

On the Beer Wagon:

The past, present and future of Celtic Craft Brewing and its Policies

Abstract

This paper examines the potential of the craft beer sector as a regional development lever. Focusing on three culturally linked but politically distinct small nations, Wales, Scotland and Ireland, it takes a historical journey from the inception of this sector to present day. Discussion focuses on highlighting the complex interactions between brewing, society, policy and economy. We review current policy and sectoral realities for our Celtic context and propose a grounded and holistic vision of regional craft brewing policies, particularly around more circular and zero-waste ecosystems.

Introduction

Craft brewing has increasingly been positioned as an anchor sector, for both urban and rural regional socio-economic development (Bowen and Miller, 2022; Feeney, 2017; Garavaglia and Borgoni, 2022; Mount and Cabras, 2015; Reid, 2018, Reid and Gatrell, 2016). As well as providing a convivial ethos for community development, craft breweries are acknowledged to generate specialist tourism, and wider skills, social employment and community development: “local, independent breweries strengthen local economies, promote sustainable development, and strengthen social history” (Feeney, 2017, pp.1). Brewing, then, authentically comprises a geographically widespread but highly diverse nexus of production, consumption, nutrition, differentiation, wellbeing and social lubricant, over deep time.

Craft brewing’s dual appeal lies in it being “simultaneously high-growth and yet with an artisanal folk ethos that is almost archetypal, and consciously so” (Dodd et al., 2021; Dodd et al., 2018). Characteristically the sector is also seen to have benefits for “its role in local economic development, the promotion of local identity, and its innovative approach to business operation based on human connection and community support” (WEALL, Nov 2021). Craft brewing “holds in balance both an innovative high growth ambition, held collectively, and a firm enactment of frugal, circular, local, foundational, pro-social and everyday entrepreneurship” (Dodd et al., 2021).

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3 In both spatial and societal terms, (craft) breweries offer a strong context for transdisciplinary
4 analysis in regional policy making (Argent 2018; Cabras and Regiani, 2010; Cabras et al.,
5 2020; Ellis and Bosworth, 2015; Gattrell et al., 2018; Sjolander-Lindqvist et al., 2020). They
6 are implicated, throughout human settled history, at national, regional and local level, in policy
7 arenas as apparently diverse as food and drink, agriculture, tourism, health and wellbeing, art
8 and culture, environmental sustainability, export marketing, place branding, gender, and craft
9 entrepreneurship (Bowen and Miller, 2022; Garavaglia and Borgoni, 2022; Garavaglia, 2018;
10 Reid and Gattrell, 2017). This may also explain why the sector's intense institutional regulation
11 of brewing has persisted too, for nearly 4 more than 7,000 years (Poelmans and Swinnen,
12 2012). It could shed light, too, on why this regulation has come to be so siloed in nature,
13 relatively narrow in scope, and centrally conceived (Cabras and Bamforth, 2016; Cabras and
14 Higgins, 2016; Dodd et al, 2018¹). And yet brewing remains, as it has been quite literally
15 throughout human history, very heavily circumscribed by centralised and fragmented
16 regulations, institutional constraints, and societal norms (Argent, 2018, Danson et al, 2015;
17 Tremblay et al, 2005; Cabras and Bamforth, 2016; Woolverton and Parcell, 2008).

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31 The craft brewery industry is affected significantly by the current fragility of recovering
32 regions, already bruised by a decade of austerity. This fast-growing and socially significant
33 challenger segment was severely threatened by the existential threat posed by Covid-19. At the
34 height of the UK's Spring 2020 lockdown, the industry estimated its sales to have fallen by
35 82%. Fully 65% of craft brewers had entirely ceased production, with another 30%
36 significantly cutting output. More than half were struggling to access any government support,
37 and nearly a third predicted job loss (SIBA, 17th April 2020). Dependence on pubs, especially,
38 as well as tourism and catering more widely, meant an immediate cessation of sales. However,
39 70% had responded with novel distribution channels, though developing new online services,
40 or local delivery services, now offered by 60% of the (SIBA) sample. The widespread
41 destruction of the sector predicted in the pandemic's early stages has not, then, come to pass.
42 Indeed, the sector appears to have become still more celebrated as a potential panacea for
43 regional development.

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57 ¹ Population ecologists, for example, consider craft brewing as an inherently peripheral sector, which
58 exploits those resource-scarce spaces overlooked by the centre, and its large-scale generalists
59 (Clemons et al, 2007, 152; Elzinga et al, 2015, 724; Carroll and Swaminathan, 2000; Carroll, 1985;
60 Argent, 2018, 3; Cabras and Bamforth, 2016, 626-628).

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3 Here, we carry out an exploration of the relationship between (craft) brewing and socio-
4 economic development, though time, for three culturally linked (but politically distinct) small
5 nations. Scotland, Ireland and Wales share various complex histories, including their Celtic
6 roots, yet diverge in important ways, as we shall see (not least in terms of their relationship
7 with the UK and the EU). Our aim is to take a holistic overview of craft brewing as a regional
8 development lever of considerable heritage and potential, analysing current policy and sectoral
9 landscapes against their historical backdrops, using the Celtic context as a focus for this study.
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17 Whilst craft brewing has been shown to generate value of various kinds – from employment
18 and innovation, to community-building - there must surely be areas even the finest brew cannot
19 reach, and possible consequences of a less benign nature that require articulation. As well as
20 highlighting what this promising sector can deliver, then, to equitable regional development,
21 this study also strives to rigorously draw attention to the challenges, limitations and drawbacks
22 of jumping blindly on the beer-wagon.
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29 Our paper builds on the extensive and growing scholarly literature on craft brewing, as well as
30 more historical material. It builds on the growing scholarly interest in the importance of this
31 sector in the regional studies field in particular, where there has been ~~particular~~ focus on
32 opportunities presented for local economic development and renewal; the impact on other
33 related industries such as tourism; and development of rural areas in particular (Argent, 2018;
34 Cabras and Regiani, 2010; Cabras et al., 2020; Garavaglia and Borgoni, 2022; Mount and
35 Cabras, 2015; Reid and Gatrell, 2017). It also adds to a growing literature in this sector focused
36 on the social ties of place and community and how craft breweries can be valuable place assets
37 fostering a ‘social terroir’, a social or historical connection to place (Bowen and Miller, 2022;
38 Eades et al., 2017; Gatrell et al., 2018; Hede and Watne, 2013; Melewar and Skinner, 2020;
39 Sjolander-Lindqvist et al., 2020).
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50 It is the outcome of a two-year period of interactions, debate, joint study, and analytic
51 experimentation within (and beyond) a team of 8 scholars from 3 Celtic countries. As well as
52 a sectoral specialism in craft brewing, we created a transdisciplinary team with very wide-
53 ranging and complementary expertise. The team comprises engaged scholars with applied
54 knowledge from many relevant fields: operations and production management, distribution
55 systems, marketing, rural development, farm diversification, theology of the land, start-up and
56 growth funding models, craft branding, architecture, small firm financing, planning, local
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3 enterprise networks, regional economic geography, and, of course, for each of us, policy. This
4 paper is a thought experiment, a critical re-reading of the regional development potential of
5 craft brewing through the lens of the Celtic context.
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10 We begin by journeying through the beer history of Wales, Ireland and Scotland, highlighting
11 the complex interactions between brewing, society, policy and economy. Arriving in the
12 present, we review current policy and sectoral realities for our Celtic context. After setting out
13 the narrative section of the essay, we then consider the implications of these narratives, in a
14 critical and summative synthesis. This synthesis allows us to propose a more grounded and
15 holistic vision of regional craft brewing policies, particularly around more circular and zero-
16 waste ecosystems.
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24 Without better understanding our past, we hamper attempts to build our futures. More
25 importantly still, given the *global* nature of the policy challenges we address here, there are
26 many parts of the world where ancient, artisanal, ritual and subsistence brewing and beer
27 consumption practices remain undisturbed by industrialisation. In the non-vinous world, too,
28 beer remains as implicated in some local religion and ritual as wine is now for the Christian
29 communion; just as in the Celtic past. This paper proceeds by an exploration of the role of beer
30 and brewing in socio-economic, regional and industrial development. We then delve in
31 increasing detail into the specific linked but distinct brewing sectors of Wales, Scotland and
32 Ireland. This also serves to explain the relevance and suitability of the countries for the
33 exploration, setting them into deeper context, and revealing historical challenges and
34 opportunities, as well as regional beer heritage.
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46 **Regional Socio-Economic Development and Brewing in Wales, Scotland and Ireland**

47 *Beer, Early Society, and History*

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49 Beer is a complex drink, with impacts upon human development and wellbeing across a range
50 of interlinked policy and theory arenas: health, religion, employment, consumer protection,
51 inequalities, nutrition, water provision, innovation, tourism, terroir, agriculture, skills
52 development, traditional cultures, and enjoyment. It therefore offers unique potential to policy
53 makers, particularly at the level of small nation state, or of region. To build our case, we turn
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3 to history to illustrate the persistently diverse and complex political economy of beer and
4 brewing.
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8 Like other mind-altering foods and beverages, beer “under controlled circumstance...can
9 provide a cultural and social advantage”, supporting ritual, religion, rite and social regulation
10 (Katz and Voigt, 1986). We tend, though, to forget that “beer would also have had an enormous
11 *biological* advantage” to the earliest brewing communities, too (our emphasis). As well as
12 purifying water, brewing “enhanced the nutritional quality of an already available food to a
13 level almost comparable to that of meat”. These attributes, as well as taste and pleasure, have
14 led some scholars to argue that it was in fact brewing that first led the drive to agriculture,
15 settlement and socio-economic development, rather than baking (Katz and Voigt, 1986; Cabras
16 and Higgins, 2016, pp.611).
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25 The very first “recipe” in archaeological records is for beer, from Sumer, in Mesopotamia,
26 dated to around 6000 BCE (see, for example, O’Gorman, 2009, Nelson, 2005, pp.9). The
27 brewer in this case was the god, Enki, and a second recipe is also found in a hymn to the
28 Sumerian goddess of brewing, Ninkasi (Katz and Voigt, 1986). Grain and beer produced by
29 Mesopotamia’s settlers were traded for more exotic and rarer goods, so that excess brewing
30 capacity fostered trade developments too (Poelman and Swinnen, 2016; Rabin and Forget
31 1998). Beer rations, of about a litre a day, later appear on the first civic “pay checks”, cuneiform
32 clay tablets from Uruk, paid to their attached labourers by palaces and temples. Inns, always a
33 special place for beer and brewing, likewise facilitated travel, trade, pilgrimages - what would
34 become tourism - and are gloriously celebrated in Sumerian drinking songs (Katz and Voigt,
35 1986). Also from (later, Babylonian) Mesopotamia, Hammurabi’s Hammurabi’s legal code -
36 again, the first written evidence of its genre, from about 17580 BCE - set the tone for future
37 relations between brewing and the state, with very precise stipulations as to brewers’ gender
38 (female) as well as beer quality and purity (Dodd et al., 2018, pp.639). Not surprisingly, given
39 all of these ways in which beer was woven deeply into the fabric of emergent society, its
40 production and consumption also marked social boundaries.
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54 Unlike the (apparently) egalitarian hunter-gathering lifestyle, “with the spread of agriculture,
55 social differentiation and hereditary inequality eventually became correlated with political and
56 ideological complexity” (Budd et al., 2020). Settlement, then, brings the first context where we
57 find socio-economic inequalities, and the civic administration that can create, perpetuate,
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3 entrench, diminish, or uproot these. For our areas of interest, and our wider narrative, this is of
4 crucial importance, since it appears that beer consumption was an early indicator of status. The
5 roots of European settlement and farming were also the beginnings of food inequality, which
6 is predicated upon wider socio-economic divisions, and perpetuates these through generations.
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8 New evidence makes clear that “food production factors drove such very early evidence of
9 socio-economic and dietary inequality”, (Budd et al., 2020, pp.932).
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15 Beer, that is, was always also a class marker, with both production and consumption
16 differentiated by status, and acting to reinforce these differentiations. Elite management of beer
17 and brewing has arguably long been a mechanism for the othering of the non-elite, also. In
18 contemporary times, in the modern West, beer is seen as a drink for the masses, and much craft
19 brewing growth centres around a rhetoric of “winification”, to directly address this. We note
20 here that the class and cultural role of beer and brewing has always been an integral element in
21 its use as a policy tool, albeit implicitly, and draw attention to these persistent examples from
22 the historical record.
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30 *The Early Celtic Context*

31 The Celtic edge of Europe is geographic, and geological, as well as cultural. Its coastlines have
32 long been famed for their gold (Ireland and Wales); silver (West Iberia), and the otherwise
33 elusive tin (Galicia, Brittany, Cornwall; Cunliffe, 2017, pp.53). The gulf stream made the
34 Atlantic coasts a rich fishing resource, too, and shellfish were an early and abundant seasonal
35 food source. With the setting sun as a western beacon over the sea, and cyclical experiences of
36 tidal patterns, a deep appreciation of time, seasonality, and the natural elements is evident in
37 such archaeological evidence as remains, from as early as the period between 5000 and 2000
38 BC (when Stonehenge was created: Cunliffe, 2017, pp.21). The sea, and voyaging, were to
39 remain a crucial an element of Celtic life, and provide the context within which Celtic beer and
40 brewing were first set. Feasting played a large role in the socialization of communities around
41 a hero-king figure (Nelson, 2005, pp.10-13). From 3000 BC there is evidence of brewing in
42 Scotland, with local flavourings (some frankly dangerous) like, “from around 2000 BC ...
43 mashed cereal straw, cereal-type pollen, meadowsweet, types of heather (including ling), and
44 royal fern” (Nelson, 2005, pp. 11-13). Other findings from Celtic and Pictish lands confirm
45 heather beverages were being brewed by the inhabitants of both Scotland and Ireland prior to
46 and after the arrival of the Romans in Britain (Scottish Brewing, no date). In Wales, the
47 retreating Celtic tribes were already well known for their brewing skills, and this reputation
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3 persevered. Saxon records from the 7th century onward, for example, mention “Welsh ale” (or
4 bragawd/bragot), a heavy brew laced with spices. It was as highly prized as another Celtic
5 drink, mead, made from fermented honey (Wales: craft beer and brewing, no date).
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10 From these early beginnings, brewing became dominated by first monasteries, then by women
11 within the domestic context, until commercial success led to women being pushed out of the
12 trade by 1700. The following century experienced large expansion and then consolidation with
13 urban breweries overwhelming rural enterprises. Lost too were local varieties and flavours as
14 railways, oligopoly powers and large city market demands advantaged the urban breweries.
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20 *Nineteenth and Twentieth Century: The Industrialisation of Brewing*

21 We have shown thus far that beer has been a very important element in humanity’s socio-
22 economic and cultural development, since its earliest origins. We have also highlighted ancient
23 Celtic and Pictish brewing practices, highly localised brews of importance for celebration,
24 socialisation, identity and nutrition. With the coming of modernity, however, these cultural and
25 localised meaning-systems for beer and brewing were subjected to institutional forces which
26 would raise a range of new challenges (and opportunities), many of which pertain to this day.
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34 Consider, for example, the impact of Victorian religious conservatism on the internationally
35 celebrated Welsh beer industry. Similar temperance patterns were also important in Scotland,
36 ironically enough often in the Western Isles, home to the 4000 year old brew described by
37 Nelson (above). Although today beer is still the national drink in Wales, the beer industry has
38 had to make its way into a society far more hostile to alcoholic drinks than neighbouring
39 England. In the late 19th century, Wales’ dominant non-conformist chapels were appalled by
40 public displays of drunkenness. The powerful anti-alcohol movement succeeded in establishing
41 the Welsh Sunday Closing Act in 1881, shutting pubs on Sundays; members of the movement
42 also pressed for prohibition.
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51 The country’s leading brewing centre, Wrexham, in northeast Wales—once known for its
52 strong ales—was largely shut down, though its pioneering lager brewery, Wrexham Lager,
53 continued producing until 2000. When founded in 1883, it had promoted its lager as a
54 temperance drink. Those that survived concentrated on brewing relatively low-alcohol beers.
55 Wales’ leading brewer today, Brains of Cardiff, chiefly brewed a mild, dark ale. “Dark”
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3 accounted for the bulk of its production until the 1980s. Stronger pale ales mainly came from
4 England, notably from Bass and Whitbread, which later took over many Welsh breweries.
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8 Thus we can see how socio-cultural movements opposing the consumption of alcohol served
9 to facilitate deep changes in Wales' brewing landscape, making space for larger English
10 competitors, and focusing on product ranges of lower alcohol beers.
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15 Alongside Brains, only the small brewery of Felinfoel survived this collapse in local Welsh
16 brewing (Wales: craft beer and brewing, no date). From the 18th century until the early 20th
17 century, Wales dominated world tinsplate production, peaking in the early 1890s when 80% of
18 world's tinsplate was produced in South Wales, (BBC: A history of the world, no date). In 1931
19 this very specific local resource, and canning knowledge associated with it, allowed the small
20 brewery at Felinfoel to become the first outside the USA to commercially can beer. Prior to
21 this time, beer was only available in barrels or glass bottles. From this time, lightweight tin
22 cans could be used without compromising on the taste or quality. Felinfoel Brewery was a
23 major supplier to British armed forces abroad in the Second World War. Such an advantage
24 enabled Felinfoel Brewery to source cans locally and grew considerably by pioneering canning
25 of beer in the UK.
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36 A similar story of consolidation, urbanisation and oligopolization of the brewing sector
37 occurred in Scotland during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. At its peak, in 1840 there
38 were 280 breweries in Scotland; mergers, acquisitions and closures precipitated decline so that
39 by 1900 brewing was primarily concentrated in large firms in Edinburgh, Glasgow and Alloa.
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45 As traditional Scottish styles of beers became less fashionable, these trends were exacerbated
46 so that by 1910 there were only 92 breweries reducing to 63 in 1920. Unlike in Wales, sales
47 were significant in home and international markets based on high quality and diverse types of
48 beers and ales, so that Edinburgh was recognised as "the world capital of ale-brewing" in the
49 nineteenth century (McLean, 2013), while Tennents of Glasgow was the largest exporter of
50 bottled beers in the world, for instance (Scottish Brewing Archive, no date).
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56 If a handful of major industrial brewers were to dominate Scotland's modern brewing scene,
57 in Ireland, of course, there could be only one. Like Wales and Scotland, at the beginning of the
58 19th century, there were over 200 breweries in Ireland. There was considerable consolidation
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3 during the 1800's, with the emergence of one brewer that was to come to predominate the Irish
4 brewing scene, Guinness. Like Scotland, export was a very important element in the production
5 of major brewing firms. Consumption trends are also notable: "The output of the Irish brewing
6 industry trebled between the 1850s and 1914, over 40% of which was exported, and that was
7 largely due to Guinness which at that time was the largest brewery in the world" (Ferriter,
8 2015: p. 4). Domestic consumption was also quite high and Ireland boasted over one and a half
9 times as many licensed premises per head of population than England and over two and a half
10 times as many pubs per capita as Scotland (ibid) – the sobering hand of temperance, and the
11 importation of "refined" modern tastes, did not reach across the Irish Sea. Beer drinking in
12 pubs remained at the nation's cultural heart, even if production had become massified in
13 Dublin's Guinness, at the expense of smaller, regional and rural breweries.
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24 At the turn of the 20th century, to be specific, there were approximately 36 breweries in Ireland.
25 The economic stagnation that followed independence resulted in many of the remaining smaller
26 breweries closing. Thus by 1920, the number of breweries had shrunk to 24, and by 1960 this
27 had decreased further to approximately 8² breweries in the Republic of Ireland (European beer
28 guide, no date). Let us reiterate that, as a clear indication of the consolidating trend which
29 impacted all three countries: in 1800, there were more than 200 breweries in Ireland. By 1960,
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38 Thus it remained for the greater part of 40 years, and of the eight breweries in existence in
39 1960, most were eventually owned by three large breweries, dominated predominantly by
40 Guinness, which became the largest brewery in the world. The number of breweries remained
41 at approximately seven or eight up until the mid-nineties when the number of independent
42 microbreweries started to grow significantly. Although lagging the craft movements of the US,
43 the UK and other more developed markets, there was a very significant growth in the craft
44 brewing sector from the mid-1990s onwards. Exporting continued to be important for the Irish
45 brewing industry, following an established pattern. Yet domestic consumption was equally
46 significant, reflected in a high level of alcoholism by 1971 over 11% of total consumer
47 spending was accounted for by alcoholic drink. Between 1986 and 2000, there was an increase
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57 ² These included the large breweries Beamish and Crawford (Scottish & Newcastle since 1995), Guinness
58 (Diageo), Murphys (Heineken since 1983), Great Northern (Harp, Diageo since 1959), Macardles (Diageo since
59 2003), Smithwicks (Diageo since 1965), Waterford brewery (Acquired by Guinness in 1952, ceased brewing in
60 1954),

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3 of 48% in the amount of alcohol consumed per head of population in Ireland. In particular, the
4 early years of the Celtic Tiger in the mid-1990s saw a large increase in consumption. Here, the
5 increase in beer sales were not viewed as de facto positive, given the correlation with worsening
6 alcohol abuse and illness during the same period, which may also explain a rise in temperance
7 or abstinence in 1970s Ireland, too.
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13 In Scotland, complementing earlier forces of concentration and consolidation, WW1
14 restrictions and the Temperance Movement were also each instrumental in further changes so
15 that the sector declined to just 36 breweries by 1940. Against supply side developments, while
16 the Temperance Movement had impacted on consumption, post WW2 improving standards of
17 living in the 1950s saw an increase in beer demand.
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24 Not unconnected, increases in monopoly powers reduced these numbers further to 26 in 1960
25 through an “amalgamation rush” (Craft beer and brewing, no date) and then to only 11 by 1970,
26 with continuing takeovers and closures in these latter decades also being driven by the loss of
27 colonial markets. By 1980, ownership was dominated by a few non-Scottish drinks
28 conglomerates who dominated the domestic and export markets, and so ‘the virtual
29 disappearance of the Scottish independent brewers’ (Craft beer and brewing, no date). By the
30 end of the 1990’s this trend was reversed with the revival of Scottish beer production in the
31 form of small microbreweries.
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40 The 200 years from 1800 – 2000 saw, then, similar patterns emerging in all three Celtic
41 countries in our study. Although playing out in differing timescales and localised contexts, we
42 can see the dramatic reduction in all three countries from several hundred brewers, to quite
43 literally less than a handful. Industrial consolidation in urban centres of mass production
44 affected many formerly domestic crafts, of course, as did WWI and the Great Depression.
45 However, brewing was particularly impacted by changing attitudes and practices around
46 alcohol consumption – such as temperance and taste – as well as the expansion and contraction
47 of imperial markets.
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55 The resurgence in Celtic craft brewing in the past few decades has been nothing short of
56 remarkable. Once again, breweries number in the 100s, and are becoming more distributed
57 within the rural, as well as in areas of urban deprivation. Whilst austerity and Covid-19, as well
58 as perhaps over rapid sector growth, have slowed and sometimes reversed this trend,
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3 nevertheless, it is very significant to note that craft brewing sectors in all three countries studied
4 have, in such a short space of time, returned to near pre-modernity levels. Our next section tells
5 this story, highlighting key challenges and opportunities faced by contemporary Celtic craft
6 brewing contexts, through the last few decades.
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10 11 12 **Contemporary Celtic Craft Brewing Contexts**

13 Brewdog, founded in 2007 in Ellon, Aberdeenshire, whilst not the first, is widely regarded as
14 the catalyst for the growth of the Scottish craft beer sector (Cabras and Bamforth, 2016; Carol,
15 Frederico and Thomas, 2015; Cunningham and Barclay, 2020³). Growth in small, independent
16 breweries was particularly strong in Scotland from 2010-2018 and current estimates are of 115
17 breweries, most microbreweries, employing less than nine people (Scottish Government,
18 2018).
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26 Currently, there are 141 active breweries in Wales, and in the last ten years, there has been a
27 rapid growth in the craft sector with the number of small and micro beer producers continually
28 increasing⁴ (The Telegraph, 2014).
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32 From approximately 12 breweries in Ireland in 1997, Feeney (2018) estimates that by mid-
33 2018 there were 125 microbrewing companies in the Republic of Ireland, of which 75 were
34 independent production breweries (Feeney, 2018: p.16). Beer production by independent
35 microbreweries was 157,000 hectolitres (2017) out of a total of 8 million hectolitres,
36 accounting for less than 2% of total beer production in Ireland.
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43 Scotland has a higher than proportionate rise in the number of new breweries growing from 35
44 to 105 from 2010-2017, with a particular increase in small scale micro-breweries (SRUC,
45 2018). Recent research by TBAS shows that the majority of Scottish brewers are producing
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49 ³ Now considered to have broken almost all the tacit rules governing craft beer culture,
50 Brewdog may be cast out from the craft fold, but they remain Scotland's third "Unicorn"
51 enterprise, a high profile focus for all things "artisan" and "punk".

52 ⁴ In Wales, this rise could be due to an increase in popularity of craft beer influenced by
53 changing customer preferences and their willingness to pay more for good quality craft beer
54 (SIBA British Craft Beer Report 2019). This is encouraging sign for the sector across the UK
55 and Wales in particular where average consumption of alcoholic drinks per person per week
56 from 2014-17 in Wales is lower than rest of the UK, i.e. 679 ml in Wales followed by 680 in
57 Scotland, 683 in England and 747 in Northern Ireland (DEFRA, Family Food Statistics, 2017).
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3 less than 500hl and employing less than 6 people (TBAS members survey 2016, Scottish
4 Enterprise). Between 2013 and 2017 there had been a fivefold rise in micro-breweries across
5 Scotland, and the Highlands and Islands showed substantial growth with 105 micro-breweries
6 established, followed by Eastern Scotland (mainly Edinburgh city) with 50, the South-West
7 with 15 (mainly Glasgow) and 10 in the North East. Despite the limited local markets available
8 to many micro and small breweries in many localities in Scotland where much of this growth
9 has taken place, they have become established, survived and evolved through localised growth
10 followed by connection into a wider supply chain.
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19 There are some estimates of the local impacts of the Scottish ‘beer and pub sector’ in terms of
20 jobs, incomes, multiplier effects within and compared with English regions, and Wales
21 available from a study by Oxford Economics in a report for the British Beer and Pub
22 Association (Oxford Economics, 2010), based on 2009/10 data so somewhat out of date given
23 the expansion in the microbrewery sector since). In a report to the Scottish Government SRUC
24 have pointed out that “brewing in remote and rural regions would provide an additional social
25 value through diversification of opportunities for employment, consumption and rural sector
26 growth” (SRUC, 2018).
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34 Yet all is not rosy in our post-modern hop garden. In Ireland, the growth in new entrants has
35 slowed somewhat in recent years, deterred perhaps by a small number of failures and
36 significant overcapacity in the sector. Feeney (2018) contends that there is significant unused
37 capacity in the sector, with a utilisation rate of less than 50%. Unlike other markets, most craft
38 brewers do not operate licensed premises or tied pubs. Instead, their main sales outlets are
39 supermarkets or taps in local licensed premises. Craft brewers are experiencing reduced output,
40 a number of failures, difficulties in accessing distribution channels, and underdeveloped export
41 markets, all of which is exacerbated by the Covid pandemic.
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50 In Wales, 61 micro-breweries closed between 2000-2020 (Wales Breweries: RateBeer, no
51 date). The closing of micro businesses is no surprise and well documented in entrepreneurship
52 or small business literature. The reason for the closure of 61 breweries in two decades could be
53 attributed to factors such as different legislations and policies such as Agriculture and Rural
54 Affairs Policy (for example, Glastir), Health Policy (for example, Minimum Pricing of
55 Alcohol) and tax policies.
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3 For instance, Minimum Pricing of Alcohol has a two-folded effect: on one side, it has been
4 claimed that it saves the NHS £6.5m a year and boosts the Welsh economy by £44m a year by
5 reducing workplace absence and crime (BBC News, 2019). On the contrary, it could possibly
6 push drinkers to switch over from one addiction to other cheaper and harmful substances.
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11 Likewise, alcohol tax duty rules and regulations are pitting larger, longer-established brewers
12 against newer, smaller microbreweries. Small breweries pay duty on what they produce. The
13 Small Brewers Relief (SBR) scheme reduces the amount breweries pay, depending on how
14 much they produce. It is a sliding scale and breweries producing under 5,000hl (or 880,000
15 pints) a year pay 50% of the standard rate - which is the biggest tax break available through the
16 scheme. However, some larger breweries do not think it is fair and have set up the Small
17 Brewers Duty Reform Coalition (SBDRC) with the main goal being to scrap the SBR. They
18 are putting pressure on, for example, the Welsh Government for review and reform of the SBR,
19 as they see it as an exaggerated tax loop that now acts as a disincentive to grow because small
20 breweries are reluctant to lose the duty relief by upping their capacity (Wales online, 2018).
21 The unintended consequences of the SBR scheme could lead to increasing tension between
22 micro and small breweries in Wales, and elsewhere, having a direct impact on cooperation and
23 collaboration activities between micro and small breweries.
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36 Today's renewed craft brewing sector also faces geographic challenges, being often
37 peripherally positioned in marginal places. In Wales, the majority of the breweries are spread
38 in the outskirts. There are significant challenges linked to access to infrastructure, raw material,
39 recruitment of skilled staff and logistics, and stimulate breweries to collaborate with local
40 universities or other relevant government bodies. At the same time, they face the challenge of
41 skill shortage to recruit or retain trained brewing expert (SIBA, 2019, pg.6). These challenges
42 required breweries to take innovative cluster approach that includes other breweries. Informal
43 and formal clusters of beer producers also include wider stakeholders, such as non-for-profit
44 consultancies, government and universities.
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53 In recent times, Covid has brought considerable challenges to the craft beer sector in all three
54 countries. In Wales, few breweries had access to grocery retail and online shopping market
55 channels, and many needed to temporary close in April 2020. However, with financial support
56 from Welsh Government, sectoral advice and guidance, and innovative ways of accessing the
57 B2C market, many Welsh breweries managed to weather the storm during the pandemic.
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Brexit too has been experienced as a major challenge, on both sides of the Irish Sea, given the strong international connections, procurement, and sales of craft brewing. The Welsh beer industry expects to encounter challenges and changes including access to restricted raw materials, new regulations, currency exchange fluctuations, which can affect cash flow and financial health of breweries (Food manufacture, 2019). Micro and small craft beer producers are particularly vulnerable to those challenges.

Indeed, on one hand, the industry has been pushed to try for export and new markets to confront the overcapacity risks, and on the other hand, the possible imposition of tariffs may cause customers from the EU to look elsewhere. Nevertheless, the potential trade barriers caused by Brexit might encourage ~~for~~ domestic supplies of high volume products such as wine and beer. This could lead to new opportunities to expand production in these sectors.

Increased domestic production of beer has the potential to drive agriculture and horticulture. In rural Wales, for example, this would result in more horticulture specifically in the South and North East border areas where there is already a culture and infrastructure for these products and more dairying in the low land areas of North, South and West Wales. Barley and hops could become a more important element for South Wales farming. Having local malters and hops in Wales could make Welsh craft beer more premium and provenant. Hence, Brexit could actually generate growth within the beer and spirits sectors and bring prosperity to rural Wales (Dwyer, 2018).

Peripherality and rurality, however, also offer opportunities, particularly around tourism. Visit Scotland actively highlights the craft beer sector through its website with reference to brewery tours, pubs, beer festivals, locality-based real ale tours and other events. The opportunity is taken to make explicit links to Scotland's other national drinks (whisky and boutique gin, especially), traditional Scottish food, and to restaurants through the themed '2015- Year of Food and Drink.' These are all a means of adding value, strengthening the supply chain and generating synergies across and between sectors.

Yet the full benefits of potential here have also to be realised equally across the three countries. As the tourism offer has developed in Ireland, destination marketing has built up around whisky distilleries in particular (Foley, 2013; Jovicic, 2019). While Dublin's Guinness Storehouse is

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3 noted to be Ireland's most visited attraction, the ~~contribution failure~~ of the Guinness Campus to
4 ~~contribute to~~ wider placemaking and regeneration of the Liberties area has been minimal, and
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6 often focused on speculative development with little return on investment to the local
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8 community (Kelly, 2007). Ambitious developments such as the Digital Hub have not been
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10 delivered upon, while rampant neoliberal gentrification takes root, allowing centuries of co-
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12 production around the Guinness brewery to evaporate (van Winden and Carvalho, 2016;
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14 Cardullo et al., 2018). Similarly, the landmark Murphy's and Beamish and Crawford in Cork
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16 have been ~~similarly~~ neglected as sites of socio-cultural importance, betraying their contribution
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18 to the identity of that city. As these brands were incorporated into the Heineken International
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20 group their ties to place have loosened, with notable negative consequences to their
21
22 neighbourhoods. Given the purchase of the Franciscan Well craft brand by Molson Coors in
23
24 2013, it remains to be seen if that organisation will be cognisant of its rich social heritage and
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26 its impact on place and identity (Lenihan, 2010).

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28 Scotland's rural development programme is designed to build on the strengths of rural Scotland
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30 and it particularly highlights the key growth sectors of Tourism and Food & Drink; resourceful
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32 and resilient businesses and communities; natural capital - including large quantities of good
33
34 quality water; cultural, historical and natural capital and assets; and, research institutes which
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36 offer good provision for training and learning. However, in many areas outwith the Central
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38 Belt there is a narrow economic base and lack of growth opportunities, with particular issues
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40 of access to finance for rural businesses, low wages, and problems of co-ordination across
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42 sectors and agencies.

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44 There are clear opportunities to build on 'Scotland the brand' through further strengthening the
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46 performance of Scotland's growth sectors; and such interventions should create and maintain
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48 vibrant rural communities by utilising Scotland's natural environment and heritage to increase
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50 employment opportunities and improve rural and national economic growth. Specific strategies
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52 are needed to better integrate training/skills across land-based sectors and tourism, to target
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54 support for knowledge transfer with stronger linkages to research and technology, and to
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56 support greater collaboration across sectors for added value.

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58 These economic and environmental dimensions underpinning the development of rural
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60 Scotland create the context and rationale for assessing the role for the craft beer sector to
contribute to sustainable growth across the country. Microbreweries are characteristically

embedded into the local economy and offer the potential to realise many of the benefits of the rural development programme. Critically there is an identified need for different and varied interests to join up their thinking, understanding, cooperation and support to achieve these aspirations.

Critical Summative Synopsis

What is the current policy landscape for deploying craft breweries as a potential tool in regional development, when these narratives are considered as a whole? What are the major themes emerging from this review of contemporary brewing policy in the three Celtic countries? We found that some market changes, and, especially, the promise of collaboration, provided support and opportunities within the wider institutional environment (Table 1). Supportive policy frames and practices included examples of funding being provided to help with the development of skills, and export marketing, as well as the provision of expertise and projects around innovation, Brexit, and production efficiencies and collaborations. Some positive fiscal regimes were also noted, such as excise relief for small brewers.

Table 1 – Craft Brewing Policy in the Celtic Periphery		
	Institutional Environment	Policy Frame and Practice
Support and Opportunities	<p>Consumers' taste and drinking habits are transitioning to craft beer</p> <p>Collaborative strategies address multiple needs, as with Food and Drink Collaboration</p> <p>Strong peer and local networks provide support</p>	<p>Funding is available to: develop brewing skills and quality; to support export marketing</p> <p>Support is available for: Innovation; planning for Brexit</p> <p>Government support for the food and drink industry can provide a focus for supportive policies</p> <p>Projects are available to optimise resource efficiency; to optimise use of co-products</p> <p>Excise relief for small brewers, below certain thresholds</p> <p>Investment Tax Breaks can facilitate brewery launch and growth</p> <p>There are a growing number of local agency Case Studies of Craft Brewers in Video Form, to showcase skills & opportunities</p>
Challenges and Threats	<p>Environmental challenges around climate change</p>	<p>Government support for the tourist industry, and the food and drink sector, is often routed through industry</p>

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4	There are gaps in the business	organisations and targeted at larger
5	admin skills of many craft	firms
6	brewers	Pricing of licenses, planning, etc
7	Lack of resource and skills to	crowds out smaller brewers
8	apply for support and funding	Possible restrictions on alcohol
9	Recruiting and retaining staff is a	marketing and sponsorship
10	problem for all, but especially for	The ability to sell beers on site, for
11	rural and island breweries.	drinking & retail, may be inhibited by
12	Access to infrastructure impedes	law
13	the growth of rural and island	"Cliff-edge" structure of SBDR / SBR
14	breweries, especially	(excise relief) discourages growth, and
15	Poor rural wifi access for	increases Tensions with medium-sized
16	customers and community	brewers.
17	Overcapacity and dropping	Brexit means key policies around
18	demand in the wider beer market	farming, exporting and importing are
19	Small scale of craft brewing	very uncertain, and replacements for
20	inhibits establishing or joining	essential policy agencies lost through
21	large scale distribution networks	Brexit are unclear
22	Challenges entering mainstream	Brexit may cut craft brewers off from
23	distribution channels	their international knowledge and
24	Turbulence, structural barriers,	resource networks
25	and licensing in the public house	The impact of business rates on the
26	sector	hospitality sector, a key route to market
27	Barriers of entry to the public	for beer.
28	house market	Visa rules and Brexit may worsen
29	Access to support is needed for	skills gaps
30	the craft and artisan (food) sector	Complexity of retailing structures and
31	Access is needed to dedicated	licensing laws
32	rural development support	Outdated arrangements for collecting
33		excise duty on beer.
34		Competition policy has done little to
35		tackle brewing oligopolies of
36		production and distribution
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Skills gaps, geographic isolation, distribution, internet and other infrastructure barriers remain significant inhibitors of business development for rural craft brewers in the Celtic fringe. Market turbulence, a shrinking beer market, complex and oligopolistic distribution and retailing systems also threaten these potential anchor ventures. Government support for rural development was seen to be often routed through other sectors, like tourism, and through their industry bodies, or larger companies, so excluding small artisan brewers from the support ecosystem. Licensing, excise duty, the structures of these, and a perceived failure of competition law continue to be the main challenges visited on craft breweries on the margins. Brexit is seen as a particular threat, in all three nations, especially the uncertainty which it brings. In parallel with its deep local embeddedness, craft brewing is a very internationally

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3 connected sector. Brexit challenges the continued success of knowledge, resource, contact and
4 sales networks upon which this depends.
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8 In summary, then, this is a sector facing considerable challenges, even before the Covid-19
9 pandemic threw craft breweries and their communities into crisis. We note that the major
10 barriers to policy development relate to access to knowledge, skills, influence, infrastructure,
11 and fairer fiscal and licensing regimes. All of these are directly or indirectly related to these
12 Celtic internal colonies', and their regions, distance from resource-intensive centres, and the
13 much greater power of the beer oligopoly within those centres. Positive foundations upon
14 which flourishing futures might be built were much scarcer than challenges and barriers, but
15 focused on collaboration, skills development, and a re-conceptualisation of international
16 activities.
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24 Reflecting on these findings, we note that as a policy and practice community, there is now a
25 deepened appreciation of grassroots challenges, and a much broader, more innovative and
26 focused set of solutions to many of these. Zero Waste Scotland, for example, collaborates with
27 173 breweries to preserve and enhance the local value of their waste. At local level, craft
28 breweries can form the heart of community hubs, sustaining – and being sustained by – other
29 artisans, makers, artists, neighbourhoods, traders and, of course, their place itself (Ellis and
30 Bosworth, 2015; Sjolander-Lindqvist et al., 2020). This may be particularly so in rural SME
31 economies, where interwoven communities of small firms provide the entire fabric of the local
32 economy, and where craft beer tourism can help make and shape tourism markets (Cabras et
33 al., 2020; Ellis et al., 2018; McLaughlin et al., 2016).
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44 What seems to be special about craft brewing? Which of its features drive this move away from
45 formal, linear supply chains, and towards sustaining community hubs? Deep trust embedded
46 in place is crucial, as is the encapsulation of this ethos, and its place, in local recipes, imagery,
47 discourse and connections (Ellis and Bosworth, 2015). Collaborative practices from craft
48 brewing also transfer well across sectors, as does its shared mindset which focuses on the
49 development and flourishing of communities, and not individual business growth (Dodd et al,
50 2018; Dodd et al, 2021). The sector's adaptability has been shown too in its innovative
51 responses to the challenges of both Brexit and Covid-19, often through enhanced local
52 interaction. Heritage, culture, connectivity and adaptability help craft brewing to close some
53 loops at community level, too (Garavaglia and Borgoni, 2022; Mount and Cabras, 2015).
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5 Regionality of itself asks questions as to what local means, and for craft brewing in particular,
6 finding the scale which provides scope for sustainability has been complex. The closest small
7 scale bottling plants, and the nearest malting facility for home-grow barley, are both across the
8 Scottish border with England, for example. Brewers in the Highlands and Islands have been
9 supported by grants for in-house bottling lines, which has been a well-received response to this
10 structural bottle neck.
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17 What still somewhat eludes our grasp, fully, are some of the other the bits in the middle, in-
18 between the local challenges and the national or regional policy initiatives which respond to
19 these. Brewers are now in abundant supply, thanks to a growth in degree programmes, but
20 specialists in other key tasks – like maintaining brewing plant – are not, forcing small scale
21 breweries to purchase help from larger firms. It may thus be larger scale systemic change which
22 is needed, to bridge these various in-between disconnects.
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29 **Conclusions**

30 Our historical review showed the wide-ranging, diverse, complex and interwoven institutional
31 and policy practices around brewing's history. Far more holistic and broader socio-economic
32 themes were identified than have been shown to prevail even in the growing modern Celtic
33 brewing contexts. Are we missing a trick? Is it time to move back to the future of regional
34 brewing economies, with localised and circular supply chains, as the recent WEALL report has
35 proposed:
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43 *“Over the last years, the craft brewing sector has expanded significantly in Scotland and*
44 *around the world, demonstrating a business model which is based on collaboration and driven*
45 *by a thriving entrepreneurial community. Craft brewing is often considered an example of*
46 *‘success’, not only because of the increasing number of craft breweries being established*
47 *across Scotland, but also due to its role in local economic development, the promotion of local*
48 *identity, and its innovative approach to business operation based on human connection and*
49 *community support. These key attributes could be seen as lessons for other industries and could*
50 *provide an illustration of what a Wellbeing Economy entails in practice.” (WeAll, 2021, p.9).*
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58 Indeed, such broadening of interest and support for craft breweries resonates with a number of
59 the existing paradigm-shifting agendas which have come to the foreground in combatting
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3 Covid-19 and in building resilience more generally. Significant progress has been made in
4 understanding and identifying the barriers and constraints to communities and regions being
5 able to sustain activities through challenges such as a global pandemic, climate change (Fazey
6 et al., 2018), loss of competitiveness, subsequent limited market size and depopulation
7 (Dressler, 2016; Danson, 2015). This accords with recent work within regional studies that
8 argues that the focus of research post Covid-19 should be to more equitable and sustainable
9 regional outcomes to “build forward better”, to a new regime of economic and social
10 development (Martin, 2021, pp. 145).

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13 Recently, under the conditions of the Covid-19 lockdowns and regulations, governments at
14 large and in Scotland in particular have established commissions and advisory groups to
15 recommend the means to build a better recovery than the market or ‘business as usual’ could
16 deliver; examples include Just Transition Commission’s Reports (2020a, b), Advisory Group
17 on Economic Recovery (2020), CERG (2020) while more local initiatives are being promoted
18 in the concept of Community Wealth Building (North Ayrshire, 2020) and the 20 minute
19 neighbourhood (Wallace, 2020). Common across many of these is their consistent endorsement
20 of the related frames of the foundational economy (Foundational Economy Collective, 2018),
21 circular economy (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2019), and a Green Recovery where localism
22 (Blume, 2011), production and consumption is encouraged at the community or sub-regional
23 level (Gibbs, 2018; Trebeck and Williams, 2019).

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What might extending craft beer policy and initiatives look like on the ground? Which specific
and new regional policies are we proposing here? Community gardening projects aim to tackle
food poverty, and to enact locally circular economies, as well as building social resilience and
self-sustaining skillsets. The creation of community hop groves could thus build on these
established partnership models. Localising supply chains, even in part, would also be a
significant step in smoothing craft brewers’ resourcing uncertainties and inefficiencies (both
environmental and commercial). Communal hop production, processing and selling might also
provide a platform for the collective generation of other brewing resources, like water, or
energy. Indeed, since the Celtic edges are particularly abundant in wind, tidal and water
(energy) resources, building physical plant, as well as natural, on a local collective fashion may
also be particularly feasible.

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3 In terms of food poverty, the nutritional benefits of beer are too often overlooked, given an
4 over-riding anti-alcohol agenda within health and social policy. If a focus away from binge
5 consumption of mass-produced, strong, undifferentiated alcohol is sought, then perhaps a more
6 mature alternative is enabling people to better appreciate hand crafting their own alcohol.
7 Water is ever more contested, and access to nutritious locally produced food harder to come
8 by. Yet these benefits of beer have become overshadowed by modern taboos around even low
9 levels of alcohol. It is time to remember that brewing purifies water, and converts grain into a
10 food valuable “to a level almost comparable to that of meat”⁵ (Katz and Voigt, 1986, p 34).
11 The health benefits of beer are considerable, and must surely be recognised in policy making?
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20 Partnering with agriculturalists expert in (locally-viable) hop and flavouring variants might
21 similarly take an established form, that of distributed citizen science. Viewed as a living lab,
22 collaborative horticultural research projects in the peripheral rural would also provide hands-
23 on, embedded STEM learning in areas of denuded human capital. Community, civic, or
24 distributed gardening for beer production provides a space for re-building, shaping and
25 accrediting locally-relevant but globally transferable horticultural and agricultural
26 competences.
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34 Additionally, beer gardening also provides a focus for the re-discovery of locally specific
35 brewing recipes and practices, which link people to their places’ culture, cuisine, deep history
36 and traditions. Local knowledges, especially at the edges of Europe, have often been displaced
37 by the mainstream, and this is, indeed, a major narrative within craft brewing. Brewing offers
38 an engaging collective vehicle for the rediscovery of locally-fit recipes and domestic
39 sustainability. Brew-days to share local skills and knowledge would provide similar results,
40 and help build embedded communities of knowledge. The inherent conviviality of the brewing
41 world would also tackle some modern social ills, such as isolation, loneliness and lack of
42 agency. Connecting with educational, cultural, historical and tourism bodies, partners could
43 also create and “curate” shared exhibitions of this collective endeavour. Podcasts tours; video
44 overviews; online visitor guides; and continuing education classes might all be appropriate
45 outcomes pulling together local craft histories and geographies, around brewing.
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58 ⁵ These attributes, as well as taste and pleasure, have led some scholars to argue that it was in fact brewing
59 that first led the drive to agriculture, settlement and socio-economic development, rather than baking (Katz
60 and Voigt, 1986; Cabras and Higgins, 2016, p611).

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