasised as desirable solutions to it.

The meanings of profitability, responsibility and win-win are constructed in a rather similar manner throughout the data: the meanings constructed in the workshops recur in the interviews. The most notable difference in these meanings between the data sets is related to views attached to climate activities and responsibility. In the workshops, responsibility is constructed as a challenge, while

in the interviews climate change activities, as a part of business responsibility were reconstructed as 'easy' and even 'fun'.

4.2.4 Businesses as change agents

The theme 'businesses as change agents' shows how business organisations are constructed in a key position in relation to addressing climate change. As already established in the previous themes, climate change is constructed as an issue requiring urgent action and changes at business and societal levels. Energy-related decisions and energy efficiency are presented as the main activities in order to produce the required change.

In the workshops, businesses and business professionals are constructed as the producers of change and the enbalers of the transformation of the society into a low-carbon society. The spirit of the workshops was very motivational and positive images and notions emphasising a 'can do' attitude were actively used by the workshop organisers.

> Okay, well, this was an account of the origins of the word Peloton. It is not only the Gyro Gearloose who invents new things, but also the group of cyclists who saves energy for a breakaway[2]. But now, actually the relevant question is that all of us in this room, we are the "Peloton". We will grow into the Peloton gatekeeper role during the next two days, we will continue in that role hopefully also after these two days. (W3R)

> Okei, no hei, tässä tuli nyt selvitys siitä, että mistä sana Peloton tulee. Siellä ei oo ainoastaan se Pelle Peloton, joka keksii uutta, vaan myöskin se pyöräilijäjoukko, joka säästää energiaa, irtiottoja varten. Mut nyt, oikeestaan relevantti kysymys tässä onkin se, että, me kaikki olemme tässä huoneessa, näitä Pelottomia. Me kasvamme siihen Pelottoman portinvartijarooliin tän seuraavan kahden päivän aikana, jatketaan siinä roolissa, toivottavasti myöskin tän kakspäiväisen jälkeen. (W3R)

The position of business professionals as the providers of solutions to the looming climate crisis is further constructed by contrasting business professionals and

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[2] Some clarifying remarks are in order here. The word 'Peloton', originating from French, means the main group of cyclists in a bicycle race. In a race, these cyclists save energy by riding close to each other. In addition, a literal translation of the word 'peloton' to Finnish is 'fearless'. Gyro Gearloose's Finnish name is Pelle Peloton, and hence the original quote refers to Gyro Gearloose as the inventor and to his Finnish name presenting him as a fearless inventor of new things.

customers or consumers. To start with, in the workshops private consumption was identified as using a majority of energy in Finland, and hence as main source of GHG emissions.

> 68% of Finnish energy-use results from private consumption the largest causers are housing, travel, and food. (W1N)

> 68 % Suomen energiankulutuksesta tulee yksityisesti kulutuksesta, suurimmat asuminen, liikkuminen ja ruoka. (W1N)

Private energy-use is mainly linked to consumers' everyday choices related to housing, travel and food. The question of who has caused, or is causing, climate change was not explicitly dicussed further. Rather, it was acknowledged that all of us - citizens, companies and industry - have contributed to climate change and that the whole society is required to change. The emphasis was notably on the high emissions originating from private consumption and on how businesses can help consumers to change their behaviour into a low-energy lifestyle.

Business professionals were constructed as 'gatekeepers' for energy-smart solutions. In this construction, customers are presented as lacking information or ways to act on climate change while business professionals are presented as smart and innovative actors and as having accurate information and knowledge about how to mitigate climate change.

> Business professionals have the responsibility to act in such a manner that they enable customers to act in a climate-friendly way. (W2N)

> Ammattilaisilla on vastuu toimia siten, että he mahdollistavat kuluttajien ilmastoystävällisen toiminnan. (W2N)

> As a final remark, the issue that discussed earlier that technical equipment is not the problem, rather how we motivate and inspire customers to, to cooperate and to participate in the service: that is the trick here. (W1R)

> Loppukaneettina, mitä aikaisemmin puhuttiin, että tekniset laitteet ei ole se ongelma, vaan se että miten se asiakas motivoidaan ja innostetaan siihen, siihen yhteistyöhön mukaan ja palveluun mukaan, niin se on tämän koko homman juju. (W1R)

This talk underlines business organisations as being responsible for educating the customers or providing them with ways to act on climate change. As a source of accurate information about climate change mitigation, businesses have athe responsibility to disseminate the information to customers. In this construction,

the business activities and the position of business organisations as educators customers is justified and rationalised by utilising scientific rationalisation strategy (Joutsenvirta, 2011) focusing on the scientific and technological knowledge and expertise about climate change that business organisations have.

The interview data maintains and reconstructs the meanings constructed in the workshop data. The distinction between business professionals as the educators and customers as ignorant becomes less pronounced. Business organisations and professionals are viewed less as educators and more as informers and motivators and customers are identified as active and aware of climate change:

> So in that way I see it as important, and I also think that there are opportunities to, like, advance things. But in the way that the role is really to be an initiator of thought and awareness […] (I8)

> Et sillä tavalla nään, että on merkittävä, ja että myös nään, että on oikeesti mahdollisuuksia, niiku, edistää asioita. Mutta sitten sillä tavalla, että se on nimenomaan se rooli, niiku, ajatusten ja tietoisuuden herättelijänä […] (I8)

> The students consider the climate issue as extremely important and they actually even demand and ask for these things and indeed they have received this well. The clientele is, like, really aware and very ready to absorb information, potential, and that is a good sign. (I5)

> Opiskelijapuolella esimerkiksi tää ilmastoasia on ihan älyttömän tärkeä, ja he niinku oikeastaan jopa vaatii ja pyytää näitä asioita ja siellähän se vastaanotto on tosi hyvää. Se asiakaskunta on niinku tosi valveutunutta ja oikeen semmosta tietoa imevää, potentiaalista, ja se on hyvä merkki. (I5)

The role of business as promoter of climate change engagement is also outright questioned in the data. Rather, it is presented that businesses should take a neutral position and provide a variety of options for the customers who then themselves make the decisions:

> I don't think that it [advocating something] is the task of retailers. (I9)

> Mun mielestä se [jonkun asian puolesta puhuminen] ei ole kaupan tehtävä. (I9)

The interview data illustrates how the meanings constructed in the workshops become utilised and reconstructed later on. The meanings evolve, sharpen and become more blurred in relation to the different operational environments and experiences of the business professionals.

All in all, the theme of business as change agents is interesting, because it contradicts the popular discourse where companies are constructed as the 'bad guys', as the source of environmental degradation and climate emissions. Rather, business organisations are constructed as the producers and enablers of development and change and business professionals are constructed as the educators and motivators of customers.

Similar constructions discussing business and business professionals as change agents have been presented in previous research. Tregidga et al. (2014) have presented that organisations strive to present themselves as change agents enabling sustainable development. Onkila (2009) thas identified that the environmental manager is presented as an influencer who guides and supports the environmental action of the others. Wright and Nyberg (2012) have discussed how corporations cast themselves as agents of social transformation toward a low-carbon economy. In addition, Wright et al. (2012) have explored the narrative identities of sustainability specialists and have identified three identities: the green change agent, the rational manager and the committed activists. The green change agent promotes environmental sustainability in work and non-work settings and is a positive image of creating a more sustainable organisation. The rational manager identity is constructed around traditional business concerns of efficiency, profitability and shareholder value. This construction of business as change agents has elements of both the green change agents and the rational manager identities: at the same time, positive change, climate change mitigation and business profitability are emphasised. Wright et al. (2012) discussed the rational manager identity as an effective political tactic to "work-around" the cause of sustainability: when sustainability is met with resistance in an organisation, presenting it in rational terms is more likely to be received in a positive way than utilising the green change agent identity. The third identified identity, the committed activist, referring to forceful expressions of environmental commitment often challenging corporate decisions and practices, was not present in the rational construction of companies as change agents in the data.

The theme shows how certain aspects of climate change engagement are taken for granted: climate change engagement is equated with energy efficiency improvements and business organisations' ability to engage with climate change is not questioned. This theme expresses confidence in the transformational power of business activities. At the same time, customers and their ability to engage with climate change is problematised by presenting them as unaware or lacking with engagement 'tools'.

The change agents theme is closely intertwined with the other themes constituting the rational discourse. While the smart business theme focused on internal activities presenting the win-win activities as profitable business, the change agents theme has a focus on external activities. This theme suggests that climate change mitigation and the required change is achieved foremost by changing consumers' behaviour. In this construction, the challenge to engage with climate change is not the implementation of internal activities, rather it is the implementation of these activities and the products and services outside the company. In this theme, the position and significance of business actors is constructed vis-à-vis to consumers. By presenting the consumers as the source of climate emissions and as unaware of climate change, the responsibilities of business and consumers are presented in a particular way: Business is responsible for educating the consumer to enable their climate-friendly behaviour and the consumer is responsible for 'actually' engaging with climate change. While the rational construction clearly lays out the position of business organisations in the process of enabling the transformation into a low-carbon society, the consumers' part remains fuzzy: are the consumers willing to choose energy-smart options and to 'do their part'?

4.3 The moral discourse

4.3.1 Climate change engagement as the 'right thing to do'

The rational discourse maintains that businesses should engage with climate change for strategic reasons: for one, climate change causes drastic changes in the operational environment and secondly, climate change activities are profitable, win-win opportunities. The rational discourse dominates in the workshop and interview data as well as in the society at large. However, this discourse was complemented and questioned, and even criticised, by a discourse emphasising other than monetary and scientific facts and values. I have named this discourse as the moral discourse. The moral discourse was constructed in the interview data while the workshop data mostly relied on the rational constructions. The moral discourse is presented through three themes: climate change engagement as the 'right thing to do', climate change engagement and personal values, and critique of the market economy.

The first theme of the moral discourse, 'climate change engagement as the 'right thing to do'', presents climate change engagement as necessary and important in business organisations. Climate change is constructed as a major societal issue that businesses organisations need to be informed about and activele engaged with. This construction presents that business organisations taking responsibility for climate change action are respectable and have a good morale.

> [...] we definitely strive to be such a respectable business that takes into account a number of issues, like that. (I3)

> [...] me ehdottomasti pyritään olemaan semmonen kunnollinen yritys, joka ottaa huomioon paljon asioita, niin. (I3)

> I won't say environmental demands, because our stakeholders for instance have not demanded it very actively, so that is not like the main reason it has not been demanded of us. But like... we just see that it is the kind of an issue that we now need to be aware of. (I8)

> Mä en sano ympäristöpaineet, koska meidän niiku esimerkiksi sidosryhmät ei oo vaatinu sitä kovinkaan aktiivisesti, et se ei oo niiku se pääsyy, et ulkopuolelta olis vaadittu. Mut et semmonen niikun... et koetaan, et kyl se vaan on semmonen asia mistä nyt pitää olla tietoinen. (I8)

The quotes illustrate how climate change engagement is regarded as something of intrinsic value, as something that requires no other, in particular instrumental, reasons for engagement. The latter quote contrasts someone demanding the company to protect the environment with the company's willingness to do so, thus emphasising the internal origin of the aim to do right.

In this construction, responsibility of businesses is constructed in relation to what the society expects of business organisations, or of what is perceived as the society's expectation. The aim of climate change engagement is to fulfil the (perceived) societal expectations, to act the way a respectable and responsible business does. In the end, this rather vague construction leaves it up to the business professionals to define what a respectable and responsible organisation considers or does, as there are no set guidelines – only what is perceived as expected behaviour.

This theme emphasises 'taking climate change into account' and 'awareness' as something that a responsible organisation does. Again, this vague construction gives business professionals ample room to consider the extent of the activities they wish to engage with. The morale of a business organisation is here not judged

by the scope of the activities but on whether the organisation is willing to engage with climate change to begin with.

The moral discourse brings forward a willingness to engage with climate change for intrinsic reasons even when there is no certainty that the activities have any effect at all. This is in apparent contrast to the rational discourse emphasising climate change engagement in terms of activities because climate change engagement is obligatory (threat) and profitable (win-win). In the rational discourse, rational activities are viewed as straightforward and efficient. The following quote illustrates how the moral discourse constructs willingness to engage as the most important thing and as the obligation of business:

> So in that way, even if we hit zero [emissions], unfortunately that would not save Finland, but I think that perhaps the most important thing is to be involved in the national aims for cutting down emissions and in that way, how should I put it... to do one's bit there, to do one's share, whether it is big or small and in our case it is probably something in between. (I8)

> Et sillä tavalla, vaikka me päästäis nollaan, niin se ei valitettavasti niiku Suomee pelastais, mutta että mun mielestä se on ehkä tärkeintä olla mukana just niissä niiku kansallisissa päästövähennystavoitteissa ja sillä tavalla, niikun miten mä nyt sanoisin... kantaa oma korsi kekoon siinä kohtaa, että hoitaa sen oman osuutensa, oli se sit iso tai pieni ja meillä se on varmaan niiku siltä väliltä. (I8)

This construction utilises ethical or moral reasons for climate change engagement, such as deontological ethics. Deontology is an ethical position that emphasises the obligation to act in a moral way (Micewski & Troy, 2007). The consequences of action are not in focus here, rather this construction emphasises taking action because it is 'the right thing to do'. Being a responsible organisation is here constructed as an obligation of businesses: businesses have an obligation to take certain roles and responsibilities, to fulfil certain duties in the society.

While the rational discourse utilised the change discourse focusing on threat and opportunity to present reasons for climate change engagement, the moral discourse constructs responsibility as a reason for climate change activities. All in all, this theme highlights the intrinsic value of climate change engagement and climate change activities are discussed in a positive way (see also Onkila, 2009). Responsibility as a 'reason' for sustainability activities has also been discussed by Laine (2005) who noted that companies construct contributing to sustainable development as a responsible action, as something that companies ought to do. Tregidga et al. (2013) have remarked that the obligation to engage with

sustainability issues is driven by moral and ethical rationale, even though these references to moral and ethical reasons are less dominant than statements referring to economic rationale.

Tregidga et al. (2013) have discussed how sustainable development is constructed as necessary and important in business organisations. The authors present that this construction is based on rationalism: sustainable development is constructed as necessary and important to sustain the organisation, its continued operations, and its reputation. Necessity is emphasised in particular by presenting organisations as dependent on the natural environment and because sustainability is demanded by the society. These findings are partly confirmed in my study as the rational discourse in particular places significant importance on continued business success. The dependence on natural resources is also acknowledged in the rational discourse as climate change engagement is presented as necessary because natural resources, i.e. energy, will become more scarce and expensive in the future. This brings another dimension to what Tregidga et al. (2013) have discussed as they presented that organisations are dependent on the natural environment and therefore must sustain the environment in order to survive. Sustaining of the environment in order to survive is not brought up in the rational discourse, even though the dependence on natural resources is to some extent acknowledged.

The moral discourse adds another dimension to constructing climate change engagement as important: climate protection is constructed as important because it has intrinsic value. Next, this is further elaborated by explicating the theme 'climate change engagement and personal values'.

4.3.2 Climate change engagement and personal values

The theme 'climate change engagement and personal values' emphasises the personal aspects of climate change engagement. This theme entails personal values, attitudes, and ethics related to climate change engagement. The personal relationship to climate change engagement is discussed as being intertwined with one's professional engagement with climate change.

This construction emphasises climate change engagement for personal gratification and satisfaction. Personal gratification is achieved when one has done 'right' in respect to own values or towards others:

> And it makes you feel happy when you know that … is it conscience or such that is good when we've really thought about these things as well. (I12)

Ja se tuo niiku hirveesti hyvää mieltä, kun tietää, että … onks se nyt omatunto vai sellanen, joka niiku tykkää hyvää, kun on mietitty ihan oikeesti myös tätä kohtaa. (I12)

No, because it can't be seen anywhere, I can't really say anything else except that you know when you've done right, so that gives you gratification. (I4)

Ei, kun ei sitä näe missään, en mä oikein osaa sanoa muuta kun sen että tietää, että on tehnyt oikein, niin siitä saa itselle hyvän mielen. (I4)

Well, my motivation for this work comes specifically from the feeling that I can do good, like I said, to be one of the good guys, or to save the planet as my profession. It's like, an absolutely great thing that motivates me every single day. (I8)

No, tässä työssä mua motivoi nimenomaan se, että mulla on semmonen olo, et mä saan tehdä hyvää, niinku että sanoin, että hyvän puolella, tai että ammatikseni pelastaa maailmaa, se on niiku se, ehdottomasti se hieno asia, mikä motivoi ihan joka päivä. (I8)

These quotes support the findings presented by Wright and Nyberg (2012, p. 1582) as they note that climate change is an issue in which sustainability specialists can "marry their personal concerns with broader business objectives".

Wright et al. (2012) have explored the identities of sustainability specialists and in the 'business as change agents' theme both the identities of rational manager and the green change agent were identifiable. The green change agent, promoting environmental sustainability in work and non-work settings and constructing positive image of creating a more sustainable organisation, is quite alike to the constructions identified in this theme.

Similarly to the theme discussing climate change engagement as the 'right thing to do', the personal value theme presents climate change engagement as something that respectable individuals with good morale engage with. This construction acknowledges that it is not always easy to do right but it is the obligation of a good citizen:

[…] you really need to be quite involved to make such choices even if you do not particularly, or for instance that lentil patties do not really taste good, but that I will be a good citizen and eat the lentil patties. (I3)

[…] sit täytyy olla aika vihkiytynyt, että tekee semmosia valintoja, että vaikka ei erityisesti, tai tietää vaikka että linssipihvit ei nyt oo kovin hyviä, mutta että, kyllä mä oon kunnon kansalainen, niin mä otan linssipihvejä. (I3)

Constructing climate change as a personal issue presents climate change as something that can be denied, believed in and to have opinions about. This comes apparent in remarks where the interviewees discuss 'converting' or 'awakening' to climate change. Converting refers to changing of people's attitudes and awakening to getting people to acknowledge climate change and the need for action. The notion of awakening constructs climate change as something that the majority of people are still oblivious of. Thus, individuals can either 'awaken' or become awakened to the issue. This metaphor is also extended to climate change information. This is illustrated when the interviewees comment on how they were surprised by the new information about climate change. The metaphor of awakening produces climate change as an object that can be perceived in different ways depending on one's awareness. The following quotes illustrate how the metaphors of awakening and coverting were used in the interview data:

> And then seriously, people awaken to the reality that beef produces the large carbon footprint. (I11)

> Ja tosissaan sitten se, että herätään siihen todellisuuteen, et se naudanliha tuottaa sitä isoa hiilijalanjälkeä. (I11)

> And it is such a matter that it proceeds little by little, one must do like the so called, er, let me see, positive conversion and then convert one person at a time (laughter). (I10)

> Ja se on semmonen, että se etenee tavallaan aika pikkuhiljaa, että sitä on niiku semmosta niin sanottua, hmm, miten sanosin, positiivista käännytystyötä tehtävä ja sitten käännytetään niitä ihmisiä yks kerrallaan (naurua). (I10)

Referring to awakening and converting acknowledges that climate change is both a matter of knowledge and faith: both accurate information and willingness to know are needed to change behaviour. The first quote illustrates this by stating "to awaken to the reality" which refers to a notion of an objective truth about climate change as a fact and to the view that some people choose to ignore or deny this fact. This statement implies that climate change is a truth and that denying it is avoiding responsibility and the reality.

The awakening construction has similarities with the construction of 'business as change agents', while both these constructions emphasise change and transformation of one's own and others' attitudes and behaviour. However, the rational 'business as change agents' focuses on rational reasoning for change and climate change engagement and suggests that such change is necessary for the

benefit and survival of the society at large. In addition, 'business as change agents' constructs business professionals as educators of customers. In that construction there is someone else (i.e. the business professional) who initiates the change. On the other hand, the awakening construction has a more internal focus relying on personal transformation that is initiated through awakening and due to moral and ethical concerns. Awakening, however, can be initiated by the self or by others.

The awakening metaphor is a similar construction to what Wright et al. (2012, p. 1468) have discussed as transformation. They present that by referring to the transformation of the self, sustainability specialists described how their attitudes have evolved over time as they have been exposed to new information. Likewise, in the interview data these changes and new realisations are celebrated and emphasis is placed on transformation and epiphany. Wright et al. (2012) have also discussed sacrifice linked to transformation, for instance noting that sustainability specialists might have resigned in order to be able to pursue the new transformed self. These kinds of notions did not emerge in the data.

Overall, the theme 'climate change engagement and personal values' maintains what recent studies have suggested. Williams and Schaefer (2013) have concluded that managers' personal values and beliefs appeared as the most notable motivation to engage with climate change, after economic arguments and external pressure. In addition, Brønn and Vidaver-Cohen (2008) have identified 'personal satisfaction' as motive for corporate social initiative even though noting that moral motives were considered less relevant than motives related to legitimacy motives or to strategic concerns. Likewise, Nyberg & Wright (2012) have presented that while market values dominated, managers expressed plural values showing simultaneously passion for the environment and an aim of creating a better society. However, these remarks are still quite rare. Hence, the findings presented here contribute to this emerging discussion.

4.3.3 Critique of the market economy

The 'critique of the market economy' theme questions the rational discourse focusing on efficiency and profitability. This theme presents that traditional economic values such as profit seeking are unsustainable goals from the society's and a person's own point of view. The critique was mostly implicit and this is a marginal theme in the data. However, a few explicit critical points were also presented.

The market discourse of profit maximisation is questioned when one of the interviewees reflects on the increased insecurity related to global food markets:

> And actually, the money, doing anything for money, that tends to be a slippery slope… that does not sustain one's values. […] overall such things take place in food production, and when it has become a part of market instruments […] (I12)

> Ja oikeestaan, se raha, et mitä tahansa tekee niiku rahan takia, niin se vähän kyllä tahtoo olemaan sellanen heikko tie et… Se ei niiku arvomaailmaa hirveesti kanna. […] ylipäätänsä tässä ruokatuotannossa tapahtuu sellasia asioita, ja kun siitä on tullut osa pörssin välinettä […] (I12)

Also a construction questioning the win-win logic and the overall impact of these activities emerged. By stating "if you really think about the environment" the interviewee presents that the climate change activities with a win-win focus are supportive of other goals, in anything, than environmental protection:

> That's what we're doing here. And that affects waste but in terms of the bigger picture they're just peanuts. If you really think about the environment and other things, they are just like small crumbs. (I9)

> Sitä me ollaan tekemässä. Ja se vaikuttaa hävikkiin, mutta kokonaisuuden kannalta ne on aivan peanutseja. Siis jos ajatellaan niiku oikeesti ympäristöä ja kaikkee muuta, niin ne on aivan niiku murusia. (I9)

This quote questions businesses' climate change engagement to start with and the possibility to transform business or the society by business activities. Uncertainty and challenges are also constructed by reflecting on the abstract nature of climate change and climate change activities:

> Yes, when you just know, that it is, it's one [action] that helps and when there are multiple actions, then you have it. One can consider that the Earth has now, for example, two more seconds to live. Or that doesn't affect us because at the time we are no longer here, and that is actually probably the challenge that it doesn't affect our lives in that way, everyday lives, and it is not so concrete that maybe people are not so eager to do anything about it. It would be different if we could see it immediately. (I4)

> Niin, kun sä vaan tiedät, että se on, on yhtenä auttamassa siellä ja kun niitä tekoja on paljon, niin sittenhän se. Voi sitä miettiä, että maapallolle tuli nyt vaikka kaksi sekuntia lisää elinaikaa. Tai eihän se meitä kosketa kun mehän ollaan silloin jo kauan sitten menneitä pois täältä, että siinä se varmaan se haaste onkin että se ei niinku vaikuta meidän elämään sillä tavalla,

jokapäiväiseen elämään, niin se ei ole niin konkreettista että ihmiset ei sitten ehkä oo niin innokkaita siihen asiaan. Se ois eri asia jos se näkyis heti. (I4)

These kinds of remarks were not widely brought to the discussion; rather, they were more like parentheses and afterthoughts that were passingly mentioned, but not discussed further.

In addition, nostalgic remarks were utilised to display discontent with the current system. The following quotes imply that things used to be better 'in the old days':

At the same time it is quite funny because that's what life used to be like, in autumn certain… certain types of food were eaten, and during winter other types, and so on, but then… It was a fair awakening when contemporary people have got used to having all sorts of things in stores around the year. Is that reasonable then, in that way… (I11)

Toisaalta se on aika hassua, koska sitähän se ennen on tämä elämä ollut, että syksyllä on syöty tiettyä… tietynlaista ruokaa, ja talvella tietynlaista, ja niin edelleen, mut että tuota.. Se oli ihan niiku hyvä herätys, kun ihmiset on nykyaikana tottunu siihen, että kaupasta saa ympäri vuoden mitä vaan. Että onko se sitten niiku järkevää, sillä tavalla että…(I11)

And then of course I find it really amusing that we had quite many employees who either had small farm or were so called farmer's kids who then tell me that they used to do organic farming […]. So actually that turned out to be such a cycle that, as a matter of fact, organic food is rather familiar to us. (I12)

Ja tietenkin niiku semmonen, et mun mielestä oli hirveen hauska, et meillä oli aika paljon tässä töissäkin ihmisiä, joilla on joko pientila tai sitten ovat maatilan lapsia niin sanotusti, jotka kertoo sitten, et heilläkin aikanaan oli se luomutuotanto […]. Et oikeestaan meille tuli sellanen kaari, että itseasiassa luomu on aika tuttu juttu. (I12)

And so I returned to somewhere in the 70s, or thought about it when I also had a recollection that we had organic farming and life was, er, more simple. (I12)

Ja kyl mä niiku kuitenkin itse menin tänne jonnekin 70-luvulle, tai mietin sitä, että kun oli tosiaan ollu omaki muistikuva siitä, että oli luomua ja oli tota vähän yksinkertasempaa se elämä. (I12)

Siltaoja (2009) has discussed the use nostalgia as a discursive practice of resistance and questioning the change in organisational practices. These findings support

what she has noted: nostalgia idealises the past, referring to it as a period of higher moral values.

The moral discourse and the critical construction present climate change as an emotional issue. Climate change makes people feel a variety of emotions, as can be seen in public debates ripe with such emotions as fear, anxiety, anger but also hope and passion. The critical construction allows for mostly negative emotions to emerge: climate change and business climate change engagement are mostly depicted in negative terms and such emotions as fear, mistrust and discontent are evident. In contrast, the theme 'climate change engagement and personal values' mostly presented positive emotions: satisfaction, hope and success.

Emotions in corporate climate change engagement have been examined by Wright and Nyberg (2012) focusing on corporate sustainability specialists' emotional engagement with climate change. Similarly to the findings presented here, they found that emotions, such as excitement, pride, hope, passion, hostility, fear and guilt, were intense when discussing climate change. Positive emotions might help to advance climate change engagement while negative emotions might result in unwanted consequences. Wright and Nyberg (2012) have noted that employees' emotions could conflict with business objectives, resulting in unintended consequences and tensions. In addition, they discussed the issue that when employees perceive a discrepancy between "the rhetoric and the reality of corporate environmentalism", the positive emotions of pride and satisfaction could turn into negative emotions of frustration, disillusion and anger (ibid., p. 1579).

The critical construction, however, does not criticise the activities of a particular company, rather the discontent is with the wider market system. The interviewees question the ability of individuals and companies to contribute to climate change mitigation in the prevailing system.

4.4 Creating, maintaining and recreating meaning in the discourses

The analysis has presented two discourses used to talk about climate change engagement: the rational and moral discourses. These discourses have been explicated by identifying the themes constituting, and constituted in, these discourses and by identifying how meanings has been created, maintained and recreated in the discourses. This chapter further discusses the creation of meaning.

First a remark considering the naming of the discources as rational and moral. In common use, rational and moral are often viewed as antithetical conceptions.

This is also expressed by the separation thesis, or the separation fallacy, prevailing in society and management and organisation studies positing that ethics is separate from business (Freeman, 1994; Harris & Freeman, 2008). The two climate change engagement discourses are identified and presented according to how they are constructed in the language use of the business professionals and I have named them as rational and moral. The former discourse is named as rational because in this construction the business professionals presents their climate change engagement as rational activity by discussing it as necessary and beneficial for business organisations and for the society at large. In this discourse, rational activity is produced as based on objective information and not conflicting with traditional business aims. Thus, the rational discourse produces and maintains a perception of what business rationality is. The other discourse is named as the moral discourse and is similarly based on the business professionals' constructions of climate change engagement. While these two discourses are contradictory as they emphasise different types of values, they are also complementary in a sense that they were often used interlinkedly and by the same persons. Thus, the naming of the latter discourse as moral does not denote that moral is irrational. There are conceptual and practical viewpoints that explain this decision of naming these discourses as rational and moral: within the moral discourse, moral and ethical reasoning is produced as reasonable and justifiable base for climate change engagement. When the rational and moral discourses are compared with each other, we can distinguish between different kinds of reasoning and arguments that are made meaningful both within their respective discourses and by complementing and questioning the other discourse. Thus, in descriptive sense it could be argued that this categorisation maintains the separation thesis, but this is not intended as a normative statement on my or the interviewees behalf stating there is, or should be, such a separation.

In the rational discourse, the 'objective and factual information' theme shows how in the workshops climate change was presented in a straightforward, factual manner by linking it to natural resources, energy and costs. This construction was used to link the abstract and complex phenomenon to tangible, i.e. measurable and verifiable, aspects of organising. The construction of climate change in technical-rational terms was complemented by economic and monetary facts. In the interviews, this meaning of 'true' information was further complemented by referring to strategy and strategic choices as facts that require no other justification and maintained by contrasting factual information with beliefs as biased information and by referring to experts as a source of reliable information. In

addition, the validity of information is constructed in the interview data as a combination of reliability and non-controversiality: experts are presented as source of objective information that must be further deemed as appropriate by a collectivity of business or another community. Thus, in this theme climate change information is attached to concrete, already existing knowledge and ways to know things. This theme illustrates how meanings are widely shared, how they are maintained in both types of data and how they are complemented in later use.

The second theme, 'climate change as threat and opportunity' constructs motivations for climate change engagement. In the workshops, change and the need for change are constructed by using two interrelated images, threat and opportunity. Climate change is presented as a threat for the continuity of business operations and change towards climate-friendly options as a business opportunity. The opposing meanings of threat and opportunity are used to establish motivation for change, and to provide direction for such change. Overall the change talk constructs new and developing as desirable in contrast to current practices that are presented as soon to be obsolete and no longer of business value. Together these images create a powerful construction. In the interview data, the constructions of threat and opportunity are recreated. Threat is less prominent and societal change and business change are constructed in less positive terms, as a challenge for business. The interview data also adds a new meaning to change by identifying possible positive consequences of climate change: changing societal and environmental conditions and values could create new business opportunities. Overall, this theme shows how meanings are reconstructed in the data illustrating the dynamic nature of discourse.

Next, the 'climate change activities as smart business' theme presents the kinds of climate change engagement actions and activities that are deemed as proper and desirable. In the workshop data, profitability and responsibility are constructed as incompatible: the economic construction of business emphasises profitability and views responsibility as vague, non-profitable activities. This primacy of financial goals is maintained in the interview data. However, this theme presents another construction as well. The win-win construction presents climate change activities as a source of business value, thus reconciling the tension created in the incompatibility of profitability and responsibility construction. Win-win construction is maintained and complemented in the interview data by presenting climate change activities as easy and straightforward: as a matter of common sense and based on previous activities. Thus, this theme shows how meanings are created by utilising and maintaining existing categorisations and contradictions: profitability

and responsibility are juxtaposed as incompatible and then the win-win construction is used to overcome this incompatibility.

The fourth and final theme of the rational discourse, 'businesses as change agents' positions business organisations and business professionals in a key position in relation to addressing climate change. In the workshops, business professionals are constructed as enablers of consumers to engage with climate change and as transformers of the society. These meanings are constructed by using positive images and emphasising a 'can do' attitude. In the workshops, the position of business professionals is created vis-à-vis customers: private consumption is presented as the main source of GHG emissions. In addition, business professionals are seen as having accurate information while customers are viewed lacking with information and/or ways to engage with climate change. The interview data maintains and recreates these constructions while also challenging the construction of business as change agents. Overall, in this theme meanings are created by opposing business professionals and customers. This is a powerful construction for it also challenges the traditional view in which business are seen as the culprits and customers demanding business to act in responsible ways.

The first theme of the moral discourse, 'climate change engagement as the 'right thing to do'' presents climate change engagement as necessary and important in business organisations. This theme complements and questions the rational discourse that constructs climate change engagement as obligatory and as a win-win opportunity for strategic and business reasons.

The second theme, 'climate change engagement and personal values', emphasises personal and professional values related to climate change. Climate change engagement is made meaningful by linking it to personal gratification and satisfaction and by presenting it as a moral obligation of a citizen. In addition, climate change engagement is constructed as a matter of both knowledge and faith by using images of converting and awakening. Like the first theme, also this theme complements and questions the rational discourse.

The third theme, 'critique of the market economy' questions the rational discourse focusing on efficiency and profitability challenging the primacy of financial goals as the only motivation. Global markets are constructed as insecure and the win-win logic and the aim to simultaneously achieve economic and social/environmental goals are questioned. In addition, nostalgia is used to present discontent with the current system.

Czarniawska and Joerges (1995) have discussed how ideas 'travel'. They have presented that abstract ideas as such do not 'travel'; rather, they need to be

'materialised' and become objects, such as text, drawings, or models. These objects can then be used to 'carry' these ideas: however, ideas will only travel when someone demonstrates an interest in them (Czarniawska, 2008). Thus, in the Peloton project and the participating organisations this means that the ideas of climate change have first been 'materialised' in the workshops by the workshop organisers, and then re-materialised in the organisations by the participants. The process of materialising and re-materialising can be coined by using the terms of 'disembedding' and '(re-)embedding' (Czarniawska, 2008; Giddens, 1991): first, an idea needs to be disembedded in order for it to travel and second, it needs to be re-embedded where it lands.

Overall, the process of materialisation was initiated by the workshop organisers, as they were the ones presenting the ideas – the workshop participants then joined in this process of constructing climate change as material and thus concrete issue. Then, following the process of disembedding and embedding, the participants chose the materialised ideas they deemed to be of interest and took them to their organisations. In the process of moving the idea at times parts of it were left out – depending on the focus of the participant and the focal organisation. At times even the core of the idea was changed from the original idea constructed in the workshop. Finally, the idea was re-embedded by the participant in the focal organisation and possibly re-materialised in the form of attaching the idea to new objects.

This process of translating the abstract idea of climate change into concrete objects and action is a base for translating the complex phenomenon of climate change into a manageable issue. In this process, the idea was attached to objects that were already familiar and acceptable to the participants. This is how these ideas were sent to travel – the idea was made interesting and intriguing by the sender so that the receiver would become interested in it.

To summarise, the empirical analysis has so far presented the two discourses used to give meaning to climate change engagement in business context. The analysis has explicated the themes used to construct these discourses and has shown how meanings have been created, maintained and recreated in these themes. The construction using two discourses indicates that the issue of climate change engagement in business organisations is complex, multidimensional and also challenging for business professionals. In addition, it indicates that the issue is infused with tensions. Discourse analysis has been used to identify the discourses and their functions. Next, the functions of these discourses are analysed in order to discuss how language is used to manage climate change engagement.

5 FUNCTIONS OF THE RATIONAL AND MORAL DISCOURSES

5.1 Prologue to the functions of the rational and moral discourses

The previous empirical chapter presented and discussed the two discourses used to discuss climate change engagement in business organisations. The analysis discussed the themes constructing, and constructed in, these discourses and explicated how meanings were created, maintained and recreated in the workshop and the interview data. In addition to identifying discourses, i.e. what is said, discourse analysis is interested in the functions of the discourses, i.e. how they are used to perform certain social actions and to create certain social realities (Potter & Wetherell, 1987). This empirical chapter presents the functions of the rational and moral discourses.

In general, the function of the rational discourse is to produce climate change engagement as a manageable phenomenon in business organisation context, i.e. to discursively manage climate change engagement. Previous research has identified that companies construct sustainable development and climate change as something entirely manageable and consistent with current system (Besio & Pronzini, 2014; Laine, 2005; Mäkelä & Laine, 2011; Spence, 2007; Tregidga & Milne, 2006). This chapter contributes to this discussion by explicating the aspects that are managed and how this is done.

In particular, the functions of the rational discourse are to mitigate uncertainty, to produce action and to manage positions. The function of the moral discourse is to produce value-based meaning and purpose for climate change engagement in business and for the work of business professionals. An additional function of the moral discourse is to provide an opposing perspective to the rational discourse.

5.2 Mitigating uncertainty

In the rational discourse, the 'Objective and factual information' theme is used to define the kind of information that is appropriate in regard to businesses' climate

change engagement. By using the rational discourse and this theme in particular, the uncertainty related to climate change is mitigated - thus a function of the rational discourse is to mitigate uncertainty related to climate change engagement in business organisations.

Uncertainty permeates climate change science and engagement: How will climate change and its physical and social consequences affect individuals, institutions and societies? When will these changes occur, and in what scale? Is there still time for climate change mitigation? Are the actions taken now really making a difference?

The results of the analysis show how rational, factual information is constructed as an appropriate base for climate change engagement. When climate change and climate change engagement are discussed in tangible, measurable and quantifiable terms, they become less uncertain – the line of evidence is clear and transparent. Therefore, uncertainty related to climate change engagement is mitigated and managed by focusing on impacts and activities that can be measured or of which objective, factual information can be gained.

In public discussions, business climate change engagement is typically viewed as a part of corporate responsibility and not so much as a strategic issue. As a consequence, it is seen as the responsibility of a business organisation to address major societal issues such as climate change. Especially business organisations in certain industries such as oil and transportation are seen as the culprits of increasing emissions and held responsible for mitigating emissions. Yet, responsibility activities implemented by business organisations are easily downplayed as greenwashing, or criticised for not having any 'true' impact. Therefore, it requires careful consideration when implementing these activities, in order not to be criticised, because such criticism could damage the company image quite severely.

Transparency is a key concern of companies when engaging with 'responsibility' activities. Thus, using accurate, factual information gives the company the assurance that what they do has a solid basis. Hence, they have the required information to argue for their activities and to back up what they are doing. However, when companies present their 'responsibility' or climate change activities as strategic choices, the frame of reference used to evaluate these activities changes. In common use, 'strategic' implies that there are financial aims included in the activity, thus adding an element of accuracy and objectivity to these activities. Yet 'responsibility' is more often (still) associated with philanthropy and other activities seen to lie outside of the traditional business sphere. By using the rational

discourse, business professionals position their climate change activities in the strategic side thus implying that they are based on careful consideration of business risks and opportunities and not on subjective desires and emotions.

The analysis shows how business professionals construct themselves as credible actors vis-à-vis irrational environmentalists and other non-business actors. Factual climate change information is contrasted with beliefs and myths that are constructed as biased information. This construction is utilised to create a view of the kind of information that is true and acceptable and to marginalise wrong, biased information. By constructing themselves as the source of true information, business actors can protect themselves against critique concerning the viability of their actions. In addition, the analysis shows how the validity of information is constructed as a combination of reliability and non-controversiality: experts are a source of objective, valid information which is further justified by the collectivity of business or another community linked to the issue. Thus, uncertainty is also mitigated by preventing critique: by using information that is deemed valid by the community, the company can act according to commonly accepted principles. This becomes especially emphasised in relation to climate change, as information about climate change is still debated and there is no global or national consensus concerning the appropriate actions.

Uncertainty is also linked to business professionals' motivation to engage with climate change: uncertain and conflicting information does not provide a solid base for business action. By mitigating uncertainty and contradictions, business professionals can promote and enable climate change engagement for their part in their organisations. A further notion to uncertainty has been presented by Eden (1999) arguing that uncertainty can also be used to excuse inaction by claiming for instance that further research is required to eliminate uncertainty. Further, Eden (1999) noted that uncertainty is a double-edged weapon. Uncertainty can be managed by business and can be used to criticise the critics by claiming that their assumptions are not based on true information. Uncertainty can also work against business, when critics claim that the information used by business is, in fact, controversial.

5.3 Producing action

Another notable function of the rational discourse is to produce action regarding climate change engagement. This function is constructed in both the 'Climate

change as threat and opportunity' and 'Climate change activities as smart business' themes. The first theme focuses on motivations for climate change engagement and the latter on climate change engagement activities.

A starting point of the rational discourse is that natural resources are diminishing because of climate change and that the resulting potential increases in energy price along with other impacts create a threat to the continuity of business-as-usual. However, the discourse states that this threat is avoided by smart business professionals who also have the opportunity to profit from climate change engagement while doing their part for climate change mitigation. Thus, the rational discourse essentially constructs climate change engagement as a positive win-win opportunity that has the potential to achieve the 'double goal' of enhancing profitability and mitigating climate change. In the traditional business vocabulary opportunities are perceived as positive, desirable and manageable. In contrast, threat is something that cannot be managed. Threat is typically seen as something that should be prepared for or adapted to.

The aim of the Peloton project was to promote climate change engagement by empowering professionals and peer groups to fight against climate change. The objective was to help companies create products, services and social innovations that systematically lower the energy needs of the Finnish lifestyle. As a consequence, climate change engagement and activities were emphasised in the discourses.

Mitigating uncertainty by using the rational discourse fosters climate change action for its part by constructing climate change as a measurable and thus controllable phenomenon. The rational discourse constructs climate change in terms of energy efficiency and as something that companies can achieve and improve. In this discourse, it is constructed as tempting for companies to engage with climate change. Therefore, the focus on energy efficiency promotes action.

The focus on energy efficiency, however, could have unintended consequences for climate change. When the main focus is on energy efficiency and on improving that, it might divert attention away from other necessary and required actions and activities. Energy efficiency is alluring for it is readily controllable and improvements can be quite remarkable. At the same time, such action might not take into account radical, drastic changes. Thus, there is a risk that climate change engagement becomes merely a facile addition to environmental management. This condition has been noted in previous studies as well. Laine (2005) has noted that in Finland sustainable development is reduced to environmental management and it has been suggested by Bebbington (2001) that sustainable development should not

be used as a synonym for 'good environmental management'. When these reductions are made, some of the original meaning is inevitably lost. And in the case of climate change radical and drastic changes might be what are actually needed.

On the other hand, cutting down emissions is the main way to mitigate climate change and thus that is what is required of the society at the moment. Hence, it should be acknowledged that a focus on energy efficiency has desired consequences for both companies and the society at large while also acknowledging that there might be certain consequences if climate change engagement is only thought in these terms.

5.4 Managing positions

In addition to managing uncertainty and producing action, the rational discourse and in particular the 'Business as change agents' theme is utilised to manage positions. Positions are managed firstly by presenting business organisations as capable of addressing climate change; secondly by presenting business professionals in a key role vis-à-vis consumers in addressing climate change and in enabling the action of others; and finally by suggesting that in the end it is up to the consumers to change their behaviour and mitigate climate change.

In the rational discourse, the position of the business organisation and the business professional is constructed vis-à-vis consumers and the society. The rational discourse positions business professionals as rational, objective actors vis-à-vis consumers. Business organisations and professionals are presented as the educators of consumers and as the enablers of societal change and development.

The absence of commonly accepted standards or guidelines puts business organisations in an authorative position in climate change mitigation (Tregidga et al., 2013). For one, as there is no guidelines to follow, business organisations can define their own standards. Secondly, business professionals such as CEOs commonly have a high status in Finland. Business professionals are typically viewed as rational, distinguished persons, which places them in an authorative position to state what others should do.

Thus, business organisations are presented in a focal position in relation to climate change mitigation. For one, business organisations can mitigate climate change by improving the energy efficiency of their operations, products and services. In the rational discourse, this is constructed as something that is easy for a

smart business professional to achieve. For second, business professionals are constructed in a position to enlighten the consumers to choose low-carbon options. The discourse posits that only when the business professionals enable the society at large to change by providing them with climate-friendly, energy efficient products and services, are they able to do so. This discourse contains an interesting twist essentially 'outsourcing' the responsibility to mitigate climate change to consumers: consumers are presented as the ones that should change their attitudes and behaviour. This is further underlined by presenting the private sector as the main source of GHG emissions. This construction puts business professionals in a position superior to consumers as benefactors and those who englighten the consumers.

The crucial position of business professionals is created by constructing the participants of the Peloton project as part of a community that is taking action to mitigate climate change. The discourse suggests that the participants have a common aim to enhance businesses' profitability while protecting the climate. Especially in the workshops by emphasising a "we-rhetoric" (Onkila, 2009, p. 138) is used to create an image of a coherent group of people with congruent interests.

5.5 Producing moral meaning and challenging the rational discourse

The moral discourse complements and questions the rational discourse. While the rational discourse emphasises technical, financial, and strategic reasons, the moral discourse constructs moral and ethical reasons for climate change engagement. Consequently, the functions of the moral discourse are to produce moral meaning for climate change engagement in business and for the business professionals' work, as well as to provide an opposing perspective to the rational discourse. These functions are closely intertwined and thus presented jointly.

The moral discourse provides a way to consider the moral and ethical aspects of climate change engagement, thus complementing the rather one-sided approach of the rational discourse. The rational discourse produces a coherent yet simplified view of climate change engagement by constructing it in a factual manner. However, climate change engagement is a more complex phenomenon: climate change is a wicked, topical issue facing the society: it makes people feel a variety of emotions and raises debates (Hulme, 2009). Some deny climate change altogether while others strive to motivate individuals and organisations for climate change mitigation and call for more strict regulation. Thus, climate change engagement is

an issue infused with emotions, ethical, and moral concerns. The challenges for managers include first of all identifying and acknowledging the moral side of climate change engagement, and secondly, managing one's own and others emotions and moral concerns at work settings (Wright & Nyberg, 2012).

The moral discourse shows how business professionals construct climate change as an issue that they have an obligation to engage with and as something that they want to engage with based on their personal values. This construction is interesting as it produces emotions and other human values as an innate part of business activities, thus presenting a contrary view to the rational discourse. The moral discourse maintains that employees and managers are human beings who have personal values and emotions in both work and non-work settings. The moral discourse also explicitly acknowledges that these values and emotions affect decision-making and presents them as reasonable and justifiable base for climate change engagement.

Business values, i.e. what is valued in business organisations, are also constructed with different emphasis. The moral discourse constructs climate change engagement and business aims as intertwined while the rational discourse separates them and presents climate change engagement and responsibility activities as subordinate to other business aims such as profitability. In the rational discourse, continuity of business operations and profit making are constructed as the goal of business (see also Onkila, 2009). Thus, the moral discourse attaches value-based meanings to business activity, viewing business organisations as acting for the benefit of the society at large. In this discourse, business organisations are depicted in a positive light as 'being responsible' and 'giving back'.

Some remarks are in order here. While it seems easy and tempting to separate 'business', or strategic, and moral reasons for action, one should not fall for hasty interpretations. For one, often an action or an activity can be based on both moral and strategic aims (Freeman, Wicks, & Parmar, 2004; Kujala, 2001). The findings and the categorisation to business or strategic and moral reasons presented in this study derive from the observations made from the empirical data. Thus the findings present how meanings were constructed in these particular settings at a particular time, and, in addition, the findings are based on my interpretation of the data, both which are key tenets of the discourse analytic approach. However, a different research approach or another researcher could result in different findings. In order for the reader to evaluate my findings, I have described the research process in as much detail as possible. The research is further reflected and evaluated in the concluding chapter of this thesis.

While this section has so far mostly focused on the differences between the rational and moral discourse and discussed how they are complementary and competing, they are also overlapping. Both discourses can be used by one person and even within one sentence or statement. Thus, while the discourses have been presented as separate constructions for the purposes of this study, in practice they are not at opposite ends of a continuum. Rather, talking about climate change engagement can include elements of both these discourses. This is particularly evident in the 'businesses as change agents' theme. While the change agents theme is presented essentially as part of the rational discourse, the constructions of that theme approach the ideas presented in the moral discourse. Business as change agents within the rational discourse emphasises that business organisations have knowledge and other required resources to engage with climate change and to enable others to engagement with it. In the rational discourse, the responsibility to engage with climate change is constructed by presenting it as a moral obligation and as connected to an individual's values. The change agents theme illustrates well how these constructions can be present simultaneously. For example, the quotations W2N page 104 and I8 on page 105 demonstrate this point. Thus, the connections between these discourses are manifold. As a consequence, it becomes interesting to consider how these two discourses and the meanings constructed in them are being utilised by individuals to bring meanings, and multiple meanings, to climate change engagement.

This study subscribes to the view that language use has consequences (Phillips & Hardy, 2002; Potter & Wetherell, 1987) and thus acknowledges that discourses can be used strategically in order to create certain realities (Potter & Wetherell, 1987). For instance, Onkila (2009) has suggested that environmental values are discussed in order to increase the credibility of the speaker as an environmentally responsible person. Such a speaker could be seen as a more credible person than one presenting merely profit-oriented business values, at least by certain audiences. However, in a discourse analytic study it is nearly impossible to estimate the intentions of the speaker (Springett, 2003; Tregidga et al., 2014). In addition, it should be remembered that a speaker can use different discourses even within one sentence. Therefore this thesis refrains from attempting to do so. Rather, the analysis strives to bring forward different discourses, meaning systems, and their functions as constructed in language use.

5.6 Summary of the empirical findings

The empirical part of this study has a twofold aim: first, to identify and analyse the climate change engagement discourses business that professionals construct and second, to examine the functions of the climate change engagement discourses in order to interpret how these discourses are used to discursively manage climate change engagement in business organisations.

The analysis presents two discourses that construct and are constructed in the climate change engagement discourses: the rational and moral discourses. These discourses have been explicated by identifying different themes constituting these discourses and by identifying how meaning has been created, maintained and recreated in the discourses. The rational discourse consists of four themes. First, the 'objective and factual information' theme defines the kind of information that is deemed appropriate in regard to business climate change engagement. In this theme climate change information was attached to concrete already existing knowledge and ways of knowing things and the theme illustrates how these meanings were maintained in both the workshops and interviews and how they are complemented in later use. Second, the theme 'climate change as threat and opportunity' constructs motivations for climate change engagement. This theme shows how meanings of threat, opportunity and change are constructed and reconstructed illustrating the dynamic nature of discourse. Third, the 'climate change activities as smart business' theme presents the kinds of actions and activities that are deemed as proper and desirable. The theme shows how meanings are created by utilising and maintaining existing categorisations and contradictions: profitability and responsibility are juxtaposed as incompatible and then the win-win construction is used to overcome this incompatibility. The fourth theme of the rational discourse, 'businesses as change agents', positions business organisations in a key position in relation to addressing climate change and shows how the constructions of businesses and customers are maintained, recreated and even challenged in the discourse.

The analysis shows how the rational discourse dominates the climate change engagement discourses. In this discourse, climate change engagement is discussed in environmental management and traditional business terms and this construction is not problematised. Throughout the rational discourse companies and business professionals are constructed as credible subjects: based on technical and economic

rational, factual information they engage with climate change and enable customers and the society to become energy efficient and transfer to a low-carbon society. The rational discourse constructs the abstract phenomenon of climate change as something concrete and tangible that can be controlled in business context by business actors.

The moral discourse complements and questions the rational discourse by suggesting that other than technical, financial, and strategic reasons for climate change engagement exist. The moral discourse reflects individual and professional values and moral obligations vis-à-vis business activities and the society at large. In addition, the moral discourse criticises the current market system. The moral discourse consists of three themes. First, the 'climate change engagement as the 'right thing to do'' presents climate change engagement as necessary and important in business organisations and thus complements and questions the rational discourse. Second, also the 'climate change engagement and personal values' theme complements and questions the rational discourse by emphasising personal and professional values related to climate change. In this theme, climate change engagement is made meaningful by linking it to personal gratification and satisfaction and by presenting it as a moral obligation of a citizen. The third theme, 'critique of the market economy' questions the rational discourse focusing on efficiency and profitability challenging the primacy of financial goals as the only motivation and presents discontent with the current system.

In general, the function of the rational discourse is to produce climate change engagement as a manageable issue in business organisation context, i.e. to discursively manage climate change engagement. In particular, the functions of the rational discourse are to mitigate uncertainty, to produce action and to manage one's own position. First, the rational discourse mitigates uncertainties permeating climate change science and engagement. The rational discourse produces a solid base for climate change engagement by emphasising objective and non-controversial information and by presenting climate change engagement as rational activity in business organisations. The rational discourse also functions to prevent critique by focusing on objective information that is deemed appropriate in business context. Second, a function of the rational discourse is to produce action regarding climate change engagement. Action is produced by presenting that climate change constitutes a physical threat to businesses and that smart business professionals engaging with profitable win-win activities can avoid this threat. However, while the rational discourse produces action by focusing on energy efficiency improvements, there is a risk that this focus on mostly incremental

changes ignores the radical and systemic changes that might be required in order to account for the complex nature of climate change. The third function of the rational discourse is to manage positions of businesses and business professionals vis-à-vis consumers. Positions are managed firstly, by presenting business organisations as capable of addressing climate change; secondly, by presenting business professionals in a key role vis-à-vis consumers in addressing climate change and in enabling the action of others; and finally, by suggesting that in the end it is up to the consumers to change their behaviour and mitigate climate change.

The function of the moral discourse is to produce value-based meaning and purpose for business climate change engagement and for the work of business professionals. In addition, the function of the moral discourse is to provide an opposing perspective to the rational discourse. As a counterpart of the rational discourse, the moral discourse provides a way to consider moral and ethical aspects of climate change engagement in organisations, thus complementing the one-sided view of the rational discourse.

To summarise, the analysis reveals the sophisticated ways in which the business professionals construct climate change engagement and how they create, maintain, and recreate meaning and reconcile the tensions of climate change engagement in their language use. Utilising two discourses to discuss climate change indicates that the complex issue is multidimensional and somewhat challenging for business professionals. In addition, it shows that the climate change engagement discourses contain a discursive struggle between the two ways used to talk about climate change in business organisations.

6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Climate change as a manageable phenomenon

6.1.1 Discursively managing climate change engagement

This study has shown that even though climate change is a complex phenomenon with intertwined physical and social dimensions and implications, climate change engagement is discursively constructed as manageable by constructing and utilising a rational discourse of climate change engagement. Furthermore, in order to account for the complex nature of climate change and climate change engagement, a moral discourse is constructed to complement and to question the rational discourse. Therefore, while the rational construction using the traditional business language of profitability, win-win, and efficiency dominates, climate change engages managers working with the issue on personal and moral levels as well.

Furthermore, by explicating the functions of the rational and moral discourses, the study shows how climate change engagement in business is discursively managed. The rational discourse mitigates uncertainty related to climate change and climate change engagement in business by presenting the related activities as appropriate and effective, i.e. as rational business activities. In addition, uncertainty is mitigated to prevent possible criticisms of these activities. The rational discourse produces action regarding climate change engagement by presenting climate change as a threat that can be avoided by smart business professionals engaging with profitable climate change activities. Further, this study shows that the discursive management of climate change in rational terms produces a simplified view of climate change engagement. While this view produces action, it does not account for the full complexity of climate change. The findings of this study suggest that by constructing climate change engagement action primarily in terms of improving energy efficiencies and incremental changes it might divert attention away from other necessary and required actions and activities.

The rational discourse also manages the positions of business organisations, business professionals, and consumers. Business organisations and business

professionals are presented as possessing accurate information to mitigate climate change and to enable consumers and society at large to take action on climate change. The findings show that business professionals are constructed in a position superior to consumers, as well as how this presents consumers as those who are, in the end, responsible for climate change mitigation. The findings presented in this study reflect the overall tendency of organisations and society to utilise management terminology to discuss sustainability issues.

The moral discourse functions as a counterpart to the rational discourse. The functions of the moral discourse are to produce moral meaning for climate change engagement in business and for the business professionals' work, as well as to provide an opposing perspective to the rational discourse. Therefore, the moral discourse acknowledges some of the aspects of climate change engagement in business that the rational discourse does not take into consideration. Thus, together these discourses are able to provide a more comprehensive view of climate change engagement than either of these discourses would be able to by itself.

6.1.2 Conditions for climate change engagement

The limits of the rational discourse

The discourses determine and restrict how climate change engagement is perceived creating conditions for climate change engagement. These conditions identify the consequences of the discourses and their functions, i.e. the discursively constructed 'limits' for climate change engagement in business organisations.

The findings show that the traditional business language and the rational discourse dominate the climate change engagement discourses. The rational discourse maintains traditional business values and vocabulary, focusing on such issues as efficiency, profitability and objectivity. The question remains, to what extent this vocabulary submits to the notions required by climate change engagement.

According to the findings of this study, the rational discourse dominates especially in social situations where different actors meet to discuss a new issue with the intention of 'making business out of it'. The traditional business language seems to be an appropriate choice in order to present oneself as a credible actor, with objective, acceptable information. This is not surprising and has been

previously noted by Springett (2003) and Onkila (2009), among others. The economised, business language of costs and effectiveness dominates society, providing a familiar lexicon to discuss climate change engagement and to motivate others to engage with it, as well.

The paradox of 'what is possible within the rational discourse' is apparent in the win-win construction. The win-win construction focuses on the 'double goal' of climate change engagement, suggesting that profitability and climate change mitigation can be achieved simultaneously. Thus, the tension between profitability and responsibility is reconciled in the win-win construction. However, the win-win construction maintains the primacy of profitability and other traditional business aims: climate change engagement is possible and appropriate in-so-far as it does not contradict these aims. This leads to the question of whether and when climate change mitigation requires more than mere energy efficiency, as proposed by the win-win view.

In addition, the focus on environmental aspects and activities maintains the traditional categorisation and separation of business, nature and society. It is quite natural to use this language to discuss climate change, because environmental issues have already been paid attention to for decades in Finland. Czarniawska (2008, p. 33) has discussed how the production of meaning is always retroactive: "making sense of future events is a projection of past interpretative templates onto the future, with a hope that they will hold". In addition, the public discussions in Finland focus more on the environmental aspects and impacts of climate change– as those have so far been evident in Finland. Previous research has presented that companies adjust their language based on what is required by society at any given time (Tregidga, 2007); thus, as national and international institutions currently focus on energy efficiency and mitigation (IEA, 2012; IPCC, 2007), business organisations also adapt this language. In turn, as powerful actors in society, business organisations have the resources and credibilities to affect societal discussions. Yet, the current focus on energy efficiency seems to be in the interests of both business organisations and governments.

The challenge is to create and to enable the development of new ideas and concepts by using a traditional vocabulary. Specifically, the challenge is using this language and the traditional categorisations to discuss climate change engagement, for climate change inseparably intertwines business, the natural environment, and society. Hence, engaging with climate change might require new conceptions and the breaking away from existing categories.

One such conception is related to change. Climate change predictions suggest that radical changes in our conceptions of business and the workings of society are required in order to mitigate climate change and, more importantly, to transfer to a low-carbon society (Wright et al., 2013). This is a major challenge for the rational discourse maintaining that climate change can be mitigated by improving energy efficiency, i.e. by primarily focusing on incremental changes to business practices and conceptions. It is potentially concerning that doing one's best in terms of energy efficiency creates an image of making a change and a contribution, while it may distract attention from required systemic changes.

The rational discourse places radical change as 'outside' of business, presenting it as something based on hard-core environmentalism and thus as disconnected to business aims. Radical change, or not surviving, is not a part of traditional 'success' business language, because radical change would imply that there is something that the business cannot control. Managing, on the other hand, is a part of traditional business language and thus a key concern of the rational discourse. Creating and maintaining a distinction between radical changes and business operations are potentially concerning: how can we achieve what is required if it is not talked about or even presented as 'impossible'?

A language of climate change engagement should enable the consideration and understanding of the complexities of climate change and the required radical and systemic changes. This would allow business organisations and other actors in society to move towards a low-carbon society. As long as companies and society are not prepared to make radical and systemic changes and do not acknowledge them, they remain vulnerable and ill-equipped to face the radical, abrupt changes that are predicted to come as a result of climatic changes. In order to manage climate change, these things should be taken into consideration and prepared for: one condition for preparation is acknowledging them in language use and looking for new vocabularies that allow the exploration and understanding of the upcoming changes.

(Over)simplifying climate change engagement

While the rational discourse constructs a manageable view of climate change and thus promotes climate change action, this view potentially oversimplifies climate change engagement. The economic–technical aspect put forward by the rational discourse is only one dimension of climate change: in addition, there are the

ethical, value, and philosophical dimensions that do not subject themselves to economic terms (Hulme, 2009).

The rational construction of climate change and climate change engagement in monetary and scientific terms silences or ignores the non-scientific dimensions of climate change. Latour (2004) has argued that scientific and monetary facts dominate discussions that should be framed in ethical terms, resulting in non-scientific facts being brushed aside as 'mere' values. This construction dominates the rational constitution of climate change engagement, as discussed in the 'objective and factual information' theme of the rational discourse where acceptable and 'true' information is constructed in contrast to beliefs and myths as distorted information. Acceptable information is defined as information that is based on facts and can be measured or otherwise verified.

In the rational discourse, climate change engagement and environmental issues are constructed as objective. This construction suggests that there is a truth that can be obtained by rigorous processes. Onkila (2009) identified that environmental management has been perceived as a subjective and controversial issue and that a common basis for acceptability is acknowledged as something that might not be defined. This did not show in the discourses; rather, energy efficiency is perceived as something through which a common basis for acceptability can be defined. This is potentially alarming, for it may lead to 'tunnel vision': the search for the one best way may result in overlooking alternative possibilities that could be utilised alongside other approaches. On the other hand, opening the issue for different interpretations might open a Pandora's Box of uncertainty and questions that might never be answered.

Latour (2004) has noted that the scientific construction of information could be completed with intuitive information provided by non-experts especially before scientific information is released. This, however, is acknowledged in the rational discourse, where experience-based information is constructed as acceptable and reliable information.

Thus, in order to account for the complex and multi-dimensional nature of climate change and for its impacts on individuals, business organisations, and societies should engage in discussions that consider multiple aspects of climate change engagement. The findings of this study present one way of doing so.

The limits of the moral discourse

While the moral discourse complements the rational discourse and brings forth some aspects that the rational discourse does not acknowledge, certain limitations concerning the moral discourse can also be identified.

The moral discourse recognises and presents a critique to the market economy, yet this theme was mostly a marginal one in the climate change engagement discourse. The theme 'critique to the market economy' presents that traditional economic values such as profit maximisations are unsustainable goals from society's point of view. In addition, discontent with the current system was brought up. However, the dilemma of ever increasing consumption versus sustainability aims is largely missing in this theme and the moral discourse. The omission of this issue has been identified as a general tendency in organisational environmental discourse (Kallio, 2004) and this legacy seems to be still maintained. The overall ability of business to produce solutions to is not forcibly questioned, nor is the more controversial view that business can provide solutions by increasing business activity. It is rather interesting that the moral discourse does not question the view presenting businesses as change agents. The rational 'businesses as change agents' theme underlines that business organisations have the ability to effectively engage with climate change. Thus, while the moral discourse questions some aspects of the rational discourse, it seems not to provide an alternative to the more fundamental questions and issues that become constructed in the rational discourse.

Providing an alternative is by no means an easy task. The challenge for the moral, or any other discourse, is how to question the dominant paradigm without altogether rejecting it and thus, potentially, debarring itself from the discussions. In other words, should the moral discourse reject the profit oriented business aims, it might not have a standing in the business world any more. One possibility to overcome this dilemma would be the creation new language, vocabulary and discourse that surpasses the separation of business and ethics, i.e. the separation fallacy (Freeman, 1994; Harris & Freeman, 2008). Pragmatism (Wicks & Freeman, 1998; Freeman et al., 2010, pp. 70–79) has been presented to provide a way to consider the moral dimensions of organising. Innate to pragmatism is a desire to serve human purposes and to search for novel and innovative approaches and alternative and more liberating vocabularies (Wicks & Freeman, 1998). Thus, the pragmatist alternative would be useful when the aim is to understand and

conceptualise organisations and organising as having a moral dimension and to create a language that would allow such considerations. In addition, the researchers engaging with such projects are required to stay sensitive to identifying taken-for-granted conceptions and reflect carefully on their assumptions and the research process.

Consequences for sustainability and climate change

The rational discourse sets boundaries for climate change engagement in financial terms. However, climate change and sustainability discussions are concerned with the carrying capacity of the Earth, i.e. the limits of the environment. The rational discourse maintains that the main prerequisites for climate change engagement are economic focus and safeguarding profitability and those cannot be compromised. Consequently, this implies that other aspects can be compromised when juxtaposed with business aims. This is potentially concerning from the sustainability and climate protection points of view.

Springett (2003) has noted that the discourse of sustainable development is potentially contradictory and that the actors engaging with the issue are struggling to make sense of the contradictions. She has discussed that they are likely "unable to break free from the primacy of business goals" (Springett, 2003, p. 82). Therefore, the intention of business professionals might not have been to choose 'weak' sustainability over 'strong' sustainability. As Springett has further noted, "The lack of clarity about the core themes of the concept has resulted in a reliance on 'management' concepts and language… unwittingly or not" (2003, p. 82).

Clearly, the limits of the natural environment are not fully accounted for in the rational discourse. They are discussed as a motivation for engaging with climate change and thus acknowledged in the discourse as a starting point, i.e. 'why this is important'. However, when discussing climate change engagement activities, the limits of the natural environment, or the needs of the society, are not reflected upon, rather the activities are evaluated based on how attractive they are as business opportunities.

Thus, the discourse posits that business activity and on a more general level, economic growth are not only compatible with but required for climate change mitigation. It is interesting that the link between progress, growth and climate change is presented in a positive light. Likewise, it is interesting that business activity is not generally questioned, despite the acknowledgement that business organisations have been a contributing part of climate change. This is not

surprising in a techno-centric country such as Finland. However, in the moral discourse, this construction was identified as potentially concerning. My concern is that this suppresses the discussion of the negative impacts of economic growth, or the incompatibility of economic growth and climate change mitigation.

6.1.3 What is not discussed?

In discourse analysis, attention is paid to how things become constructed and presented in language use and what consequences these constructions have. These issues have already been addressed in this study. In addition discourse analysis pays attention to things that were not discussed and the kinds of understandings and meanings that become constructed by not discussing something. A way of seeing something is also a way of not seeing something else.

The rational discourse dominating the climate change discourse quite effectively silences non-rational notions and perceptions. It proposes that climate change is an issue that can be managed by business organisations: thus making the complex and abstract phenomenon something tangible, straightforward and manageable. In turn, this discourse does not acknowledge issues that cannot be measured, quantified or otherwise effectively translated into (traditional) management terminology. However, as the analysis has explicated, the moral discourse was used to challenge and question (some of) the notions purported by the rational discourse. In the following, I probe deeper into issues that were not brought up in the rational or moral discourse, i.e. what was not discussed in the data: adaptation, scepticism, global impacts of climate change, as well as morals silence and emotions. Before embarking on discussing the silences and omissions in the data, I would like to note that as a researcher I cannot escape the culture and the discourses I am a part of and that at least partly are the subject of this study (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). Therefore, some things may have remained invisible to me

Adaptation and time

Climate change engagement was mostly discussed as climate change mitigation, i.e. with a focus on mitigating climate change emissions of production, products and customers. The other dimension of climate change engagement, adaptation to current or future changes in climate, was not explicitly discussed. Traces of

adaptation ideas can however be depicted in the 'increasing energy prices' construction used to argument that it is a matter of business continuity and existence to engage with climate change.

The natural environment and climate change are discussed by focusing on the negative impacts of business activities on them, and mitigating these impacts. However, this focus on mitigation and on energy efficiency entails a partial view of the natural environment. The talk focuses on vague energy efficiency improvements instead of defining the limits of the natural environment and using them as a base for designing actions. In addition, the possible positive impacts of business activities on the natural environment, for example nature conservation, were not included in the discourse.

Additionally, mitigation focus does not bring forward the questions related to time that are fundamental in coming to grips with climate change. Mitigation focuses on current activities and mostly on short-term impacts; thus the long-term predictions, uncertainties and perspectives do not need to be explicitly considered. This is potentially alarming because climate change and issues related to the natural environment are essentially connected to time (Harré et al., 1999): in the case of natural disasters, time is often of essence and urgent action is required. The environmental discourse typically presents time as limited, using an apocalyptic 'last moment to act' construction. This is used to construct the issue as salient based on urgency (cf. Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997). Climate change has been depicted as an issue requiring urgent action - to prevent further climate change and to adapt to the predicted climate changed futures. Therefore, it is not futile to engage with climate change mitigation in terms of energy efficiency improvements and emission mitigation but when such focus is done at the expense of a long-term view, it is alarming. Mitigation can cause a false sense of security that climate change is 'under control'. It is challenging to consider the long-term perspective and impacts as there is no way of knowing what the future holds.

Time is also intertwined with patience. Complex sustainability issues such as climate change require time in order to develop solutions and to see the outcomes. This raises the question of how patient companies and society are.

Global impacts of climate change

Overall, the climate change discourse emphasised climate change impacts and activities as local issues. The broader societal and global impacts and consequences of climate change were not discussed in the data. This is not surprising because the

global impacts of climate change have not affected Finland yet. Weather extremes such as excessive heat and floods are not (yet) a part of the immediate reality.

As discussed in relation to the mitigation focus, this constructs only a partial view of climate change and does not enable the whole issue to enter the business realm. On the other hand, by discussing climate change in a way that is controllable by business actros, the issue is made approachable and possible to engage with. The downside as discussed in regard to the focus on energy efficiency, is that the engagement activities are limited to what is possible now even though climate change requires us to strive for the impossible.

Culturally impossible scepticism

Typically public climate change discussions show some level of scepticism towards climate change or climate change engagement efforts. For instance, 'small Finland' is contrasted with 'the vast population of China' or the 'huge USA' to highlight that whatever is achieved in Finland is futile in the big picture of things. This or other typical sceptical arguments were not used in the data. Scepticism was not presented or talked about, rather optimism and confidence prevailed in the discussions.

One reason for this could be what has been labelled as the techno-optimism of Finland (Kerkkänen, 2010). Finnish people have witnessed the rise of Finland as a technically advanced country that has produced and continues to produce the latest technology, as in the case of Nokia. The technical innovations are seen to enable development and progress both nationally and internationally. Therefore, it is a culturally promoted ides to believe in technology and Finnish efforts. In addition, the business culture focusing on development, innovation and efficiency cannot be based on scepticism.

Moral silence and emotions

The moral discourse was not used in the workshop data. However, this does not mean that moral or ethical issues could not have been discussed in the workshops. The data does not cover everything, as has been discussed in chapter three. Based on the data analysis, I present that the rational discourse dominates especially in the workshop data while the moral discourse was used in the interview data along with the rational discourse.

There are at least two possible interrelated explanations for this 'moral silence' in the workshop data. Firstly, Finland and the Finnish culture as a macro context may influence the ways in which climate change engagement is discussed. Secondly, the type of data used in this study promotes certain discursive constructions. The data consists of talk on climate change engagement in business context and focuses on business professionals. The content of the discussions and the used discourses could be quite different had the study focused on, for instance, radical environmentalists. In addition, the workshops as a micro context created and used language that was aimed at promoting climate change action in business organisations. The constructions created in the workshops relied on traditional business language emphasising efficiency and rationality. On the other hand, the interviews provided a more personal context in which the interviewees were encouraged to speak freely about their views, experiences and other issues related to climate change and climate change engagement.

In Finland, moral issues are often perceived quite personal and even as being outside of 'serious' business. Thus, it could be perceived as challenging to talk about them in the workshops, especially when the dominating rational discourse posits that beliefs are biased and inappropriate in business context. Perharps these moral and critical viewpoints were not brought up in the workshops that had a very uniform athmosphere.

In addition to partial 'moral silence', the emotions related to climate change and climate change engagement were scarcely discussed. The moral discourse presented some positive emotions, such as satisfaction, hope and success, and also negative emotions related to climate change: fear, mistrust and discontent. Climate change, however, is an issue that raises a vast array of emotions and yet they were surprisingly little discussed in the data. I suggest that the reasons for emotional 'silence' are similar than those discussed for 'moral silence'.

A similar construction to what has been presented in this study as the moral discourse has been discussed in previous research. However, studies have also noted the moral silence (see e.g. Bird & Waters, 1989; Waters & Bird, 1987). Spence (2007, p. 869) has stated "Any socio-environmental issue outside of a business case did not immediately enter the discourse of the interviewees". This study has, however, suggested that there are also moral reasons for climate change engagement, as has been acknowledged in previous research (Williams & Schaefer, 2013). Probably these kinds of remarks will become more frequent in the (near) future, if we take the words of Wright and Nyberg (2012, p. 1583) seriously: "As

the physical reality of climate change becomes more apparent, emotionology work within organisation and society will become more challenging".

To conclude, I would like to note that as a researcher I have no way of knowing the 'true' intentions of the workshop participants or the interviewees (Springett, 2003), thus I do not claim that these silenced issues were silenced on purpose. Rather, the aim has been to show the ways the used discourses enable and constrain talking about climate change (Joutsenvirta, 2006, 2009). To conclude this chapter, I would like to note that issues that are not brought under discussion cannot be managed.

6.2 Contributions

6.2.1 Theoretical contributions

The aim of this study was to analyse discursive constructions of climate change engagement in business organisations. This study contributes to earlier literature in two ways: (1) by showing how business professionals produce and use climate change engagement discourses and (2) by explicating the functions of these discourses, i.e. the discursive management of climate change in business organisations.

A key contribution of this study has resulted from the study of the production and use of climate change discourse in business organisations. While previous studies have addressed corporate sustainability, climate change engagement and constructions, they have mostly used corporate reports as empirical data and there has been little empirical examination focusing on how business professionals engaging with climate change themselves describe and construct their climate change engagement (Laine, 2005; Nyberg & Wright, 2012; Springett, 2003; Williams & Schaefer, 2013; Wright et al., 2012). However, business organisations and managers are perceived as vital actors for providing solutions to sustainability challenges and therefore, the ways they understand and talk about these issues are of importance. This study has addressed this by analysing climate change engagement discourses produced in the climate change engagement workshops organised for business professionals, as well as in interviews conducted with business professionals.

As a result of the analysis, the study presents the rational and moral discourses that are used to talk about climate change engagement. These discourses are explicated by identifying themes and meanings constituting, and constituted in, these discourses. The key findings show that while the rational discourse dominates the climate change engagement discourses, it is complemented and questioned by a moral discourse.

In addition to identifying and explicating these discourses, this study makes a contribution to previous research by analysing the functions of these discourses, i.e. how they are used to perform certain social actions and to create certain social realities (Potter & Wetherell, 1987). While previous research has noted that sustainability issues are presented as manageable phenomena in business organisations (Besio & Pronzini, 2014; Laine, 2005; Mäkelä & Laine, 2011; Spence, 2007; Tregidga & Milne, 2006), the discursive construction of sustainability or climate change has not been explicated as such. This study examines this by examining the functions of the climate change engagement discourses. This viewpoint is of utmost importance in order to further understand the consequences of such language use to business organisations, climate change and to society at large. In general, the function of the rational discourse is to produce climate change engagement as a manageable issue in business organisation context. In particular, the functions of the rational discourse are to mitigate uncertainty, to produce action and to manage one's own position. The functions of the moral discourse are to produce moral meaning for climate change engagement in business and for the business professionals' work, as well as to provide an opposing perspective to the rational discourse. Furthermore, this study discusses how the discursive management of climate change produces a simplified view of climate change engagement with potentially concerning consequences for climate change. This study explicates how the rational discourse is used to discursively manage climate change engagement and how the moral discourse is used to provide a counterpart to and to extend the view of the rational discourse.

Furthermore this study contributes to earlier literature by explicating the moral discourse and the moral dimension of climate change engagement. Previous research has noted the absence of any moral considerations in sustainability discussions (Spence, 2007), while there have also been some studies acknowledging the moral dimension (e.g. Williams & Schaefer, 2013). This study suggests that there is an inherently important moral and ethical side to climate change engagement in business organisations while it is mostly suppressed by the dominating rational discourse. Thus, the findings of this study contribute also to

the discussion concerning the separation thesis where ethics and business are separated (Freeman, 1984; Harris & Freeman, 2008). The findings of this study discuss how the rational and moral discourses are also overlapping and thus enable the connections between ethics and business. Hence, there is no one way of seeing climate change engagement. This maintains what has been acknowledged in previous studies (Laine, 2009; Livesey, 2002a, 2002b; Livesey & Kearins, 2002; Mäkelä & Laine, 2011; Onkila, 2009; Siltaoja, 2009; Spence, 2007): there is a discursive struggle over the meaning of sustainability, as well as climate change.

In addition, this study provides further understanding of two key themes that highlight the complexity and uniqueness of climate change engagement in business organisations. First, the acquisition and management of objective and factual information is essential for climate change engagement. This has been noted in earlier research, as Williams and Schaefer (2013) have concluded that lacking technical knowledge was important because contradictions in detail undermined the business managers' ability to make decisions. This study probes more into the theme of information regarding climate change, analysing what kind of information is perceived as appropriate and important and what the challenges are in relation to information. Furthermore, the findings show that objective and appropriate information are required in order to manage uncertainties related to climate change engagement in business. Second, this study discusses a construction of companies as change agents and the related function of managing positions. Previous studies have discussed how companies are presented as agents of social transformation (Tregidga et al., 2014; Onkila, 2009; Wright & Nyberg, 2012; Wright et al., 2012). This study sheds further light on this issue by presenting how business professionals themselves actively create and maintain this construction, and further how they manage their position vis-à-vis consumers.

The results of this study can be transferable to other cases and setting of the same kind with some conditions. Even though generalisability as such is not the aim of a discourse analytic study (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Phillips & Hardy, 2002), it is of interest to consider the transferability of the findings. Understanding the contexts where the discourses are constructed was outlined as of utmost importance for this study and therefore the macro and micro contexts have been considered when making observations from the data and interpreting them. The identified discourses can be considered as transferable to other Finnish organisations, as the analysis has identified that the discourses reflects the general tendencies of talking about climate change in Finland. More broadly, these discourses could be considered as transferable to other developed countries

especially with strong governmental initiatives and societal desire to engage with climate change. In addition, understanding these discourses and how they are used within the contexts of this study can be of help when making sense of and interpreting like discursive constructions around the world.

To summarise, the study contributes to earlier literature by revealing the sophisticated ways in which the business professionals construct climate change engagement and how they create, maintain, and recreate meaning and reconcile the tensions of climate change engagement in their language use. Utilising two discourses to discuss climate change indicates that the complex issue is multidimensional and somewhat challenging for business professionals. In addition, it shows that the climate change engagement discourses contain a discursive struggle between the two ways used to talk about climate change in business organisations.

6.2.2 Practical contributions

The results of this study have practical contributions for business managers, policy makers and other experts working with climate change. The main managerial implication is that while climate change is a complex phenomenon, it can be effectively engaged with in organisations. While the rational discourse provides a language to manage climate change engagement, the findings of this study show that this discourse potentially leads to a tunnel vision and thus should be complemented by a moral discourse. The findings indicate that values and emotions are an essential while less emphasised part of climate change engagement. Therefore discussions on moral, ethics, values and feelings should not be neglected or frowned upon; rather, they should be recognised to complement and to support the dominating rational discourse. Moral discourse has the potential to promote the enthusiasm, hope, and inspiration needed to engage with this pressing issue.

Appropriate information and information management appear as key aspects of climate change engagement. The findings indicate that reliable and accurate information about climate change, and the acquisition and management of such information promote climate change engagement. In addition, such information can be used to justify engagement activities in both internal and external communications. Diverse, yet explicit information is valued in business organisations and in addition, critical points of view and information could be of interest especially in organisations aiming for radical innovations.

This study discusses the climate change engagement discourses and explicates how climate change engagement is constructed in Finnish business. The findings presented here cannot be used, as such, as a model or guidebook for climate change engagement activities in an organisation. However, the findings provide useful insights into how climate change engagement is constructed in business organisations and can be therefore used to reflect climate change engagement and related activities in organisations already addressing the issue or planning to do so. In addition, as the analysis is focused on language and language use, the results can be used in designing both external and internal communication related to climate change.

The main implication for policy makers and experts working with climate change is that while traditional business language and values, such as profitability and efficiency, are typical ways to conceptualise climate change engagement, there are also moral reasons for such actions in business organisations. Based on the results, the personal values of business professionals as related to environmental and climate protection shape how they perceive and are willing to engage with climate change in work and non-work settings.

The results indicate that the rational discourse and the focus on energy efficiency produce action, as they do not contradict the traditional business values. However, such an approach might limit the range of available and appropriate responses to climate change and lead to 'mere' incremental changes. It should be noted that sometimes incremental changes could lead to more profound innovations later. Unfortunately, we might not have that luxury of incremental, slow, gradual change when it comes to climate change.

The results also indicate that the Peloton project was successful, first in introducing climate change to a number of business organisations and second, in inspiring the participants to actively engage with the issue in their organisations. In addition, the project was a useful reference for justifying the activities. Thus, such projects would help other organisations to engage with the complex issue, as well.

Onkila (2009, p. 178) has stated "Dressing environmental management in ethical language might turn against its purposes, since it is easily interpreted as questionable among many audiences, in which the traditional, profit-oriented perceptions of business dominate". Based on this, she suggested dressing environmental issues in a more business-like language. I would not unconditionally make the same suggestion for addressing climate change, even though I agree that an ethical language might be met with some resistance in some contexts. However, I would urge for the demystification of this common belief, as my results indicate

that ethical issues and values are an integral part of business professionals' perceptions related to climate change: thus, this should be accepted as a part of the public discourse. As discussed in this study, climate change is an issue explicitly connected to mixed feelings and values: thus, it should not be simplified as a merely rational process. Rational language may foster action, and I suggest that the rational view could be more explicitly completed with a value discourse. In addition, suppressing feelings, values and ethical aspects underestimates humanity.

6.3 Evaluating the research

Discourse analysis has a highly reflexive nature, meaning that the researcher should acknowledge her/his own position in conducting and reporting the research (Phillips & Hardy, 2002), i.e. aiming for the creation of new knowledge in the process. Therefore, I will now reflect on the chosen research approach and on the generation and analysis of the data, as well as evaluate the results of this study.

So, why a discourse analysis in the first place? Phillips and Hardy (2002, p. 11) have argued that while there are many practical reasons for not conducting discourse analysis, the advantages of such an analysis outweigh the problems. They emphasise that the discourse analytic aaproach has an important role in the future of social sciences in general and in the management and organisation theory in particular: discourse analysis provides new ways of studying old topics and effective approaches for exploring new topics.

As a topic, climate change is both 'old' and 'new': overall, climate change has been discussed and debated for over a century; yet, as discussed earlier in this study, there is still limited research on climate change in the business organisation context. However, there is ample research on CSR, environmental management and corporate sustainability, which could be all seen as to relating to climate change engagement in business organisations. This is where discourse analysis fights its corner: while traditional qualitative and quantitative approaches often reiterate and reify existing categories, discourse analysis allows for researchers to examine and to create new categories (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). On the contrary, discourse analysis can be used to navigate between old and new categories: a researcher can utilise existing knowledge to dive into the analysis without these categories restricting the interpretation process. It should be noted here that this is not a unique feature of discourse analysis; rather, it is something that discourse analysis allows, while the main instrument of the analysis is the interpretation by the researcher. In addition,

discourse analysis drills down to the ephemeral aspects of managing and organising, paying attention to the stories, symbols and discourses that construct organisational reality, as well as on the consequences of language use (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). This is eminently suitable for studying such an abstract phenomenon, as climate change that is infused with hopes, beliefs, fears, and other feelings, as well as with socially constructed and constantly recreated meanings.

The texts, i.e. the data, used for the discourse analysis are of utmost importance, for they are the subject of the research and a part of the social reality to be studied, not just a description of it (Jokinen et al., 1993; Potter & Wetherell, 1987, p. 173). In this study the primary data consists of workshop observations and interviews. I have actively participated in generating these data, which makes them 'researcher-provoked' according to Silverman (2001). This is a typical approach in constructionist studies and in discourse analysis: the interactions of texts are considered a benefit (Suoninen, 1999). In such studies, the data is not 'collected' by the researcher; rather, she/he is active in producing the data and therefore, affecting the contents of the data. In this spirit, I talk about 'data generation'. My own position in generating both the observation and interview data has been discussed in Chapters 3.3.3 and 3.3.4. I have especially paid attention to explicating the nature of the different types of data and the consequences of this data for the analysis.

I chose to generate data by observing the workshops; this way, I was able to record action as it takes place (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008, p. 87). Another key advantage of the observation data is that I was able to experience the workshops in the same way as the participants, thus becoming familiar with the context. Being familiar with the culture to be studied – and even a part of it – is an advantage when getting to know and explicating the data. However, it should be kept in mind that a particular way of seeing something is also a way of not seeing something else, and a researcher cannot escape the culture and discourses that she/he is located in (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). Thus, the challenge is to look for the things that are taken for granted and invisible, while generating and analysing the data. In this study, this means that I have constantly asked why questions of myself and the data; why is this particular issue emphasised; why do I make this interpretation?

Interviews are an efficient and practical way of collecting information that is not available in a published form (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). The interview data adds well to the observation data, as it can be used to study people's own experiences from their point of view. The interviews were conducted as semi-structured interviews, which has the advantages of the material being somewhat

systematic and comprehensive, while the interview situation is quite conversational and informal and the interviewee has a possibility to raise the topics of the discussion (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). Both the observations and the interviews are a time-consuming way to generate data, but the use of different types of data enables the researcher to observe the phenomenon from versatile points of view and to produce a "thick description" (Geertz, 1973) of the phenomenon.

Discourse analysis is a time-consuming and laborious way of studying texts and social reality; thus, relatively small amounts of data are preferred (Potter & Wetherell, 1987, pp. 161–162; Silverman, 2001, p. 5). The amount of generated observation data is quite large in this study, while the number of interviews is smaller and more manageable. Thus, I have not transcribed the observation data entirely, albeit I have listened all the recordings.

One of the key aspects of the reflexivity in the discourse analysis is that the researcher does not take the categorisations created or applied to the data for granted (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). Rather, the researcher is constantly required to pay attention to her/his own role in the categorisation process, as well as to that of the research subject in this case the workshop participant or interviewee (Wood & Kroger, 2000). A researcher should also take responsibility for their texts (Phillips & Hardy, 2002, p. 85), meaning there is no ready framework for conducting discourse analysis and thus, the researcher must carefully explain her/his process. The analysis process proceeded in many phases. I have made notes on every phase and decision, and these notes have been utilised when conducting the analysis and can be used to trace the interpretations.

The concepts of validity and reliability are not useful or preferable for evaluating qualitative studies in general and discursive studies in particular (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Phillips & Hardy, 2002). Validity, or the idea that the research captures the 'real' world, is unsuitable to evaluate a study that assumes there are multiple, constantly changing realities. Likewise, reliability, or the idea that the results are repeatable, does not make much sense in a study aiming to provide new ways to understand and to categorise a phenomenon.

Instead, the evaluation criteria used here follow the suggestions of Phillips and Hardy (2002, pp. 79–85) for evaluating discursive studies. They present that the evaluation should reflect on how well the evidence is presented to demonstrate the arguments, how plausible the findings are, how profound the analytic scheme is and how interesting the results are.

To increase the plausibility of the findings, I have explicated the research process and the choices I have made. As in all empirical research, the research data plays an important role, and therefore, I have aimed to describe the data in as much detail as possible, as well as the 'rules' I have used for analysing the data. The observations made from the data are written about in detail, and the interpretation is opened up in the text by providing quotes from the data, both the original in Finnish and the English translations. In addition, a detailed description of the analytic scheme and the analysis process are presented in Chapter 3.

In addition to being well constructed and conducted, the study must contribute to the literature in an interesting and meaningful way. The theoretical and practical contributions of this study have been discussed in previous sections. The main finding of this study is that there is no one way of seeing climate change: it is not simply a straightforward business issue–an addition to business as usual–even though this construction does dominate. Rather, there is a constant struggle for meaning when engaging with climate change in business organisations: on one hand, the rational business language dominates the discussions and is commonly used to justify activities. On the other hand, more nuanced, moral-based meanings are given and climate change is discussed as personal satisfaction, gratification, and 'doing the right thing'. In addition this study adds to previous literature by empirically examining climate change discourse in two different data sets, as well as by discussing the differences of these sets of data.

I acknowledge that the results presented in this study are based on my interpretations. This interpretation is not the only possible one and this study maintains that there are no 'true' representations of reality (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). In addition, the results do not provide a full account of the climate change activities and understandings of the participants and the companies, as the data used in this study consists of only texts that have been chosen or generated for the purposes of the study. I have interpreted the data in as much detail as possible, though not everything can be examined in one study.

When identifying and reporting the results of the analysis, the researcher should be aware of how the discourses used in the report construct social reality and what possible consequences their use have. In addition, the researcher should be sensitive to how she/he, and the research community are a part of knowledge production. It should be reflected on what kind of message the study constructs and communicates of the research phenomenon and how the researcher is a part of this knowledge production.

Tregidga et al. (2014) discuss the issue of intentionality in their study on representations and identities of sustainable organisation. The authors acknowledge that they cannot know if those producing the analysed texts intended to create the identities they have discovered. In addition, Springett (2003) maintains that the process of controlling language and the tendency to impose management terminology on sustainability issues might be unwilling or not. As corporations govern our society, it comes as no surprise that the business language is used to make sense of the most societal issues. Likewise, Phillips and Hardy (2002, p. 2) note that individuals do not always have the luxury of choosing the discourses of which they are a part. Phillips and Hardy (2002) maintain that, however, individuals can strategically use these discourses, even while the ability to act strategically is limited by the discourses that accompany the complex processes of social construction. Thus, in the spirit of these studies, this study does not make claims on the intentionality of the studied language and discursive constructions. Rather, the focus is on the culturally created and shared constructions of climate change engagement in business organisations, as well as on the functions of the discourses.

6.4 Limitations and future research directions

This study has explored a topical issue: climate change engagement in business organisations. The study has presented a contextual and situated interpretation of how business professionals engaging with climate change construct and use climate change engagement discourses. This chapter provides a discussion of the limitations of this research along with suggestions for future research.

The theoretical framework of this study consists of a conceptual review of previous research on climate change and related concepts in business research. The fact that this study did not use a particular theoretical or conceptual approach as a theoretical and analytical starting point could be also seen as a limitation of this study. However, this choice was justified from the point of view of the aim and topic of this study and has proven to be a functional decision. Future research could utilise for example the following theoretical approaches to further explore the issues this study has presented and to examine other questions climate change raises. Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984; Freeman et al. 2010) could be used to explore for instance, stakeholder relations and value creation in climate change engagement, as well as climate change and sustainability issues as organisational stakeholders. In these processes it would be interesting to examine how meanings

become created together at different organisational levels. Institutional theory (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Scott & Meyer, 1994) could be used to further explicate how meanings and actions become institutionalised. The idea sensemaking (Weick, 1979, 1995, 2001) would be a particularly useful conceptual and analytical framework for future studies. This approach could be used to provide profound viewpoints to examine how new and abstract sustainability phenomena become understood and managed.

This study provides a detailed analysis of a specific data set, focusing on a specific project and on a limited number of business professionals. This limits the applicability of these findings to other contexts. However, the chosen research approach and analysis method do not aim for generalisable results; rather, the aim is to provide a thick description of a particular phenomenon. Furthermore, the focus of this study is a global problem, affecting all business organisations and individuals more or less, thus, this study provides understanding and insights to this issue. Other analytical approaches could have been used for this study and could provide valuable insights in future research. For instance, other language oriented approaches such as rhetorical and narrative analysis could be used to explore a similar or a different type of data or setting.

Even though the findings of this study are not unconditionally applicable to other contexts, the theoretical and methodological frameworks used in this study could be adapted to other data types and contexts as well to further explore this topical and complex issue. The focus on active companies can be seen as a limitation of this study. The findings present the issue only from the point of view of active companies that are aware of the issue. Thus, they are likely to present the issue as an important problem that requires action. Taking this into account, this study does not examine whether the issue is engaged with; rather, the focus is on the methods that are used to construct climate change engagement in business organisations.

The data set is vast and includes many different business professionals, companies and industries: there might be meanings and interpretations that do not necessarily fit into the discourses presented here. However, the findings are valuable and provide new insights into the ways in which climate change engagement is understood.

This study has focused on business professionals that have actively started to engage with climate change. It would be of interest to study how business professionals who have not yet started this work, or do not intend to do so, construct climate change and climate change engagement. Such an analysis could

expand how discourses on climate change are utilised to create certain social realities.

The discourses identified in this study are used to produce a reality of climate change engagement. By examining business professionals who do not yet engage with these activities, we could explore whether the same discourses are used, and in particular, how they are used. This study suggests that the discourses identified as constructing climate change engagement are based on socially and culturally shared contextual understandings and thus, they are probably used in other settings or contexts as well.

In addition, a comparative study between different industries could be conducted, as, for example Brønn and Vidaver-Cohen (2008) have noted significant differences between industries related to motives for social initiatives. This study has focused on a business-to-consumer segment and one of the findings of this study discusses how business professionals construct themselves in a key position vis-à-vis consumers. In future research, climate change talk in a business-to-business context could be explored to shed further light on the issue of constructing positions and responsibilities.

The findings of this study also point to interesting and important themes that are still under-researched. Previous research, and also this study, have addressed the social, physical and cultural impacts of climate change on business organisations and on how business organisations engage with climate change and contribute to climate change mitigation. However, the paradoxical role of business organisations as climate protectors and climate culprits has been scarcely researched. Paradoxes in corporate sustainability have been identified as an emerging topic (Hahn, Pinkse, Preuss, & Figge, 2014). The interpretations presented in this study have pointed to some contradictions and to how they have been reconciled, and these ideas could be further addressed in future research.

In addition, this study has discussed some of the issues that were not discussed in the data, and it has noted that while moral and emotional issues were discussed, these issues were subordinate to the traditional business language and the rational discourse. Future studies could delve deeper into this issue of morals, values and emotions in climate change engagement. Such research would contribute to emerging discussions (Wright & Nyberg, 2012; Wright et al., 2013) and have a potential to challenge the still-prevailing myth of amoral business and to overcome the separation fallacy.

This study has focused on the social side of reality by exploring how language is used to create particular social realities. The socio-material aspects of organising

have been recently revitalised in organisational research and such an approach could be used to study climate change engagement in organisations. For instance, the actor–network theory could be used to further explore how climate change is translated into material objects and how actors are related to these objects.

To conclude, I would like to emphasise that the interpretations presented in this study are based on my subjective understanding. The discourse analytical approachs aims to provide new understandings, to present new interpretations and to challenge the traditional ways of seeing a particular situation. This study opens a door for new ways of seeing and giving meaning to business climate change engagement. In doing this, and by showing the alternative ways of understanding it is possible to engage in new ways of acting and discussing.

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Appendix: Description of primary empirical data

Data	Date	Contents	Code
Workshop for housing and lodging professionals	22.–23.11.2010	Field notes 5 pp.	W1N
Workshop for housing and lodging professionals	22.–23.11.2010	Recorded materials total 203 min, transcribed 11 pp.	W1R
Workshop for food retail professionals	3.–4.2.2011	Field notes 6 pp.	W2N
Workshop for food retail professionals	3.–4.2.2011	Recorded materials total 98 min, transcribed 14 pp.	W2R
Workshop for human resource professionals	8.–9.9.2011	Field notes 7 pp.	W3N
Workshop for human resource professionals	8.–9.9.2011	Recorded materials 298 min, transcribed 34 pp.	W3R
Interview / Customer relations manager	28.10.2010	Length 50 min, 13 pp.	I1
Interview / Environmental manager	28.10.2010	Length 62 min, 17 pp.	I2
Interview / Nutritionist	17.11.2010	Length 68 min, 12 pp.	I3
Interview / Restaurant group manager	25.11.2010	Length 60 min, 12 pp.	I4
Interview / Product specialist	2.12.2010	Length 68 min, 14 pp.	I5
Interview / Quality manager	23.11.2011	Length 61 min, 15 pp.	I6
Interview / Managing Director	23.11.2011	Length 45 min, 11 pp.	I7
Interview / Corporate responsibility specialist	30.11.2011	Length 62 min, 16 pp.	I8
Interview / Quality manager	1.12.2011	Length 38 min, 10 pp.	I10
Interview / Area manager	1.12.2011	Length 64 min, 14 pp.	I11
Interview / Managing director	1.12.2011	Length 58 min, 13 pp.	I12