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Edited by David A. Higgins

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THE ACADEMY

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EDITORIAL

Following the launch of the new journal in 2008 with a single major study of the Saint-Quentin-la-Poterie pipe making industry, there has now been an opportunity to bring together a broader range of papers for this second volume, which includes the work of some 23 different international authors and runs to more than 50,000 words in length. This volume is more typical of the intended format for the journal, with the first part comprising a collection of themed papers and the second a series of individual studies on a more diverse range of topics.

The first part of this year’s volume presents the results of a project by the Academy’s clay pipe working group, which set out to examine the state of knowledge regarding the clay tobacco pipe industry in as many different countries as possible. The information relating to each country has been compiled in a systematic manner and provides a chronological narrative of clay pipe production and use in each area. These accounts have, of necessity, had to be kept brief but they are intended to provide a broad overview of each country as well as a means of accessing the key literature and collections relating to that area if more information is required. Each summary has been written by a specialist in the relevant field and, taken together, they cover a significant proportion of the areas over which clay pipes were in common use (cf Figure 1 on page 2). This is the most extensive survey of its type that has ever been undertaken and it should provide a key resource for anyone wishing to either study a particular country or region, or to place their pipes within a broader context. Further summaries for countries not yet covered are welcome and will be published in future volumes of this journal.

The second part of this volume comprises a series of papers on different topics of research. These range from studies of particular classes of artefact, such as cheroot holders and ember pots, to the broader social customs and paraphernalia associated with smoking, as seen in the Norwegian langpipe paper. The paper on advertising pipes shows how a single theme can be explored across pipes produced in a range of different materials while the paper on the Civic Company’s pattern book allows an in-depth examination of the patterns that they produced and the way in which the briar trade functioned.

The main theme for Volume 3 will be based on the proceedings of the Academy’s very successful 2009 conference in Budapest. The papers presented at that meeting will provide an excellent overview of the pipes found in Eastern Europe, where the Ottoman and European traditions met, overlapped and merged. Other papers will include the meerschaum working group’s iconography study. Contributions on other topics are, as ever, always welcome and guidelines for contributors can be found at the end of this volume.

Thanks are due to all the contributors to this volume for their hard work in generating the texts and illustrations and particularly to Peter Davey and Ruud Stam who organised the clay pipe summaries and helped with their preparation for publication. Finally, particular thanks are due to Susie White, who has not only manipulated many of the illustrations to improve them but also worked so hard in designing and setting this volume to achieve its high quality layout and finish.

David A. Higgins
Principal Editor
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

by J. Byron Sudbury and S. Paul Jung, Jr.

Summary

The United States of America’s (USA’s) contribution to the clay tobacco pipe industry is unrivalled in importance. Fifteenth-century European attempts to reach the Orient by travelling west across the Atlantic led to the discovery of the New World. This quickly introduced tobacco smoking to the Old World. Tobacco, much of which was exported to England from her colonies, was the only successful cash crop produced by the early American settlements. Clay tobacco pipe production grew on both sides of the Atlantic and supported the addictive tobacco habit.

Although initial Euro-American pipe usage, in what was later to become the USA, was strongly supported by pipe imports in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries (generally Dutch pipes to the northern colonies and English pipes to the southern colonies), times of supply shortage or disruption encouraged indigenous pipe production. The majority of eighteenth century mould-made clay pipes were imported from England. In the last quarter of the eighteenth century, when the Revolutionary War completely disrupted the use of English pipes in the former colonies, other European countries began exporting pipes to the American market to help fill the product void.

During the ensuing nineteenth-century westward exploration and expansion across the North American continent, pipe imports from various nations vied for dominance. The domestic USA industry also began to cater for the demand, albeit initially on a local basis. Small cottage industry pipe makers produced pipes to satisfy local clientele - often producing a variety of ceramic wares, including tobacco pipes. During the third quarter of the nineteenth century, mechanized pipe production was developed and factory pipe output became the major component of the USA’s pipe production. Domestic production was accompanied by improvements in product distribution, including by sailing ship, steamboat, and railroad; some shipments from eastern ports travelled up the Mississippi River or around Cape Horn for westward distribution. Although commercial intra-continental pipe shipments travelling between 4,000 and 22,000 kilometres via waterways were common in the mid-nineteenth century, no significant American overseas pipe export business was ever developed. There were five major

![Figure 1: USA locations discussed in the text. Bordering countries and seas are denoted in grey letters, states in upper case black letters, and towns and other locations in lower case black letters. Rivers are designated by number: Mississippi River (1), Missouri River (2), and Ohio River (3).]
USA pipe production centres in the second half of the nineteenth century - the heyday of the American industry. Introduction of the vulcanite pipe stem and the cigarette contributed to the decline in clay pipe demand by the late nineteenth century. At the start of the twentieth century only two major USA clay pipe producers remained in operation. The final major clay pipe production facility closed immediately prior to World War II - a casualty of newly-enacted child labour laws.

Period 1: 1492-1776

Pipe smoking and tobacco use extends several thousand years back into America’s prehistory. Columbus’ exploration of the New World was accompanied by the discovery of the native inhabitants’ use of tobacco. Pipe and tobacco use were gradually imported and adapted by a number of European countries over the following century, and tobacco became the major North American colonial export to Europe from the early seventeenth century onwards. Once firmly established, commercial export production was so labour-intensive that slavery was implemented in order to meet European demand for tobacco.

There is evidence of early clay tobacco pipe production in the American Colonies (Figure 2). Some of the early crude, long-stemmed red ware pipes have been variously attributed to Native American and/or slave production (Mitchell 1983; Henry 1979; Emerson 1994; Mouer et al. 1999; Monroe 2002). An early settler’s pipe kiln has been located in Maryland (Luckenbach and Cox 2002; Luckenbach 2004; Cox et al. 2005) as well as fleeting evidence of other early pipe makers. These studies of Chesapeake area colonial pipes continue to refine the regional understanding of this era (Luckenbach and Cox 2002; Luckenbach 2004; Cox et al. 2005). Overall, America’s indigenous Colonial-era pipe assemblage remains poorly documented.

Toward the end of this period, the potters at self-sufficient inland Moravian settlements were producing reed stem clay tobacco pipes (i.e., pipes with socketed bowls). The best documented pipe maker of this later era was Gottfried Aust - potter at Moravian settlements in Pennsylvania and North Carolina - who was producing distinctive anthropomorphic and fluted reed-stem pipes (South 1967). The durable socketed pipe, with inserted reed stem, later became the hallmark of the USA clay pipe industry. The early American socketed pipe industry has long been traced back to Germanic origins (Walker 1975, 1980).

Imports

The majority of the imported pipes were from England and the Netherlands. In and around seventeenth-century New Amsterdam most pipes originated from the Netherlands - especially from Amsterdam. As an example, the EB marked pipes made by Eduard Bird are often found. After New Amsterdam was taken over by the English, Dutch imports became less common.

In the Chesapeake Bay region English pipes were abundant on many sites during the seventeenth century (Cotter 1958, Davey and Pogue 1991, Cox et al. 2005). From the end of the seventeenth-century until the Revolutionary War most imported pipes were manufactured in England. Among the English imports, initially London pipes were dominant. Imports from Bristol increased markedly in the second half of the seventeenth century. In the eighteenth century, until the Revolutionary War, London and Bristol pipes dominated the import market. Dutch imports from Gouda were present but minor during the first half of the century.

Period 2: 1776-1840

The Revolutionary War and the War of 1812 both resulted in curtailed imports of English pipes, necessitating increased domestic pipe production. When available, imports from other countries (including Germany and The Netherlands) supplemented or supplanted English imports. Minor imports also occurred from other European countries. Pipe demand, unmet by imports, was addressed by local potters and a fledgling domestic cottage industry, often using hand-held pipe moulds. Much product and production detail of this era remains obscure with relatively few domestic pipes and pipe makers having been documented. The exponential increase in cigar consumption near the end of this era may in part reflect a shortage in clay tobacco pipe availability and durability.

Figure 3 illustrates the movement of pipe makers inland away from coastal settlements, mirroring western exploration and settler migration. The best-studied domestic production site from this era remains the Moravian-related Mount Shepherd Pottery Site in North Carolina. The Mount Shepherd Site processing facilities, kiln, and products were carefully documented (Outlaw...
An interesting example of eastern Pennsylvania products with strong German influence has been reported from this era (Rosenberger and Kronick 1992). Pipe production is also documented from western Pennsylvania in 1806, 1807, 1809, and 1828, and shortly thereafter downriver in Louisville, Kentucky (Sudbury 1979, Stradling and Stradling 2001). Although this pipe output was a part of indigenous production to support local need, commercial production also resulted in shipments west via the nation’s waterways. For instance, the Pittsburgh, Louisville, and slightly later Point Pleasant factories were all located on the Ohio River and used the river to transport their products, effectively mirroring westward migration and settlement. In addition to local use, these pipes were also dispersed across the country. Early Louisville pipes have been reported from Bent’s Old Fort in Colorado and Fort Union Trading Post in North Dakota (Sudbury 2009a, 78-81) both destinations far removed from the production source. The first leg for both of these destinations was down the Ohio River from Louisville to the Mississippi River (607 km), up the Mississippi River past St. Louis (322 km), and then up the Missouri River to Independence (668 km). The Fort Union specimens then traveled up the Missouri River by steamboat for an additional 2390 km (total 3987 km, or 2477 miles). The Bent’s Fort shipment traveled overland from Independence via the Santa Fe Trail an additional 966 km to Bent’s Old Fort in present-day Colorado (total 2563 km or 1592 miles). Thus, although American products were not exported internationally, they traveled great distances from production source to end user in the 1800s. The first steamboat built in Pittsburgh began plying the Ohio River in 1811, and travel from Louisville to New Orleans became routine within a decade.

**Imports**

During the Revolutionary War the imports from Bristol declined significantly. After the War, imports from Liverpool took over a part of the market while London pipemakers retained their market share. During the period 1776-1840 imports from the Netherlands, Germany, and France were minor. Beginning in 1820, pipes from Grossalmerode and Uslar (Germany) were imported.

### Period 3: 1840-1900

Pipe production followed westward exploration and migration, but generally did not cross the Mississippi River into the frontier regions (Figure 4). Westward pipe maker movement essentially stopped at the Mississippi River - the eastern boundary of the 1803 Louisiana Purchase. The only geographic exception to this was that a few pipe makers in Texas, at least some of whom were German immigrants, relocated from Georgia. A graphic presentation of the individual state boundaries established during westward development of the United States is available (Stephan 1996). Small pipe producers tended to follow and support the westward expansion. Settlement of the west coast was expedited by the gold rush of 1849 and completion of the transcontinental railroad 10 May 1869). The western inland continental area continued to be serviced by domestic pipe producers as well as extensive imports from numerous European sources that tended to enter the inland waterways through New Orleans for distribution (Sudbury 2009a). Eleven pipe makers operated in Akron, Ohio (Sudbury 1979), and 26 pipe makers were reported in a survey of Tennessee potters (Smith 1979).

**Figure 3:** USA Pipe makers 1776-1840 (Period 2). The farthest westward penetration in this period was along the Ohio River.

**Figure 4:** USA Pipe makers 1840-1900 (Period 3). This era reflects continued westward expansion, especially along the Ohio River. The five key production centres discussed in the text are indicated by larger numbered dots, although there were other significant producers. Two major Canadian production centres of this era are also shown.

There were numerous pipe producers during this ‘golden’ era; some are known solely from written records while other unknown pipe maker’s products have been reported in the archaeological literature. Small local producers continued to serve local markets, while some manufacturers grew to
more sizeable production levels. The Bannerman firm of Canada established a factory in upstate New York as it was cheaper to import clay than finished pipes (Sudbury 2006). Representative pipes produced by a variety of small southeastern pipemakers are shown in Figure 5. Even with the large number of extant producers in this era, the basic core of the clay tobacco pipe industry consisted of five primary production centres - each of which produced dozens of styles and distributed them across the country:

1. **Point Pleasant (Ohio)**
   Production began by c1848 and continued until c1890 under a series of owners. Several other factories downstream on the Ohio River had a common owner as westward migration continued. Point Pleasant pipes occur on archaeological sites across western North America. More than sixty pipe styles were produced (Thomas and Burnett 1972; Murphy 1976; Sudbury 1979), including plain, geometric, and anthropomorphic forms (Figure 6).

2. **Taber Potteries (Maine and New Hampshire)**
   The two Tabers produced over 100 pipe styles at multiple factory sites during a period of several decades (Jung 1996). Even with transportation limitations in the mid-1800s, their distinctive pipes were shipped to the west coast and occur on numerous archaeological sites west of the Mississippi River. In 1860, John Taber Jr. was temporarily located in Pamplin, Virginia, along with John Hurd of Maine. Taber may have learned red ware techniques in Pamplin and/or possibly helped establish the Pamplin factory industry. Taber may also have influenced some pipe styles produced in Ohio as well as in Virginia based on pipe styles recovered from his Wolfeboro manufacturing sites (Figure 7).

3. **Akron (Ohio)**
   As many as eleven pipe manufacturers operated in this location, primarily producing stoneware pipes (Figure 6). The industry in this area was reputedly initiated by German settlers migrating from eastern Pennsylvania. Ownership of the various firms was intertwined, and the best known producer is the final major pipe making firm - the Akron Smoking Pipe Company (Murphy and Reich 1974, Sudbury 1979).

4. **Pamplin (Virginia)**
   This production centre began as a cottage industry producing pipes in hand-held moulds prior to 1860. By 1880, there was a pipe factory with mechanized, foot-operated moulding machines and a salt glaze kiln. This factory was a major producer during the 1880s and 1890s, and finally went out of production in 1938. Local cottage industry pipe production continued as well, resulting in the concurrent sale of red ware and stoneware pipes (Figure 8). During part of its heyday, this factory was actually under ownership of one of the Akron pipe producers, and they produced several pipe styles in common (Hamilton and Hamilton 1972; Sudbury 1979, Sudbury 1986a).

5. **Charles Kurth Co. (Brooklyn, New York)**
   This firm was in production by the 1880s and made a wide range of products (Jung 1988), for examples see Figure 9. A pipe in the form of Uncle Sam may have been made by Kurth for the 1876 Centennial Fair. In about 1911 this factory was taken over by The American Clay Pipe Works, Inc., which continued manufacturing clay pipes until 1958, and went out of business in 1968.

During the 1840-1900 era, the friction match was patented by The Barber Match Company, an Akron firm. Thus, pipe tongs and embers were no longer required to light a pipe. Also in Akron, Goodyear’s 1851 invention of rubber vulcanization quickly led to the production of hard rubber stems for pipes. In turn, these vulcanite stems permitted the rapid development, acceptance, and availability of durable pipes from briar and meerschaum as functional affordable stems became available. This in turn began the change of clay pipes from being every man’s pipe to being the poor or working man’s pipe. Although Akron was a major clay pipe production centre, the new vulcanite stems - which did not wear down teeth - helped contribute to the decline of the clay pipe industry. An even more significant event negatively impacting clay pipe production was the invention and mechanized production of cigarettes. By the end of the nineteenth century, pipe smoking was in serious decline.

**Imports**
During the nineteenth century, London, Liverpool, and Bristol were the major import sources of English pipes. Dutch (Gouda) pipes were also imported in large quantities with 1850-1870 being the peak period of Dutch imports. Clay pipe imports from the Westerwald region of Germany started after 1845, when the shipment of German pipes through Dutch ports was re instituted (Stam 2009). German agents were actively marketing pipes in the USA in the 1840s (Gartley 2009). After 1859, German Westerwald imports surpassed Dutch imports. From that point, the imports from Grossalmerode and Uslar slowly declined. Imports from Glasgow increased in the second half of the nineteenth century, and probably surpassed the imports from the Westerwald region. Pipe imports from Canada were relatively minor. Pipe imports from France must have been substantial as the Duméril, Gisclon, and Gambier firms all had sales agents located in the United States. Belgian imports were minor, as most of the time Belgium could not produce enough pipes for its own local markets. Appreciable Belgian imports, such as those made by D. Barth, were most likely limited to the late nineteenth century. Major ports receiving imported pipes were, New York City, Savannah, and New Orleans (Figure 1).

The USA’s McKinley Tariff Act passed in 1891 required that all imports be stamped with their country of origin. Thus, foreign manufacturers exporting to America changed their marks at this time (e.g., McDougall/Glasgow pipes were subsequently marked McDougall/Scotland, beginning in 1891). This country of origin notation is in turn a useful tool for determining product age. The McKinley bill, with its high import tariff caused a sharp decline of the imports of foreign pipes. Other tariffs immediately after the American Civil War also
Figure 5: Examples of nineteenth-century clay pipes made in Tennessee, Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia (photograph by S. Paul Jung Jr.).
Figure 6: Pipes produced at Point Pleasant, Ohio Nos. 1-5, and in the Akron, Ohio, area Nos. 6-10. (photograph by S. Paul Jung Jr.).
Figure 7: Pipes produced by John Taber in the Wolfeboro, New Hampshire, area c.1853-1881 (photograph by S. Paul Jung Jr.).
Figure 8: Pipes produced at Pamplin, Virginia, c.1880-1938 (photograph by S. Paul Jung Jr.).
Figure 9: Pipes produced by Charles Kurth, or his successor, the American Clay Pipe Works, Inc., Brooklyn, New York c1880-1958 (photograph by S. Paul Jung Jr.).
served to dampen pipe imports and encourage domestic pipe production.

**Period 4: 1900-Present**

This final era, which started with two major producers remaining in operation, saw the clay pipe industry in rapid decline (Figure 10). The Pamplin industry continued intermittent production of reed-stem (stub-stem) pipes for nearly four decades, finally succumbing with the enactment of national child labour laws in 1938. The American Clay Pipe Works firm (incorporated in 1911) continued the clay pipe production of Charles Kurth Co. for six decades, making a variety of products including white and ‘coloured’ clays, stub-stemmed and long-stemmed pipes (Jung 1988). The American Clay Pipe Works firm ceased production in 1958 due to a lack of local labour; however, their moulds were used by C. B. McDougall Ltd. in Scotland until McDougall ceased production in 1967. The American Clay Pipe Works, Inc., went out of business in 1968. Several other small-scale local producers tried to supply limited local demand when stub-stem clay pipes were not readily available after World War II. Several individuals currently make pipes from antique moulds, as either reproductions or forgeries, but there is not an extant USA clay tobacco pipe industry.

![Figure 10: USA Pipemakers 1900-present (Period 4). This era saw significant contraction in the industry as clay pipe usage lost ground to other smoking media. Most of these pipe makers operated in the first decades of the twentieth century, with only two small scale intermittent operations continuing until c1950.](image)

**Imports**

Tobacconists magazines after c1950 often advertised imported European clay pipes for sale. As an example, Dutch imports - including Mystery, Delft Blue, anthropomorphic, and churchwarden pipes - continued to meet demand in absence of adequate domestic production (Sudbury 1986b).

**Future Research Objectives**

There is not a national pipe making industry study organization *per se*, or a set of national research objectives for the study of clay tobacco pipes. In the past, many of the pipe making centres have been located during salvage archaeological excavations prompted by construction activities. Many of the known pipe making sites are on private property, or under local or state jurisdiction. That being said, the following objectives are offered from a personal rather than a national perspective. Some of these items, and others, are offered elsewhere in more detail (Sudbury 2009a). Amateurs have substantially contributed to the discipline and their contribution is greatly appreciated.

- Implement trace analyses when appropriate for specific studies to better understand production technology and to help identify specimen manufacturing origin. This effort necessitates building a data base of known origin reference materials to use for comparison with site materials. This would include investigations such as chemical analysis of clays, enamel, glaze, and dottle residues. Fingerprints and DNA found on clay pipes may also be amenable to analysis.
- Survey, and subsequently develop a better understanding of the nineteenth-century clay tobacco pipe industry along the Ohio River drainage.
- Develop an improved pipe type seriation for domestic and imported pipes that are reported from nineteenth-century fur trade era sites.
- Determine production source(s) of mid-nineteenth century American-made anthropomorphic pipes that appear to be copies of German imports.
- Continue to develop a better understanding of indigenous colonial clay pipe manufacture centred in the Chesapeake Bay area.
- Continue the effort to consolidate small local or regional pipe publications into a central and more readily accessible publication vehicle (Historic Clay Tobacco Pipe Studies).
- Publish an updated comprehensive survey of USA clay pipes and pipe makers.
- Make more effective use of digital technology in analyses and published reports as well as outreach and educational opportunities for the general public.
- Develop a photographic online database of pipes made by American pipe makers.
- Develop an online database of American pipe makers and dates of production to accompany the photographic pipe database.
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