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ESG Integration Among Large Nordic Institutional Asset Owners

Mapping Large Nordic Institutional Asset
Owners' Approaches to Sustainability and ESG
Integration in the Investment Process

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Abstract

Traditional investing is mainly concerned with creating a financial return on investment for the investor and hence disregards other non-financial issues such as adverse environmental and societal impacts. This negligence of negative impacts in the investment process is beginning to be addressed with the emergence of environmental, social, and governance (ESG) investing, socially responsible investing (SRI), and other sustainable investing types. Therefore, this thesis aims to establish if and how large Nordic institutional asset owners integrate sustainability and ESG concerns into their respective investment processes. Moreover, a secondary goal is to determine what type of investing the current investment processes of these asset owners resembles most. The thesis utilizes a qualitative methodology in order to gather the necessary data-points. All the information in this thesis comes from publicly available sources such as annual reports and sustainability reports. The study found that the asset owners analyzed utilize ESG integration in their investment processes. The asset owners have specific guidelines that pertain to ESG issues, and screen for non-compliance to ensure that investments with potentially detrimental effects on society are excluded from their respective portfolios. A minority of the asset owners also utilizes best-in-class screening to identify investments with the strongest ESG performance. Hence, the asset owners, in general, are located between SRI and ESG investing on the motivation spectrum.

Keywords: ESG Investing and Integration, Sustainable Investing, Responsible Investing, Large Institutional Asset Owners

Sammanfattning

Traditionell investering sysslar främst med att skapa ekonomisk avkastning på investering för investeraren och bortser därför andra icke-finansiella frågor som negativa miljö- och samhällskonsekvenser. Försummelsen av negativa effekter i investeringsprocessen har börjat adresseras med framväxten av miljömässiga, sociala och lednings (ESG) investeringar, socialt ansvarsfulla investeringar (SRI) och andra typer av hållbara investeringar. Därför är syftet med denna avhandling att fastställa om och hur, stora nordiska institutionella tillgångsägare integrerar hållbarhet och ESG angelägenheter i sina respektive investeringsprocesser. Utöver detta är ett sekundärt mål att avgöra vilken typ av investering de nuvarande investeringsprocesserna av dessa tillgångsägare mest liknar. Avhandlingen använder en kvalitativ metod för att samla nödvändiga datapunkter. All information i denna avhandling kommer från allmänt tillgängliga källor såsom årsredovisningar och hållbarhetsrapporter. Studien fann att tillgångsägarna analyserade utnyttjandet av ESG integration i deras investeringsprocesser. Tillgångsägare har särskilda riktlinjer gällande ESG-frågor, och screening för avvikelser för att försäkra att investeringar med potentiellt skadliga effekter på samhället är eliminerade från respektive portföljer. En minoritet av kapitalägare utnyttjar också den bästa screeningen för att identifiera investeringar med den starkaste ESG prestandan. Därför ligger tillgångsägare i allmänhet mellan SRI och ESG med investering på motivationsspektrumet.

Nyckelord: ESG investering och integration, hållbar investering, ansvarsfull investering, stora institutionella kapitalägare

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1. Introduction

Traditional investing has led to enormous economic growth and human development. However, in recent decades, it has become apparent that investing focused solely on financial return on investment (ROI) has left many people and important issues behind. Despite the economic growth that comes with investing for financial returns, this pattern has led to many negative externalities. Moreover, many of the emerging issues, such as climate change and environmental degradation are not included in the concerns of traditional investors (Chua et al., 2011; Flynn et al., 2015). The world has recognized that many important issues cannot be solved purely by economic growth. According to experts, the current most pressing issues all pertain to climate change, unequal economic growth, gender inequalities, financial instability, and inadequate healthcare (Hutt, 2016; Turner, 2018). Moreover, the World Economic Forums Global Shapers Survey found that millennials, who account for 50% of the world's population, see the issue of climate change as the most crucial challenge humanity must face (Global Shapers Community, 2017). The same survey also found that millennials see inequalities, poverty, and potential conflict as troublesome issues that need to be addressed. Global leaders share, or at the least acknowledge, these concerns and have made strides to address these issues with the Paris Climate Accords and the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

While experts agree that both of these agreements are not perfect in addressing the aforementioned issues, they do symbolize a unified recognition of the problems that humanity faces today (Bodansky, 2016; Sachs, 2012). These international agreements in general, and the Paris Accords specifically, send a signal to large institutional investors that they must start including these concerns in their investment behavior. These institutional investors have already begun demanding more insight into the climate risks of their investments (Falkner, 2016). The societal drive and demand for action, especially on climate change, has already pushed institutional investors to start divesting from fossil fuels (Cl  men  on, 2016). This push

has also been supplemented with the growing concerns of climate risks affecting institutional investors' financial returns (Krueger et al., 2019). Hawley and Lukomnik (2018), argue that moving away from traditional portfolio theory to a more 'beta activism' focused portfolio management style could increase the financial return for the institutional asset owners while creating positive environmental, societal, and governance (ESG) impacts.

Institutional asset owners can be a driving force for change due to the vast amounts of assets they control. According to White (2018), global institutional asset owners have roughly 125 trillion USD (1200 trillion SEK) under management. The top 100 asset owners alone account for more than 18 trillion USD (170 trillion SEK). For comparison, the United States gross domestic product (GDP) in 2018 was roughly 20 trillion USD (190 trillion SEK) (U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis, 2019). The top 100 asset owners alone have almost as many assets under management as the value that the entire US economy generates within a year. Furthermore, according to the U.S. Government Accountability Office (2018), since 1993, the US government has spent 154 billion USD (1500 billion SEK) on climate change-related activities, with roughly 13 billion USD (124 billion SEK) spent in 2017. The study also found that 94% of that money went to projects that may be related to climate change but do not help to address the issue directly, such as nuclear research. Therefore, the amount of money that the biggest economy in the world spends on climate action is only a fraction of the assets that large institutional asset owners have under management. The sheer value of funds available to large institutional asset owners has the potential to create a substantial positive impact. Therefore, it is critical to involve these asset owners in the process of solving environmental and societal issues. Many of the biggest institutional asset owners are sovereign wealth funds or public pension funds, subject to governmental regulations (White, 2018). Hence, these owners are accountable to the will of society and their respective governments. These many factors make large institutional investors a prime contender to be a force for global change.

The goal of this study is to add to the body of research regarding large institutional investors' processes pertaining to sustainability and ESG concerns. The methodology chapter summarizes the methods used to answer the research questions presented below. The theoretical background aims to define different types of investing, as well as the opportunities and challenges with responsible investment practices. The conceptual framework is concerned with identifying the different categories and measures used in this thesis, as well as generating a sample of asset owners included in this study. In the results section, the individual profiles of the asset owners (Appendix), as well as summarized results on a macro-level, are presented. The discussion section explores some of the implications of the results and provides ideas for further studies. Finally, the conclusion summarizes the results and answers the research questions.

1.1. Aim

This study aims to map the approaches of large institutional asset owners related to sustainability and ESG integration. Specifically, this study includes asset owners from Sweden, Norway, Finland, and Denmark. The thesis will gather information about how these asset owners integrate ESG issues, what type of issues they focus on, what kind of investment guidelines they use, how they evaluate non-compliance with said guidelines, and lastly what processes are in place in the case of non-compliance. The research question is as follows:

How do large institutional asset owners in the Nordic region integrate sustainability and ESG issues into their portfolio and investment operations?

Secondly, this thesis aims to analyze where on the motivation spectrum the overall Nordic large institutional asset market seems to fall. The research question is as follows:

Where on the investment motivation spectrum is the Nordic large institutional asset owner market most likely to be found?

1.2. Objectives

In order to answer the primary and secondary research questions, individual objectives must be determined. These objectives offer a more detailed description of the theoretical process this thesis follows in order to answer its questions. The objectives of this thesis are as follows:

- I. Identify the value of assets under the management of the organizations analyzed in the thesis to establish a perspective of how much financial power is available in this market.
- II. Establish how the asset owners in this study integrate ESG issues into their investment process.
 - a. Analyze the investment guidelines used by the asset owners regarding ESG issues.
 - b. Analyze how the asset owners determine compliance or non-compliance with ESG issues.
 - c. Determine how the asset owners handle non-compliance with ESG issues.
- III. Establish the primary focus of the asset owners regarding sustainability and responsible investing.
 - a. Resolve what specific sustainability issue is the most targeted in the asset owners' investment processes.
- IV. Determine where on the motivation spectrum the large Nordic institutional asset owners as a group fall based on how they have integrated ESG issues and guidelines.

2. Methodology

Literature Review. A literature review was conducted to obtain an in-depth understanding of the investment market overall, and specifically, the equity investment market. The literature review was used to gain knowledge regarding the different types of investing, such as ESG and impact investing and the challenges and opportunities that these types of investments currently face. The literature review was utilized to help determine the analytical framework used in this thesis in combination with the inputs by the commissioning organization.

Choice of Sample. The sample, or in other words, the asset owners included in this thesis, was determined in collaboration with the commissioning company. The sample includes some of the largest and most influential asset owners in the Nordics. Among other parameters, the organizations included must be asset owners, not external investment management companies. Moreover, the organizations must be from either Finland, Sweden, Norway, or Denmark. The thesis does not include all asset owners in the region, but only the ones deemed significant and influential enough to warrant further research. As mentioned above, the sample was based on the expertise of the commissioning company, which has significant experience and knowledge in the field.

Data Collection. The data collection phase was the most extensive part of this thesis and entailed gathering data from annual reports, sustainability reports, investment guidelines and policies, articles, and other publications by or about the asset owners. Moreover, a substantial amount of data was collected from the United Nations Principles for Responsible Investment Association's (PRI) transparency reports that every member must publish once a year. Data from the UN Global Compact (UNGC) regarding the respective asset owners was also included in this study. All the data used in this thesis is publicly available and, therefore,

accessible for further study. The reason why no surveys or interviews were included was due to a lack of access to the asset owners, which would have potentially led to inconsistencies within the gathered data. By using only publicly available data, the issue of inconsistent access was mitigated.

Data analysis. In the next step, the data gathered through the data collection phase was analyzed using the criteria defined in the conceptual framework. The results are presented one a micro-level in form of a matrix using individual criteria and organizational levels (see Appendix). Additionally, macro-level results were computed in order to present the results at the country level and the Nordic level. The discussions section presents the implications and outcomes of the results. Lastly, the answers to the primary and secondary research questions are stated in the conclusions.

3. Theoretical Framework

3.1. Types of Investing – Motivation Spectrum

Individuals and organizations invest money for a variety of different reasons and have different criteria for what they want to achieve with their investments. Therefore, it is essential to understand the different types of investing practices that are currently being utilized. The main differentiator between how people invest is their motivation, or in other words, what outcome they want to achieve through their investment. Some give money to charities in order to have a positive environmental or societal impact. Conversely, some invest money purely with the intent of maximizing their financial ROI. Hence, we can plot the different types of investment on a spectrum based on their motivation (Chua et al., 2011; Flynn et al., 2015).

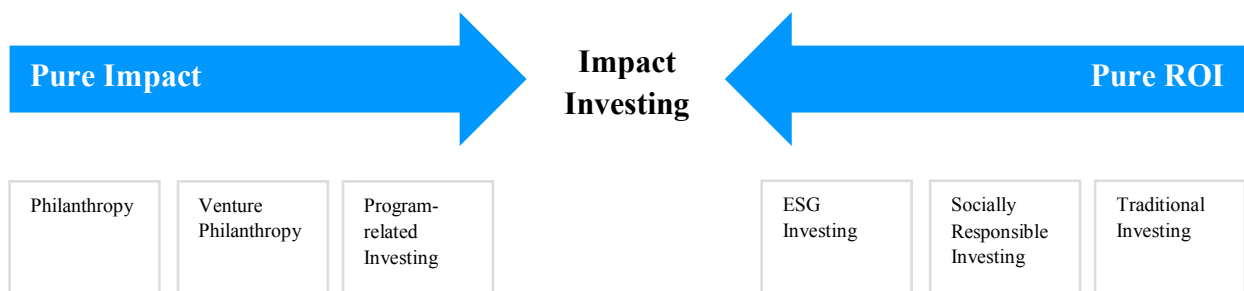


Figure 1: Motivation Spectrum. Adapted from (Chua et al., 2011; Flynn et al., 2015).

The figure above represents a spectrum based on the motivation of investors. Towards the right, the type of investing becomes more ROI motivated. Conversely, as the types of investing move left, a positive impact on society or the environment becomes more important to the investor. Impact investing represents the sweet-spot between the two motivations and theoretically would weigh both financial returns and sustainability concerns equally (Chua et al., 2011; Flynn et al., 2015).

Philanthropy. Philanthropy represents the purest impact position as this tool lacks the expectation of any ROI, including the recovery of the initial financial expense (Chua et al., 2011; Flynn et al., 2015). While there are some forms of philanthropy that are done with some self-interest, such as for tax purposes or to further a cause that directly affects the investor (for example, an outdoor enthusiast giving to the local national park), philanthropic giving often takes place without any direct financial or personal return to the investor (Andreoni, 2006). Therefore, philanthropy is the purest form of investing for impact as there are generally only financial disincentives to do so since no financial returns are generated, and the principal investment is lost. Hence, in philanthropy, the investor is motivated solely by the non-financial, positive impact return.

Venture Philanthropy. The next type of financing on the pure impact arrow can be described as venture philanthropy. The idea behind this is to take one additional step after standard philanthropy. Instead of using the money for aid or reparations, this form of financing allocates seed money to projects and offers guidance in order to achieve scalable innovation and growth for entire sectors that address social or environmental issues. Profit or even coverage of the initial investment, while possible, are not considered as a goal or motivation (Chua et al., 2011; Flynn et al., 2015). While venture philanthropy might not lead to a direct ROI, the body of literature on this topic suggests that this type of investment serves the interest of the investor in an indirect manner (Gautier and Pache, 2015). An example of this is an organization that might invest in a school or university to increase the educational accessibility of the community. While there is no financial incentive to invest in this project since no financial ROI can be generated and additionally, the principal investment is lost, the indirect impact of having a larger educated workforce in the future presents a benefit to the investing organization. Hence, venture philanthropy can be considered an investment with a benefit to the investor. However, this benefit is non-financial and usually indirect.

Program-Related Investing. The goal of program-related investing still primarily lies in creating a positive impact. However, the idea is to cover the initial investment even though it is not a primary target. For example, this may include student loans at zero or inflation-bound interest rates or investments in low income and rent-controlled housing (US IRS, n.d.). Moreover, there are usually specific rules governing program-related investments. For example, the US Internal Revenue Service (IRS) states that for an investment to classify as a program-related investment, the investment must not be used as a political campaign contribution or for lobbying efforts, and the target of the program-related investment should not be to generate any financial return (Brest, 2016). Therefore, a program-related investment can be made to non-profit and for-profit organizations alike. According to Brest, program-related investments differentiate themselves because they can allow an organization to “reach beyond the nonprofit sector to draw on the talent, expertise, and innovations offered by the private sector to advance its mission” (Brest, 2016, p.19). Another example of a program-related investment is investments in biotech start-ups that are working on medicines which have the potential to cure certain illnesses generally found in developing countries (Brest, 2016). From a financial return perspective, this investment might not make sense since the target consumer of the medicine may not have the means to pay a premium. Hence, program-related investments aim to drive positive impact without necessarily creating ROI.

Impact Investing. This type of investing has taken shape in recent decades as a potential solution to address both social and environmental issues (Mitchell, 2016). Moreover, the influx of new resources and ideas into the field has increased rapidly, leading to a mainstreaming of the term, especially in the financial industry and in policymaking. However, there are often misconceptions regarding impact investing and what it entails. While no single definition exists, there are some generally universal elements of impact investing (Mitchell, 2016). In essence, impact investing is considered an investment that aims to create a societal or environmental

impact while also being financially sustainable. Hence, the difference between an investment that aims to create a financial return and, in the process, also creates an environmental or social impact, and an impact investment is that the purpose of the impact investment is to create a positive impact, while in a regular investment the impact is solely an extraneous outcome (Snider, 2016). Therefore, impact investing distinguishes itself from regular investing by purposefully aiming to solve or change an environmental or societal issue and is, therefore, very targeted.

It is essential to distinguish between impact investing and philanthropy. While both instruments aim to alleviate or solve social or environmental issues and hence generate environmental and social capital, philanthropy neglects the financial aspect and no ROI is expected (Flynn et al., 2015). Therefore, philanthropy is not an investment in a traditional financial sense. On the other hand, impact investing, if done correctly, generates an ROI and is therefore also financially sustainable. While the primary goal of each investment is to target some form of non-financial issue, generating an ROI is an important consideration when deciding on an investment. Moreover, while the success of traditional investing is measured by financial performance and the success of philanthropy is arguably measured by the environmental or societal impacts a project generates, a combination of both assesses the success of impact investments. In essence, impact investing aims to maximize environmental, societal, and financial capital (Flynn et al., 2015). An example of impact investing is to buy land and develop low-income housing projects. In this example, investors can use their expertise in property development to both generate markets returns and a measurable societal benefit simultaneously (Wood et al., 2013). Because impact investing can generate positive results on all three pillars of sustainability, it is a potent and essential tool to incentivize investors to do good with their money while still generating an ROI.

ESG Investing. When an organization's investment process entails including environmental, social, and governance concerns while making investment decisions, this is considered ESG investing. Usually, an investment carries a rating on each of the individual ESG dimensions. A significant amount of research and data gathering goes into generating these ratings; hence, incorporating ESG issues into an investment process requires additional resources (van Duuren et al., 2016). It must be noted that this may not mean that the company has a positive impact on all fronts, rather the company is identifying their performance on each pillar of sustainability and is taking active steps towards improving their overall impact (Chua et al., 2011; Flynn et al., 2015). While the primary goal of ESG investments is to generate an ROI, the secondary goal is to create a positive impact by steering investments towards organizations with better ESG ratings. Often this type of investment involves positive and negative screening to ensure that investments only occur in companies with an adequate ESG performance (Bailey et al., 2016). For example, an asset owner could screen for retail clothing companies with the best ESG performance and invest in companies that produce their clothing both in accordance with high human rights standards and source their inputs from sustainable sources while still having the primary focus on generating ROI.

Socially Responsible Investing. Here, profit is the main driver; however, SRI attempts to avoid the detrimental consequences of investments in fossil fuels, tobacco, or companies with exploitative labor practices, among others. The idea is to accumulate profit while avoiding the infliction of harm to society or the environment. For example, an asset owner invested in clothing retailers could screen for companies with below-average human rights and environmental sustainability performance and exclude them from its portfolio. Therefore, SRI aims to be impact-neutral at minimum (Chua et al., 2011; Flynn et al., 2015). Usually, SRI takes place by using negative screening and excluding specific sectors (Scholtens and Sievänen,

2013). This type of investing is mainly concerned with limiting the negative impact that comes with the primary motivation, namely the generation of ROI.

Traditional Investing. Investing with the sole focus on ROI is labeled as traditional investing (Chua et al., 2011; Flynn et al., 2015). As stated above, traditional investing focuses solely on creating a financial return and disregards social or environmental impacts directly or indirectly generated through the investment. Traditional investing is the most straightforward type of investing, as it is easier to measure financial ROI than measuring the positive or negative impact created by an investment (Chua et al., 2011; Flynn et al., 2015). While traditional investing disregards environmental and social sustainability, there are different strategies of investing. Investors can choose a more short-term or long-term approach and decide how much risk they are willing to take to generate increased ROI.

3.2. Financial Return Potential of Responsible Investing

In the past, many have questioned whether responsible investment types can compete with traditional ROI-focused investments in terms of generating market returns in the same risk category. This idea stems from the theory that limiting the allowable investment opportunities, as well as focusing on non-profit metrics, will lead to a lower ROI (WEF, 2013). However, according to the World Economic Forum (2013), while including non-financial parameters adds an extra layer of cost to the investment, the better ESG management that comes with extra screenings and more diligent monitoring leads to a reduction in the risk of the investment, especially in the long-run. The study found that strong ESG management was in correlation with strong financial results. Moreover, the report also noted that as responsible investment practices become standardized and unified, the transaction costs associated with monitoring and screening will decrease, further increasing the potential ROI. Furthermore, an analysis conducted by McKinsey found that the internal rates of return (IRR) generated by impact investments and traditional investments were comparable and, hence, this specific skepticism

towards responsible investment practices is unfounded (Pandit and Tamhane, 2018). Another benefit of responsible investing is that this type of investment offers asset owners the ability to diversify their portfolio. This diversification potential is directly linked to extra parameters of social and environmental considerations that are included in impact investments, which differentiates impact investments from traditional investments (Balcilar et al., 2017).

3.3. Advantages of Responsible Investing

The advantages of investment types like SRI, ESG, and impact investing are manifold. For one, these types can offer more ROI-focused investors the opportunity to additionally generate a positive social and environmental impact, or at the very least, avoid negative impacts and create a ‘moral return.’ Secondly, an investor with the primary goal of having a positive impact can use the additional generated resources to create further positive impacts. This ‘unintended’ ROI is a definite advantage of responsible investing over more philanthropic types of financing (Johnson and Lee, 2013). Lastly, since responsible investments can offer market or above-market returns (Snider, 2016), this type of investment will also attract investors that operate purely on a profit basis. This broad appeal gives responsible investing a significant advantage over other more philanthropic investment strategies, as it can generate a substantial sum of money from investors that disregard the impact generated.

3.4. Challenges of Responsible Investing

While responsible investing practices offer many benefits over traditional investing, it is a rather young field and hence has certain flaws (Findlay and Moran, 2018; Höchstädter and Scheck, 2015; Johnson and Lee, 2013; Ormiston et al., 2015). For one, the added parameters of social and environmental investment add another layer of complexity. This complication can increase the risk of a so-called uncontrolled mission drift (Bruneel et al., 2017). The idea behind the concept of mission drift is that the added complexity and hybridity that comes with the

additional criteria (i.e., ESG) can make it challenging to stay focused on all targets equally and devote an adequate amount of resources to each target. In other words, more focus is put on one criterion over another, and one or more targets can be neglected. In addition to the potential risk of uncontrolled mission drift, the added complexity of multiple goals reduces the number of investment possibilities available. The combination of different asset classes with various targeted impacts and different geographical locations means that there are many more possible combinations than for traditional investments. However, this also limits the number of investments that will be available for each combination. For some constellations, there might not be any availability. As stated by Johnson and Lee (2011, p.6), “the narrowness of the impact investment opportunity set, which is a function of a given investor’s social return objectives, will be an important consideration when determining the size of the portfolio’s allocation to these investments.” However, perhaps as the impact investment market matures and impact projects grow in demand, this problem will be mitigated.

Additionally, it is more difficult to define what a social or environmental achievement of a target corresponds to when compared to a purely financial return. In other words, it is significantly more difficult and more ambiguous to define an impact success or a return on an environmental or social investment. Furthermore, many of the current market-based solutions have not been tested to the same extent as traditional investments, which generally means that there is more uncertainty around impact investments (Johnson and Lee, 2013). The final challenge may also be reframed as an opportunity, namely that impact investments are more complex than traditional investments, and therefore, more knowledge is necessary. Essentially this means that the people involved with identifying potential investment opportunities must be skilled in environmental, societal, and financial issues, as well as have the resources to monitor all three aspects (Johnson and Lee, 2013). While building the required knowledge base

necessary to invest successfully in impact projects or companies increases costs, it may also lead to a more holistic understanding of any investment.

3.5. Overcoming the Challenges

As stated above, integrating ESG considerations into an investment process creates a particular set of challenges that are mostly connected to the relative novelty of the field and the additional considerations that are included. This makes responsible investing more complex than traditional investing, and there are a limited number of defined processes or measurement tools. In order to overcome some of the challenges, these investment types must create a track record of success so they can attract a wider range of investors, including those focused solely on impact as well as those driven by profit. Therefore, responsible investment types should demonstrate that they can create a positive impact on society and the planet while consistently delivering market returns to build this track record (Godsall and Sanghvi, 2016).

Moreover, to increase the demand and usage of responsible investing, the market should become more uniform in various ways. For one, the way impact is measured and reported currently takes on many different forms within the market. Creating specific measurement and reporting standards could help unify the impact investing space and aid investors in choosing investments that suit their liking. Furthermore, responsible investment projects sometimes lack clarity in what they aim to achieve in terms of ESG outcomes. Therefore, the responsible investment market can attract more demand by being very clear about the goals of each potential investment and allowing investors to choose an opportunity based on the pillar of sustainability most important to them (Godsall and Sanghvi, 2016). Hence, continuous dialogue within the industry is essential to build a more standardized investment process.

4. Conceptual Framework & Sample

4.1. Definition of Sections & Categories

4.1.1. General Information

The purpose of this section is to gather general information about the various asset owners in order to put the following sections into perspective. There are two main data-points collected, namely the type of organization and the value of assets under management.

Type of Organization. As implied by the title, the data gathered in this category gives information on which type of organization the asset owner classifies as. For example, the asset owner could be a public or private pension fund, an insurance company, a development finance institute, etc. This category makes the grouping easier and hence, the comparing and contrasting of the various asset owners.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Any answer*

Assets under Management (AuM). The AuM category collects data regarding the total value of the asset owners in billions of Swedish Kronor (SEK). Assets that have been delineated in Danish Kronor, Norwegian Kronor, or Euro, were transformed into SEK.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Billion SEK or Not Available (NA)*

4.1.2. Asset Class Mix

This section displays information regarding how the various asset owners invest. How assets are invested is crucial as it determines how much risk and reward a portfolio potentially can generate, as well as how much control the asset owner has over the portfolio (Greer, 1997). Hence, delineating how the asset owners allocate their assets gives information on how they diversify, if they have a more active or passive approach, as well as how much risk they are willing to take in order to generate returns. Various asset classes can be chosen, adding more

or less detail. The asset classes used in this thesis were chosen in collaboration with the commissioning organization. Similarly, what is included in each asset class was also discussed and agreed upon with the commissioning company. The description of what is included in each asset class is as follows:

Public Equity. Equity, with regard to this thesis, is defined as shares that an asset owner holds in the various investments. Public equity represents shares that are publicly listed and traded on markets.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Percentage or Not Available (NA)*

Private Equity. Private equity follows the same principles as public equity; however, these types of shares are unlisted and hence are not publicly traded.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Percentage or Not Available (NA)*

Public Fixed-Income Securities. This asset class is also known as debt securities and includes any instrument that pays a fixed interest rate to the holder of the security. Moreover, this type of security has a defined maturity date after which the initial value lent will be paid back to the investor. For the purposes of this thesis, any fixed-income securities that are issued by a government entity are considered public fixed-income securities.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Percentage or Not Available (NA)*

Private Fixed-Income Securities. This type of fixed-income security entails any instrument that is not issued by a government entity.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Percentage or Not Available (NA)*

Hedge funds. This category includes any assets classified as hedge funds.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Percentage or Not Available (NA)*

Infrastructure. Within the context of this thesis, infrastructure refers to investments in infrastructure projects.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Percentage or Not Available (NA)*

Real Estate. This category includes investments in real estate projects or properties.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Percentage or Not Available (NA)*

Real Assets. Real assets in the context of this thesis include direct investments in timberland, farmland, and forestry.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Percentage or Not Available (NA)*

Other. This category is non-specific and includes any asset that does not fit the definition of any other of the abovementioned asset classes.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Percentage or Not Available (NA)*

4.1.3. Sustainability Policy

ESG Inclusion. This category answers the question of whether the asset owners consider ESG issues for their new and/or ongoing investments.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Yes, No, or Not Available (NA)*

Type of Screening. For the purpose of this thesis, three types of screening have been identified, namely positive, negative, and norms-based screening. The definitions of these three types of screening are based on the respective PRI Associations' characterizations. Negative or exclusionary screening entails excluding new or ongoing investments based on non-conformance with standards set by the company on ESG issues (PRI, 2017). In essence, negative screening is done to ensure that no investments are made or held that have an adverse impact on society or the environment. On the other hand, positive, or best-in-class screening is conducted in order to identify investment opportunities that outperform similar companies and

hence, generate a positive ESG impact. Lastly, norms-based screening aims to assess if investments comply with international norms such as the UNGC, human rights standards, anti-corruption standards, etc. (PRI, 2017).

⇒ *Possible Answers: Negative Screening, Norms-Based Screening, Positive Screening, a combination of the three, or Not Available (NA).*

Scenario Analysis. This category, similarly, is based on the UN PRI framework. These scenarios are created to assess the impacts of investments on future trends. The relevant trends chosen for this thesis are environmental, societal, governance, and climate-related. This category gathers data on whether companies conduct such scenario analyses on the individual trends listed above. Each trend is examined separately; hence, data is gathered for each type of scenario analysis.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Yes, No, or Not Available (NA)*

Investment Guidelines. This section indicates if a company has set an overall guideline for their investments, as well as if they have specific and formalized guidelines that pertain to environmental, societal, and governance factors. In essence, this category gives an increased indication on how the respective asset owners' policies cover ESG issues and hence their investment approach and stance on said issues. Each guideline (environment, governance, societal) will be assessed separately.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Yes, No, or Not Available (NA)*

Exclusion. Exclusion and the aforementioned negative screening go hand in hand. An asset owner's exclusion list indicates which products, sectors, countries, or companies they do not invest in. There is no fixed approach to how asset owners exclude investments. However, there are specific themes that are followed. As stated above, asset owners can choose to exclude entire sectors such as fossil fuels, weapons, tobacco, pornography, etc. On the other hand,

companies can base their exclusion lists on international norms and hence exclude investments that do not comply. Some asset owners choose to exclude entire countries from their portfolios based on human rights records, international sanctions, or other concerns. It is also possible for an asset owner to base their exclusion solely on an individual investment basis and assess each investment based on its impact on ESG issues. Therefore, this section identifies whether an asset owner excludes investments and, if available, what their exclusions are based on (i.e., sector, country, company, etc.).

⇒ *Possible Answers: Sector-based, Norms-based, Country-specific, Company-specific, or Not Available (NA)*

4.1.4. Engagement Policy

There are varying degrees of engagement and ownership that an asset owner can use to influence the performance of its investment. As asset owners often own large stakes in their investments, the potential to influence and guide an investment is significant and is especially crucial for ESG issues as these issues are arguably often second to the financial ROI.

Engagement Type. This category solely gathers data on whether an asset owner practices active or passive ownership.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Active, Passive, or Not Available (NA)*

Voting. Companies have the ability to actively manage their investments by voting in annual general meetings, either directly or by proxy. As stated above, as some of these asset owners have significant stakes in their investments, a substantial amount of pressure can be exerted over their investments on various issues by voting in annual general meetings.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Yes, No, or Not Available (NA)*

Nominations. Asset owners can influence their investments by participating in the nomination of various positions within their investment (e.g., the board of directors). Hence

this is an excellent tool to ensure that the management of the investments reflects the same values as the asset owners.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Yes, No, or Not Available (NA)*

Dialogue. This type of engagement can be used to interactively exert influence on investments by communicating exactly what the asset owner expects of the investment. For example, if an ongoing investment has been flagged through screening as being in breach of international norms, underperforming on ESG issues, or nonadherence to the asset owner's responsible investment policy, the asset owner can engage in dialogue to rectify the issue. This type of engagement can be used before an investment gets divested and excluded from the asset owner's portfolio.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Yes, No, or Not Available (NA)*

4.1.5. Sustainability Initiatives

Various national and international initiatives aim to foster collaboration and set standards for members to adhere to. These initiatives are essential as they increase transparency and reporting, as well as offer the possibility to compare and contrast the members and signatories. For this thesis, only international initiatives have been chosen as the thesis covers multiple Nordic countries. Research has been conducted to identify the most commonly used and accepted international initiatives. Furthermore, the choice of international initiatives has also been influenced by collaboration with the commissioning company.

UN Principles for Responsible Investment (PRI). The UN founded the UN PRI in collaboration with some of the world's most significant institutional investors (PRI, n.d.). While it is not part of the United Nations, it is supported by the organization. The UN PRI is a non-profit organization that aims to enhance the integration of responsible investing for institutional investors. Six main principles are laid out by the organization, which helps asset owners and

managers incorporate ESG issues into their businesses. The UN PRI has over 2300 signatories making it a significant international initiative. All UN PRI signatories must submit a detailed transparency report on their investment practices, making it a powerful tool for information gathering (PRI, n.d.).

⇒ *Possible Answers: Signatory, No involvement (blank)*

UN Global Compact (UNGC). The UNGC lays out ten principles pertaining to responsible business practices. The principles are derived from international agreements and standards pertaining to human rights, the environment, anti-corruption, and labor rights (UNGC, 2017). Similar to the UN PRI, the UNGC members must submit a yearly communication of progress or COP. However, it is less extensive and usually refers to other reporting the asset owner does such as sustainability reports. There are two levels of involvement in the UNGC, namely participants and signatories. Signatories engage with the UNGC on a national or regional level while participants additionally engage on a global level. Moreover, the annual financial contribution to the UNGC is higher for participants than for signatories (UNGC, 2017).

⇒ *Possible Answers: Participant, Signatory, No involvement (blank)*

The Institutional Investors Group on Climate Change (IIGCC). The IIGCC is a European organization that aims to gather investors and capital to assist in the transition towards a low-carbon economy to combat global climate change (IIGCC, n.d.). Moreover, the IIGCC works with investors, policymakers, and businesses to institute policies, practices, and behaviors in order to achieve their goal of combating climate change. As this thesis focuses on institutional investors, the relevant part of the IIGCC is their investor practices program. This program focuses on collaboration between the various members regarding best practice approaches, implementation, tools, and guidance that assist investors on how to integrate

climate change issues into their various investment procedures (IIGCC, n.d.). Moreover, the IIGCC uses the suggestions by the Task Force on Climate-related Financial Disclosures (TCFD).

⇒ *Possible Answers: Member, No involvement (blank)*

Task Force on Climate-related Financial Disclosures (TCFD). This task force was created by the Financial Stability Board (FSB) in 2015. The task force aims to help assess the impact climate change has on various companies and financial markets through increased transparency and disclosure (Bloomberg Professional Services, 2018). Through these voluntary disclosures, the FSB hopes to offer investors the ability to better understand the risks and opportunities companies face pertaining to climate change and its impacts. The disclosure aims to gather information on companies' governance, strategy, risk-mitigation, as well as metrics and objectives relating to climate change considerations and impacts (Bloomberg Professional Services, 2018).

⇒ *Possible Answers: Supporter, No involvement (blank)*

Climate Action 100+. This investor initiative was founded in 2017 to push the world's largest greenhouse gas emitters to be more sustainable in their business practices and address climate change-related concerns. The worst 100 emitters account for roughly 85 percent of greenhouse gas emissions globally (Rundell, 2017). The group aims to target those companies by using their combined assets of 32 trillion USD (310 trillion SEK) to force the top emitters to be more sustainable and transparent (Bloomberg Businessweek, 2019). The group aims to achieve its goal by using the abovementioned financial influence to get into a dialogue with the top emitters and working with the various companies to aid them in becoming more sustainable (Rundell, 2017).

⇒ *Possible Answers: Investor, No involvement (blank)*

Carbon Disclosure Project (CDP). The CDP aims to help companies, cities, and investors to measure their environmental impact. Moreover, the organization helps said entities understand their impact better in order for them to make adjustments and become more sustainable. Furthermore, the CDP collects the self-reported data to conduct analyses into topics such as environmental risks and opportunities. Over 7000 companies, 620 cities, and 120 states and regions have self-reported their impacts to the CDP in 2018 (CDP, n.d.). Moreover, asset owners representing over 96 trillion USD (930 trillion SEK) in assets have used the data gathered by the CDP to access information about topics such as water, forestry, and climate change (CDP, 2017). There are two different tiers of involvement, namely signatory and member. The main difference is that members pay a higher fee and hence have access to more in-depth data and analyses than signatories.

⇒ *Possible Answers: Signatory, Member, No involvement (blank)*

4.1.6. UN Sustainable Development Goals (UN SDGs, SDGs)

The UN SDGs are part of the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which was accepted by all member states of the United Nations (United Nations, 2015). The goals were designed in various meetings and conferences of the United Nations member states and include decades of work and collaboration. Moreover, these goals have been adopted by all member states in 2015 and hence represent a global commitment to governance, social, and environmental sustainability. The following 17 goals are included under the umbrella term UN SDGs;

1. No Poverty, 2. Zero Hunger, 3. Good Health and Wellbeing, 4. Quality Education, 5. Gender Equality, 6. Clean Water and Sanitation, 7. Affordable Clean Energy, 8. Decent Work and Economic Growth, 9. Industry Innovation and Infrastructure, 10. Reduced Inequalities, 11. Sustainable Cities and Communities, 12. Responsible Consumption

and Production, 13. Climate Action, 14. Life Below Water, 15. Life on Land, 16. Peace and Justice, 17. Partnership for the Goals (United Nations, 2015).

Next to the overarching goals, each goal consists of multiple, more specific targets. In the context of this thesis, two aspects of the UN SDG involvement of the asset owners are measured, namely if the asset owners actively accept and acknowledge the UN SDGs and secondly if the asset owners target specific SDGs with their investment or engagement policies. However, this thesis will only include SDGs on a portfolio level and exclude SDGs targeted by an asset owner's internal operations. For example, if an asset owner actively invests with an SDG in mind or uses its voting power to push portfolio companies to comply with an SDG, this would classify as targeting said SDG. On the other hand, if an asset owner exclusively uses renewable energy within their operations, this would not classify as targeting a specific SDG as this thesis aims to map the investment practices of large institutional asset owners, not their internal operations.

⇒ *Possible Answers: General SDG engagement: Yes, No, Not Available (NA),*

⇒ *Possible Answers: Individual SDGs: Target (T), (blank)*

4.2. Company Selection

4.2.1. Sweden

Name	Type of Organization
AP1	Reserve - sovereign or government-controlled fund (PRI, 2019)
AP2	Reserve - sovereign or government-controlled fund (PRI, 2019)
AP3	Reserve - sovereign or government-controlled fund (PRI, 2019)
AP4	Reserve - sovereign or government-controlled fund (PRI, 2019)
AP6	Non-corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
AP7	Non-corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
Alecta	Corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
AMF	Corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
SEB Life and Pension	Insurance Company (PRI, 2019)
Swedfund	Development Finance Institution (PRI, 2019)
Church of Sweden	Faith-Based Organization (PRI, 2019)

4.2.2. Denmark

Name	Type
PKA	Non-corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
PensionDanmark	Non-corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (SWFI, n.d.)
Lærernes Pension	Non-corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (SWFI, n.d.)
PFA	Corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
ATP	Non-corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
P+(JØP/DIP)	Non-corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
PenSam	Corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (SWFI, n.d.)

4.2.3. Norway

Name	Type
Norwegian Government Pension Fund Global	Reserve - sovereign or government-controlled fund (PRI, 2019)
DNB Global	Insurance Company (PRI, 2019)
Gjensidige	Bank (SWFI, n.d.)
Storebrand	Insurance Company (SWFI, n.d.)

4.2.4. Finland

Name	Type
Veritas Pension Insurance Company	Non-corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
Ilmarinen Mutual Pension Insurance Company	Insurance Company (PRI, 2019)
Elo Mutual Pension Insurance Company	Corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
OP Group	Bank (SWFI, n.d.)
VER (Valtion Eläkerahasto)	Non-corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
LocalTapiola	Insurance Company (SWFI, n.d.)
Keva	Non-corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
Varma Mutual Pension Insurance Company	Non-corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)
Church Pension Fund	Non-corporate pension or superannuation or retirement or provident fund or plan (PRI, 2019)

5. Results

In order to make this thesis easier to read, the detailed results for each asset owner can be found in the Appendix of this paper. Moreover, all the sources of the individual data-points are also located in said Appendix. The data-points presented in this section have been compiled on a country- and overall market-level using the data gathered in the micro-level results.

5.1. Macro-Level Results

Assets under Management. The asset owners used for this analysis have combined assets of roughly 21 trillion SEK (tSEK) with 3,9 tSEK belonging to Swedish asset owners, 3,6 tSEK to Finnish asset owners, 10,8 tSEK to Norwegian asset owners, and 3 tSEK to Danish ones. The single most prominent asset owner is the Norwegian Pension Fund, which accounts for over 40% of the total assets.

Asset Allocation. The asset average allocation of the asset owners is approximately 48% equities, 39% fixed-income securities, 2% hedge funds, 1% in infrastructure, 7% in real estate, less than 1% in real assets, and 3% in other assets. Of the equities, about 77% are invested in listed equities while 23% are invested in private equities. Public fixed-income securities account for roughly 44% of total fixed-income securities, leaving 56% private fixed-income securities.

ESG Integration. Of the 31 asset owners analyzed 29 integrate ESG issues into their investment process. While no asset owners indicated that they do not integrate ESG issues into their respective process, the author was unable to find an answer for two asset owners. Furthermore, 22 asset owners, representing 71% of total asset owners, report that they conduct negative or exclusionary screenings as part of their investment process. Similarly, 24 asset owners, or 74%, report that they apply norms-based screenings, while ten asset owners (32%) say that they perform positive screening in their operations. Five asset owners, either reported

that they do not use ESG screening in their investment process or information about this metric, was unable to be identified. Of the Swedish asset owners, 55% conduct negative or exclusionary screening, 64% conduct norms-based screening, and 27% conduct positive screening. Three asset owners in Sweden do not conduct screenings. None of the Danish asset owners included in this study conduct positive screenings; however, 71% conduct negative or exclusionary screenings, while 57% conduct norms-based screenings. For two of the Danish asset owners, no information was found on this topic. Of the Finnish asset owners, 78% conduct norms-based screenings, 100% conduct negative or exclusionary screenings, and 56% include positive screenings in their process. Lastly, 100% of Norwegian asset owners conducted negative or exclusionary screenings, 75% conduct norms-based screening, while 50% conduct positive screenings.

Scenario Analysis. Of all the asset owners included in this study, 16% use scenario analyses to measure their portfolios impacts on the environment. 71% do not use this type of analysis, while the information was unobtainable for 13%. In Sweden, 27% of asset owners conduct a scenario analysis of their portfolios environmental impact. 0% of Norwegian, 14% of Danish, and 11% of Finnish asset owners use such a scenario analysis to measure the impact of their portfolios on the environment. Only one asset owner reports using scenario analysis to measure the impact of their portfolio on society, while no asset owner reported using scenario analyses for governance issues. For the last criteria, namely, if asset owners utilize scenario analysis to measure the impact of their portfolios on climate change, 45% of asset owners, reported that they did use said tool. In Sweden, 36% reported that they use this type of scenario analysis. 43% of Danish, 56% of Finnish, and 50% of Norwegian asset owners reported that they use scenario analyses pertaining to climate change.

Investment Guidelines. 90% of all asset owners report to having overall guidelines dictating how and what they are allowed to invest in. This number is 100% for Sweden,

Norway, and Finland, while 57% of Danish asset owners reported that they have such guidelines. When it comes to guidelines that specifically pertain to environmental considerations, 71% of asset owners reported that they use such guidelines. For Swedish asset owners, the number is 64% while in Denmark 43%, in Finland 89%, and in Norway, 100% of asset owners deploy environmental guidelines in their investment process. A majority of asset owners, specifically 61% have specific guidelines regarding societal issues. 64% of Swedish, 43% of Danish, 100% of Norwegian, and 56% of Finnish asset owners in this study had such guidelines. Similarly, for governance guidelines, 71% of asset owners reported having such guidelines. 73% of Swedish, 43% of Danish, 78% of Finnish, and 100% of Norwegian asset owners have separate governance-related investment guidelines in place.

Exclusion. Of all the asset owners included in this study, four either do not have an exclusion list or policy, or no information was available. Two of the four are located in Finland, while the other two are located in Denmark. Of the asset owners for which information was able to be gathered, 19 use international norm violations as reasons to exclude companies from their portfolio. Fourteen asset owners exclude entire sectors, 4 include individual companies' performance on ESG issues as a criterion, and two asset owners include the country of the portfolio companies as an indicator for exclusion.

Engagement. All asset owners that had public information on the topic of engagement available use active engagement to influence their portfolio companies, which accounts for 94% of all asset owners analyzed within this study. The engagement information was unavailable for two asset owners. 87% of the asset owners vote at the annual general meeting of their portfolio companies, while 94% actively seek a dialogue with their portfolio companies to improve their ESG performance. Moreover, 42% reported that they participate in the nomination committees of their portfolio companies and give their input on said nominees. In Sweden, 100% of asset owners seek dialogue, 91% vote, and 64% engage in the nomination

committee. Similarly, in Norway, 100% of asset owners seek dialogue, 100% vote, and 50% participate in nomination committees. Of the Finnish asset owners, 44% participate in the nomination committees, 100% seek dialogue, and 89% vote. Lastly, 71% of the Danish asset owners vote, 71% seek dialogue, and 0% are part of the nomination committees.

Sustainability Initiatives. Of the asset owners included in this study, 90% are signatories of the PRI. 100% of asset owners analyzed in Sweden and Finland are signatories, while 75% of the Norwegian and 71% of the Danish asset owners have signed the agreement. The Global Compact was signed by 42% of all asset owners. All Norwegian asset owners analyzed in this study signed this initiative. On the other hand, 11% of Finnish asset owners did the same. Swedish and Danish asset owners participated in the Global Compact at 45% and 43% respectively. Similarly, 52% of all asset owners are involved with the IIGCC initiative. The Danish asset owners have the highest percentage of involvement at 86%. 22% of Finnish asset owners and 25% of Norwegian asset owners are involved with the IIGCC. For the Swedish asset owners, the number is 64%.

71% of all asset owners analyzed in this study support the TCFD. Similarly, 71% of Danish asset owners did the same. 44% of Finnish, 75% of Norwegian, and 91% of Swedish asset owners support the TCFD. The Climate Action 100+ initiative counts 74% of the asset owners analyzed as investors. Of the Danish asset owners, 86% are classified as investors of Climate Action 100+. Similarly, 78% of Finnish and 73% of Swedish asset owners did the same as their Danish counterparts. Lastly, 50% of Norwegian asset owners invested in the Climate Action 100+ initiative. The CDP has secured the involvement of 87% of all asset owners assessed in this thesis. The lowest involvement can be identified with the Danish asset owners at 71% while the highest involvement can be identified in Norway at 100%. Swedish and Finnish asset holders were involved at 91% and 89% respectively.

UN Sustainable Development Goals. Of all the asset owners analyzed, 68% endorsed or otherwise pledged their support for the SDGs. No asset holder explicitly disavowed the SDGs; however, for 32% of asset owners, no specific mention regarding the SDG's could be found. While Swedish and Norwegian asset holders all endorsed the SDGs, only 22% of Finnish and 57% of Danish asset owners did the same.

The most targeted SDG was number 13. Climate Action, with 45% of all asset owners analyzed specifically targeting this goal. SDG number 5. Gender Equality and 8. Decent Work and Economic Growth were both the second most targeted SDGs at 32%. SDGs number 11. Sustainable Cities and Communities, 12. Responsible Consumption and Production, and 7. Affordable Clean Energy, were all targeted between 20% to 30% (29%, 26%, 23%). Both SDG number 3. Good Health and Wellbeing, and number 6. Clean Water and Sanitation were targeted by 13% of all asset owners while targeting number 17. Partnerships to achieve the Goals was targeted by 10%. SDG number 16. Peace and Justice were specifically targeted by 6% of all asset holders while the rest of the SDGs were targeted by less than 3% of asset owners.

6. Discussion

The results of this study indicate that a significant majority of the asset owners analyzed include sustainability and ESG concerns in their respective processes. Virtually all asset owners have some form of investment guidelines that they follow. Furthermore, a significant majority of asset owners have specific guidelines on environmental and governance issues, while a majority also have guidelines for social issues. While this study did not assess the content of these guidelines, their existence suggests that these asset owners at least consider ESG issues in their investment processes. The results suggest that the asset owners analyzed in this thesis generally utilized negative and norms-based screenings to identify non-conformities with their guidelines. A minority of asset owners also utilized positive screening to ascertain investments with the best ESG performances. Similar to the analysis of the guidelines, this thesis merely analyzed whether these screening practices are utilized by the asset owners. Every asset owner likely has a different standard pertaining to what is included in negative screenings as well as what might be included in terms of different norms in their norms-based screening practices.

If a non-compliant investment is identified, the asset owners usually give the flagged organizations a chance to change their behavior. The asset owners tend to use dialogue in order to push the investment's management into compliance. Virtually all of the Nordic asset owners analyzed in this thesis have an active management style with a vast majority voting in the annual general meetings of their investments as well as seeking dialogue with the management of their investments, which pushes them to improve their ESG performance. A minority of asset owners also participate in the nomination committees of their investments.

Some clear topics emerge from the data analysis. One of these topics is a trend regarding the focus of the asset owners concerning ESG issues. There seems to be a clear focus on environmental issues over other ESG topics. Specifically, asset owners tend to prioritize climate

action and climate-related issues. Moreover, when looking at the most targeted SDGs, it is evident that most of these SDGs are somewhat related to climate action. The SDGs pertaining to climate action, responsible consumption and production, sustainable cities and communities, and affordable clean energy, are within the top six, meaning that four out of the six most targeted SDGs are climate-related. Moreover, of the four possible scenario analyses included as a criterion in this thesis, the climate scenario analysis is the most predominant by a factor of three, followed by environmental scenario analysis in second place. This finding also points to climate action being the prevalent ESG issue in the investment process of Nordic asset owners.

The focus on climate action established above is arguably not surprising as climate change and climate action are some of the most pressing and widespread issues currently in the public discourse. Correspondingly, society is similarly vocal about the other two SDGs within the top six, which are gender equality, and decent work and economic growth. Thus, judging from the results of this thesis it seems as if societal opinions and views play a significant role in how big institutional asset owners choose to invest, which is a reflection of the power of public opinion. This finding in itself is important as it means that society has the power to influence the investment focus of the largest institutional asset holders. As stated before, the 31 asset owners analyzed in this thesis alone have roughly 21 trillion SEK in assets under management. Therefore, these asset owners arguably have a significant influence on their investments, and the vast amount of assets available to them mean that they are able to promote and build entire sectors. Since the vast majority of large Nordic institutional asset holders have an active management style, their influence is even greater. Moreover, as these asset owners have the ability to change the operations of their respective investments through active ownership, the influence of public opinion on these asset owners becomes even more impactful.

The results show that, next to bad ESG performance, another prevalent reason for the target asset owners to exclude companies is international norms violations. This finding

suggests that the big institutional asset owners within the Nordic region are influenced by the standards set by organizations like the United Nations, showing the importance of international agreements and treaties. This finding is also supported by the results pertaining to sustainability and transparency initiatives. Five out of six initiatives examined in this thesis had majority support by the asset owners, four of which had significant majority support. Furthermore, many of these initiatives and treaties are relatively new, making the level of support even more telling. Society arguably has a significant impact on the positions their governments aim to push and include in such international agreements and, thus, societal pressures also indirectly influence the way big institutional investors in the Nordic are invested.

Lastly, when examining the motivation spectrum discussed in the theoretical background section of this thesis, the Nordic large institutional asset owners would be located somewhere between ESG investing and SRI investing. This outcome is evident as the main types of screening conducted were negative (exclusionary) screening and norms-based screening, which means that most asset owners follow the approach of reducing the impact of their portfolio. About a third of asset owners also included positive screening to identify the investment opportunities with best-in-class ESG performance. This screening practice would suggest that they follow an ESG investing process. Hence, the Nordic market is located in-between ESG and SRI investing with a tendency to be closer to SRI investing.

Limitations. There are some limitations to this study that restricted the depth of the conclusions and findings. For one, the author was unable to establish a definite ‘yes’ or ‘no’ answer for each data point and asset owner. For example, if information is available about guidelines, it usually means that the asset owners have and utilize such guidelines. The absence of that information might imply that these guidelines either do not exist or are not used; however, without a clear statement by the asset owner that these guidelines do not exist, the author was unable to say with certainty that the asset owner does not use such guidelines.

Therefore, in cases where there was no information available, the author had to assume the guidelines did not exist. For example, if an asset owner stated that they use negative and norms-based screening in their process but did not mention anything about positive screening, the author inferred that positive screening is not being used.

This assumption was mainly used in the macro-level results and conclusions, while in the individual results, missing data-points were classified as not applicable (N/A). The sample is a second limitation to this thesis. Although the sample was chosen in collaboration with the commissioning organization, which has expertise in this field, the sample included only 31 asset owners and is not representative of the entire market. This limitation was mainly due to the restriction in time and resources, as finding data for each category is significantly time intensive.

Recommendations. There is a plethora of future research that can be conducted on the topic of ESG implementation. Some suggestions are to conduct a more detailed analysis of some of the topics addressed in this thesis. For example, the investment guidelines of the asset owners could be further dissected to assess their content, specificity, and consistency. Similarly, more research could be conducted to analyze the exact implementation of the screening practices utilized by the asset owners regarding how much of the portfolio is screened, how rigorous the screening practices are, and if adverse ESG impact is entirely avoided using these practices. Furthermore, future research could focus on the influence these asset owners have to change the ESG performance of their investment and excluded investments. It would be interesting to see if and how companies change once multiple asset owners have blacklisted them.

As discussed above, this study aimed to establish if asset owners integrated ESG concerns into their business practices. However, the intent or motivation of the asset owners was not analyzed. Thus, further studies could analyze the motivations behind the investments

of the asset owners, which would additionally aid in more accurately placing said asset owners on the motivation spectrum. Future studies could also give more insight into the various processes that the asset owners have in different asset classes. For example, some asset owners might only use ESG integration for equity investments and exclude them for other asset types. It could additionally be interesting for future research to assess the correlation and potential causation between societal opinions and the issues that large institutional asset owners prioritize with their investments.

7. Conclusions

This thesis aimed to analyze how large institutional asset owners in the Nordics integrate ESG issues into their investment processes. The following primary research question was stated:

How do large institutional asset owners in the Nordic region integrate sustainability and ESG issues into their portfolio and investment operations?

This study found that the majority of large institutional asset owners in the Nordics incorporate ESG issues into their investment processes. These asset owners do this by having overall guidelines but also guidelines pertaining specifically to environmental, governance, and to a lesser extent, social issues. These guidelines are generally checked by using norms-based and negative screening, with a minority including positive screening in the process. Non-compliance is dealt with by the asset owners by excluding these investments from their portfolios. Additionally, entire sectors are excluded. Hence, the ESG process of the target asset owners generally follows the pattern of establishing guidelines, screening for these guidelines, and excluding investments that do not comply. The asset owners use an active management style that primarily includes voting and dialogue. Moreover, the large institutional asset owners' priority for sustainability issues lies in climate change and climate action.

This thesis also ventured to categorize the overall Nordic large institutional asset owner space. Which led to the following secondary research question:

Where on the investment motivation spectrum is the Nordic large institutional asset owner market most likely to be found?

The Nordic large institutional asset owners are located between ESG investing and SRI, leaning towards SRI based on the findings that only a minority utilized positive screening practices while a majority utilized negative screening practices.

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9. Appendix

9.1. Micro-level Results

9.1.1. General Information & Asset Class Mix

Country	Investor	AMU		EM%		Asset Class Mix											
		bnSEK	Source		Source	Total Equity	Listed Equity	Private Equity	Total FI	Public FI	Private FI	HF	Infra.	RE	RA	Other	Source
Sweden	AP1	333	(PRI, 2019)	46%	(PRI, 2019)	39%	33%	6%	34%	14%	20%	5%	4%	14%	0%	4%	(AP1, 2019)
Sweden	AP2	346	(PRI, 2019)	17%	(AP2, 2019)	49%	44%	5%	N/A	38%	N/A	0%	0%	11%	2%	0%	(AP2, 2019)
Sweden	AP3	345	(PRI, 2019)	25%	(PRI, 2019)	42%	38%	4%	37%	25%	12%	2%	5%	13%	2%	0%	(AP3, 2019)
Sweden	AP4	357	(PRI, 2019)	16%	(AP4, 2019)	64%	54%	10%	34%	18%	16%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0%	(AP4, 2019)
Sweden	AP6	32	(PRI, 2019)	64%	(PRI, 2019)	70%	0%	70%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	30%	(PRI, 2019)
Sweden	AP7	431	(PRI, 2019)	91%	(PRI, 2019)	94%	91%	3%	3%	3%	0%	3%	0%	0%	0%	0%	(AP7, 2018; PRI, 2019)
Sweden	Alecta	830	(PRI, 2019)	2%	(PRI, 2019)	42%	42%	0%	50%	24%	26%	0%	0%	8%	0%	1%	(PRI, 2019)
Sweden	AMF	569	(PRI, 2019)	1%	(PRI, 2019)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	
Sweden	SEB	650	(PRI, 2019)	<20%	(PRI, 2019)	51%	N/A	N/A	40%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	(SEB Life and Pension, 2019)
Sweden	Swedfund	6	(Swedfund, 2018)	31%	(PRI, 2019)	54%	0%	54%	46%	N/A	N/A	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	(PRI, 2019)
Sweden	Church Sweden	8	(PRI, 2019)	100%	(PRI, 2019)	58%	58%	0%	25%	20%	5%	0%	0%	7%	0%	10%	(PRI, 2019)
Denmark	PKA	360	(PRI, 2019)	50%	(Rundell, 2016)	41%	39%	2%	57%	30%	27%	0%	0%	1%	0%	1%	(PKA, 2018)
Denmark	PensionDanmark	340	(PensionDanmark, 2019a)	30%	(PensionDanmark, 2019b)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	

Denmark	Laerernes	145	(Lærernes, 2019)	N/A		44%	42%	2%	46%	6%	40%	0%	2%	5%	3%	0%	(Lærernes, 2019)
Denmark	PFA	688	(PRI, 2019)	10%	(Moreolo, 2016)	22%	22%		54%	38%	17%	N/A	N/A	11%	N/A	3%	(PFA, 2019)
Denmark	ATP	1 107	(PRI, 2019)	<30%		N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	
Denmark	JØP/DIP	173	(PRI, 2019)	N/A		N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	
Denmark	PenSam	180	(PenSam, 2019)	N/A		N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	
Norway	Government Pension	9 338	(PRI, 2019)	<10%	(PRI, 2019)	69%	69%	0%	28%	19%	9%	0%	0%	3%	0%	0%	(Norges Bank Investment Management, 2019)
Norway	DNB	664	(PRI, 2019)	0%		N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	
Norway	Gjensidige	58	(Gjensidige, 2019)	Majority	(Gjensidige, 2019)	8%	5%	3%	65%	14%	51%	0%	0%	9%	0%	12%	(Gjensidige, 2019)
Norway	Storebrand	778	(Storebrand, 2019)	<20%		46%	43%	3%	45%	10%	35%	0%	0%	9%	0%	0%	(Storebrand, 2019)
Finland	Veritas	32	(PRI, 2019)	N/A		38%	32%	6%	41%	N/A	N/A	5%	0%	12%	0%	3%	(Veritas, 2018)
Finland	Ilmarinen	431	(PRI, 2019)	N/A		43%	33%	10%	38%	27%	11%	4%	0%	13%	0%	2%	(Ilmarinen, 2019)
Finland	Elo	259	(PRI, 2019)	N/A		41%	30%	11%	37%	14%	23%	8%	0%	13%	0%	0%	(Elo, 2019a)
Finland	OP	1 507	(OP, 2019a)	N/A		10%	8%	2%	77%	15%	62%	1%	0%	8%	0%	4%	(OP, 2019a)
Finland	VER	200	(VER, 2019)	64%	(PRI, 2019)	47%	42%	5%	39%	8%	31%	4%	2%	3%	0%	5%	(VER, 2019)
Finland	LocalTapiola	118	(PRI, 2019)	30%	(PRI, 2019)	24%	9%	15%	N/A	N/A	N/A	0%	0%	18%	0%	1%	(LocalTapiola, 2019)
Finland	Keva	561	(PRI, 2019)	N/A		44%	35%	9%	42%	14%	28%	8%	7%	0%	0%	0%	(Keva, 2019)
Finland	Varma	485	(PRI, 2019)	N/A		41%	31%	10%	N/A	N/A	N/A	20%	0%	9%	0%	0%	
Finland	Church Finland	22	(PRI, 2019)	96%	(PRI, 2019)	48%	43%	5%	N/A	N/A	N/A	1%	0%	12%	0%	5%	(PRI, 2019)

9.1.2. Sustainability Policy

Country	Investor	ESG	Screening	Scenario Analyses				Guidelines				Exclusion	Source
				Environ- ment	Social	Gover- nance	Climate	Overall	Environ- ment	Social	Gover- nance		
Sweden	AP1	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Norms-based	(PRI, 2019), (AP Funds, 2019)
Sweden	AP2	Yes	Norms-based screening	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Norms-based	(PRI, 2019), (AP Funds, 2019)
Sweden	AP3	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Positive/best-in-class screening	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Norms-based	(PRI, 2019), (AP Funds, 2019)
Sweden	AP4	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Norms-based	(PRI, 2019), (AP Funds, 2019)
Sweden	AP6	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Company-based	(PRI, 2019), (AP6, 2018)
Sweden	AP7	Yes	Norms-based screening	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	Norms-based	(PRI, 2019), (AP7, 2018)
Sweden	Alecta	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	Norms-based	(PRI, 2019), (Alecta, 2016)
Sweden	AMF	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Positive/best-in-class screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Norms-based	(PRI, 2019)
Sweden	SEB	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Positive/best-in-class screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Norms and Sector-based	(PRI, 2019), (SEB Group, n.d.)

Sweden	Swedfund	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Norms and Sector-based	(PRI, 2019)
Sweden	Church Sweden	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Sector-based	(PRI, 2019), (Church of Sweden, 2014)
Denmark	PKA	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Norms and Sector-based	(PRI, 2019), (PKA, n.d.)
Denmark	PensionDanmark	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Norms-based screening	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Norms-based	(PensionDanmark, n.d.)
Denmark	Laerernes	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	
Denmark	PFA	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Norms-based screening	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Norms, Sector, and Country-based	(PRI, 2019), (PFA, n.d.)
Denmark	ATP	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Norms-based	(PRI, 2019), (ATP, 2019)
Denmark	JØP/DIP	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Norms, Sector, and Country-based	(PRI, 2019), (P+ (DIP/JOEP), 2018)
Denmark	PenSam	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	
Norway	Government Pension	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Sector and Company-based	(PRI, 2019), (Norges Bank Investment Management, 2019)
Norway	DNB	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Positive/best-in-class screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Norms and Sector-based	(PRI, 2019)

Norway	Gjensidige	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Company-specific	(Gjensidige, 2019)
Norway	Storebrand	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Positive/best-in-class screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Sector and Norm-based	(PRI, 2019)
Finland	Veritas	Yes	Positive/best-in-class screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	(PRI, 2019)
Finland	Ilmarinen	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Positive/best-in-class screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Company-specific	(PRI, 2019),
Finland	Elo	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Positive/best-in-class screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Sector	(PRI, 2019)
Finland	OP	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Positive/best-in-class screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Sector and Norm-based	(PRI, 2019)
Finland	VER	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Positive/best-in-class screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes (not specified)	(PRI, 2019)
Finland	LocalTapiola	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Sector and Norm	(PRI, 2019)
Finland	Keva	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Norms-based screening	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	N/A	(PRI, 2019)
Finland	Varma	Yes	Negative/exclusionary screening, Norms-based screening	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Sector and Norm	(PRI, 2019)
Finland	Church Finland	Yes	Norm-based screening	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Sector	(PRI, 2019)

9.1.3. Engagement & Sustainability Initiatives

		Engagement					Sust. Initiatives						
Country	Investor	Type	Voting	Nomination	Dialogue	Source	PRI	Global Compact	IIGCC	TCFD	Climate Action 100+	CDP	Source
Sweden	AP1	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(AP1, 2019)	Signatory		Member	Supporter	Investor	Signatory	
Sweden	AP2	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(AP2, 2019)	Signatory		Member	Supporter	Investor	Signatory	
Sweden	AP3	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(AP3, 2019)	Signatory		Member	Supporter	Investor	Signatory	
Sweden	AP4	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(AP4, 2019)	Signatory		Member	Supporter	Investor	Signatory	
Sweden	AP6	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes	(PRI, 2019)	Signatory	Signatory		Supporter		Signatory	(PRI, 2019),
Sweden	AP7	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes	(AP7, 2018)	Signatory		Member	Supporter	Investor	Signatory	(UNGC, n.d.)
Sweden	Alecta	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Alecta, 2019)	Signatory	Signatory		Supporter	Investor	Signatory	(IIGCC, n.d.),
Sweden	AMF	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(AMF, 2018)	Signatory	Signatory		Supporter		Signatory	(TCFD, n.d.),
Sweden	SEB	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(PRI, 2019)	Signatory	Signatory	Member	Supporter	Investor	Signatory	(Climate Action 100+, n.d.),
Sweden	Swedfund	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes		Signatory	Signatory					(CDP, 2019)
Sweden	Church Sweden	Active	No	No	Yes	(Church of Sweden, 2014)	Signatory		Member	Supporter	Investor	Signatory	
Denmark	PKA	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes	(PKA, n.d.)	Signatory		Member	Supporter	Investor	Signatory	
Denmark	PensionDanmark	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes	(PensionDanmark, 2019b)		Participant	Member	Supporter	Investor	Signatory	
Denmark	Laerernes	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A								

Denmark	PFA	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes	(PFA, n.d.)	Signatory	Signatory	Member		Investor	Member	
Denmark	ATP	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes	(ATP, 2019)	Signatory	Signatory	Member	Supporter	Investor	Signatory	
Denmark	JØP/DIP	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes	(P+ (DIP/JOEP), 2018)	Signatory		Member	Supporter	Investor	Signatory	
Denmark	PenSam	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A		Signatory		Member	Supporter	Investor		
Norway	Government Pension	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Norges Bank Investment Management, 2019)	Signatory	Signatory	Member	Supporter		Member (Norges bank invest)	
Norway	DNB	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes	(PRI, 2019)	Signatory	Signatory		Supporter	Investor	Signatory	(PRI, 2019),
Norway	Gjensidige	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes	(Gjensidige, 2019)		Signatory				Signatory	(UNGC, n.d.)
Norway	Storebrand	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(PRI, 2019)	Signatory	Signatory		Supporter	Investor	Signatory	(IIGCC, n.d.),
Finland	Veritas	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(PRI, 2019)	Signatory				Investor	Member	(TCFD, n.d.),
Finland	Ilmarinen	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Ilmarinen, 2019)	Signatory			Supporter	Investor	Signatory	(Climate Action 100+, n.d.),
Finland	Elo	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(PRI, 2019)	Signatory		Member	Supporter	Investor	Signatory	(CDP, 2019)
Finland	OP	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes	(PRI, 2019)	Signatory	Signatory			Investor	Signatory	
Finland	VER	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes		Signatory						
Finland	LocalTapiola	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes	(PRI, 2019)	Signatory			Supporter	Investor	Signatory	
Finland	Keva	Active	N/A	N/A	Yes	(PRI, 2019)	Signatory		Member		Investor	Member	
Finland	Varma	Active	Yes	Yes	Yes	(Varma, 2017)	Signatory			Supporter	Investor	Signatory	
Finland	Church Finland	Active	Yes	N/A	Yes	(PRI, 2019)	Signatory					Signatory	

9.1.4. Sustainable Development Goals

Country	Investor	Sustainable Development Goals																	Source			
		Endorsed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16		17		
Sweden	AP1	Yes																			(AP1, 2019)	
Sweden	AP2	Yes																				(AP2, 2019)
Sweden	AP3	Yes																				(AP3, 2019)
Sweden	AP4	Yes						T		T			T		T							(AP4, 2019)
Sweden	AP6	Yes						T						T	T							(UNGC, 2019a)
Sweden	AP7	Yes																				(AP7, 2018)
Sweden	Alecta	Yes						T		T	T		T	T	T					T		(UNGC, 2018)
Sweden	AMF	Yes						T		T					T							(UNGC, 2019b)
Sweden	SEB	Yes								T	T				T					T		(SEB Group, 2018)
Sweden	Swedfund	Yes	T					T		T	T				T	T				T	T	(Swedfund, 2018)
Sweden	Church Sweden	Yes							T					T		T						(Church of Sweden, 2018)
Denmark	PKA	Yes						T	T	T	T	T		T	T							(PKA, n.d.)
Denmark	PensionDanmark	Yes																				(PensionDanmark, 2019b)
Denmark	Laerernes	N/A																				
Denmark	PFA	Yes				T				T					T	T					T	(PFA, 2017)

Denmark	ATP	Yes			T		T				T		T		T		(ATP, 2019)	
Denmark	JØP/DIP	N/A																
Denmark	PenSam	N/A																
Norway	Government Pension	Yes					T		T				T		T		T	(Norges Bank Investment Management, 2018)
Norway	DNB	Yes					T						T					(DNB, 2019)
Norway	Gjensidige	Yes							T						T			(Gjensidige, 2019)
Norway	Storebrand	Yes					T						T		T		T	(Storebrand, 2019)
Finland	Veritas	N/A																
Finland	Ilmarinen	N/A																
Finland	Elo	Yes													T			(Elo, 2019b)
Finland	OP	Yes							T				T		T		T	(OP, 2019b)
Finland	VER	N/A																
Finland	LocalTapiola	N/A																
Finland	Keva	N/A																
Finland	Varma	N/A																
Finland	Church Finland	N/A																