DISCOVERING ST. FRANCIS XAVIER CHAPEL (18ST859),
Newtowne Neck, Leonardtown, St. Mary’s County, Maryland

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Acknowledgements

The search for, and discovery of, the 1662 St. Francis Xavier chapel owes success to Fr. Brian Sanderfoot, both for initiating the project and for his unstinting support. He also has been an integral member of the research team, delving through the available documentary record and applying his knowledge of Catholic practices and traditions. Fr. Sanderfoot encouraged his congregation to support and participate fully in the search for its roots which extend several feet and 350 years into the sediments of the Newtowne Neck.

Claude Bowen, president of the Archeological Society of Maryland, and John Fiveash, chair of its field session committee, brought moral and financial support to the most recent effort to locate the footprint of the chapel and to explore the locus in which the hypothesized, and now proven, priests’ house was situated. The members of the Society and its newly forming chapter, The St. Mary’s County Archaeological Society, provided the grit and sinew that made the effort a success and, along with Fr. Sanderfoot and the parishioners of St. Francis Xavier, the camaraderie and good humor that made it fun.

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Finally, we extend a second round of thanks to Fr. Sanderfoot for his hospitality: the field camp during the 11-day, 10-night field session—denoted Camp Sanderfoot—was in the good father’s backyard, not 100 ft from his rectory. We had free use of the parish hall, the comfort of his house for pizza-and-movie night, and his very welcome company and collegiality throughout.

Scores of individuals participated in the excavation and subsequent processing, analysis, and reporting of the material. We would like to call particular attention to those stalwarts whose contributions were particularly outstanding: Dan Coates of the Archeological Society of the Northern Chesapeake for his extraordinary logistical support and inventiveness; Jennifer Johnson and Dick Brock for their unfailing support through the final minutes of fieldwork; Sarah Grady, George Riseling, and Derek Johnson—participants in the Smithsonian Environmental Research Center’s citizen scientist program in archaeology for their many hours of conscientious work in processing, researching, and analyzing the finds; and our respective families for freeing us to devote our time and energies for a dozen intense days in June of 2013.
Abstract

The Society of Jesus, or the Jesuits, established a mission on Newtowne Neck at the invitation of William Bretton in 1640, Bretton having patented 750 acres on the Neck earlier that year. Religious bigotry and volatile politics in the colony and back in England forced the Jesuits to maintain a low profile, especially during the political upheavals of the late 1640s through 1650s. With the restoration of the Stuarts to the English throne and the reestablishment of Cecil Lord Baltimore’s control over Maryland, public practice of the Roman Catholic faith became possible. While the Jesuits planned replacement of their small, inconspicuous frame chapel at St. Mary’s City with a substantial Baroque church, William and Temperance Bretton donated 1.5 acres to the congregation at Newtowne for a chapel and cemetery. Parishioners contributed to the construction of the chapel, which occurred in 1662, and the chapel appears to have remained in use until 1704 when enactment of the Intolerant Act of 1704 forced its closure. The specific location of the chapel was forgotten, although it was part of the parcel that the Brettons donated for the cemetery and the cemetery has continued in use to the present.

Several phases of archaeological investigation (December 2010 through March 2013) uncovered likely evidence of the 1662 Jesuit Chapel in the cemetery at St. Francis Xavier in Newtown, Maryland. A report on the earlier work can be found online at www.gibbarchaeology.net. Rather than add to the most recent, and most comprehensive report, we have prepared this shorter report which briefly summarizes findings through the winter of 2012-2013 that guided the field session effort in June 2013. This report examines the most recent findings, drawing on features and artifact distributions to claim that the team found definitive evidence of a portion of the chapel’s footprint and of the presence of a dwelling. The chapel appears to have been constructed in the vernacular earthfast style of the Chesapeake—as represented by a cluster of posthole and mold complexes, clusters of nails and window glass, and a cluster of unglazed floor tiles (essentially one-inch thick bricks). Postholes for the putative dwelling have not yet been found; however, similar clusters of architectural materials, without floor tiles but with burned daub, indicating a hearth-heated building, and associated clusters of ceramic and glass vessel sherds and tobacco pipe fragments leave no doubt that a dwelling has been found. Pipestem dating places the occupation in the 1650s through to the end of the century, suggesting that this may have been the dwelling of one of the eleven tenant farmers working the Bretton land in the 1640s and 1650s. We suggest that the Brettons conveyed to the Society of Jesus not just the land for a chapel and churchyard, but an extant earthfast dwelling once occupied by tenants.

We had conceived the possibility of finding direct evidence of the interaction of local Native Americans with the Jesuit priests and lay brothers at St. Francis Xavier. Our expectations may have been met, but the preponderance of Native American materials recovered from the 75 units excavated to date represent Early and Middle Woodland occupations centuries older than the Colonial period materials. We report these findings herein.
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Chapter 1. Introduction

Father Brian Sanderfoot, pastor of St. Francis Xavier in Leonardtown, Maryland, authorized several phases of archaeological investigation at St. Francis Xavier Cemetery for purposes of mapping the cemetery and its many grave markers and locating the site of the 1662-1704 Jesuit chapel. The project, as conceived by Fr. Sanderfoot and understood by the authors, contributes to the history of St. Francis Xavier parish which recently celebrated its 350th anniversary. The story of this parish church is one in which local Roman Catholics, initially in the face of religious bigotry and political suppression, created and built a community on the banks of the Potomac River. It also is a story of the Jesuit fathers and lay brothers who sacrificed much to help the people of Newtown Neck and vicinity in this undertaking. The search for, and confirmed identification of, the chapel site and of the priests’ dwelling will aid the community in the discovery of its roots and the celebration of its accomplishments.

This report documents the methods and results of the various phases of field and laboratory work. It consists of seven sections:

1) Introduction
2) Project Location and Environment
3) Culture History
4) Research Design and Methods
5) Field and Laboratory Results
6) Summary, Interpretations, and Recommendations
7) Supporting Documentation

All of the work described herein was conducted in accordance with the Standards and Guidelines for Archeological Investigations in Maryland (Shaffer and Cole 1994), the Specifications for Consulting Engineers Services Manual–Section IV (Maryland Department of Transportation 1986), and the Consultant Specifications for Archeological Procedures (Maryland State Highway Administration 1992).
Chapter 2. Project Location and Environment

Location

St. Francis Xavier Cemetery is on the narrowest point of the Newtown Neck, a south-southwesterly oriented peninsula projecting into the Potomac River and bordered by St. Clements Bay to the west and Breton Bay to the east. Leonardtown, the St. Mary’s County seat, is at the north end of Breton Bay on the Western Coastal Plain in Maryland Archeological Research Unit 10 (Figure 2-1). The cemetery and the early 18th-century St. Francis Xavier Church and Jesuit manor house can be found on the Leonardtown USGS 7.5 minute quad (Figure 2-2). The site occupies a low, extensive terrace of the Potomac River.

Environment

The cemetery is on the north edge of extensive cultivated fields. Forested wetlands border its eastern and northern edges. The 4.5-acre parcel is a well-maintained cemetery, the grass regularly mowed (Figure 2-3). The southeastern portion of the cemetery, however, is reputed to have been overgrown in the late 20th century until it was cleared with machinery and manual labor. That clearing event damaged a portion of the cemetery and some of its markers and altered the vegetation. It may also have contributed to the deposition of sediment in the unnamed tributary stream at the head of Breton Bay.

Approximately 80% of the cemetery consists of Othello silt loam and, indeed, most of the arable on the neck is Othello silt loam or fine sandy loam. Neither soil is well-regarded for tobacco or wheat cultivation—the area’s major Colonial period crops—because of poor drainage and a high water table. Soils on the neck are best suited to soybean and hay crops and pasturage. The northern tenth of an acre of the cemetery is Mattapex fine sandy loam and the southeastern 0.6-acres are Woodstown sandy loam. Both soil types produce high yields of medium quality tobacco and good yields of other field crops.
Figure 2-2. USGS 7.5’ Topographic Map, Leonardtown, MD (1985).

Figure 2-3. Aerial photograph of St. Francis Xavier Cemetery.
In September 2011 the Grave Concerns crew excavated a deep, unscreened shovel test pit (J12, E420.34, N326.63) in the broad, shallow drainage that appears on the aerial photograph (see Figure 2-3) as a green swath between the cemetery and the cultivated field to the south. The object was to examine soil development and the possibility that this feature is natural, artificial, or an artificially enhanced natural drainage. The unit exposed a sequence of soils that suggested grading and the deposition of new sediments (Figure 2-4). Strata 3 and 4 appear to be parts of a Bt horizon subject to poor drainage (the redox clays), a not unexpected occurrence for a drainage ditch. Stratum 3a appears to be a filled scour and the overlying deposits likely represent aeolian deposition, the neighboring fields serving as the source. There is nothing in the profile that allows us to determine how old the ditch is, but machinery likely was used in its creation or enhancement.

Figure 2-4. Shovel test J12 profile.
Chapter 3. Culture History

Regional Prehistory

The prehistory of the Middle Atlantic Coastal Plain province has been extensively researched by Custer (1984), Dent (1995), Steponaitis (1978, 1983), Wanser (1982), Wright (1973), and many other scholars. The principal prehistoric and historic periods are summarized below with regard to their representation in the immediate vicinity of the study area (Table 3–1). A subsequent section details available information on the prehistory of the immediate area.

Paleoindian Stage

During the latter part of the last glacial period, known as the Wisconsin, ending about 14,000 BC, most of northern North America was deeply buried beneath thick sheets of ice. The vast amounts of water contained in these continental glaciers lowered ocean levels by as much as 130m. Large expanses of the now submerged continental shelf were exposed with dry land extending for many kilometers beyond the present shorelines. The glaciers did not flow as far south as present day Maryland, and the Chesapeake Bay of today existed only as the valley through which flowed the ancestral Susquehanna River.

Glacial recession 11,000 years ago (c. 9,000 BC) raised the sea level and inundated the ancestral Susquehanna valley. By 9,000 years ago (c. 7,000 BC) the rising waters flooded the lower portion of the valley. By 3,000 BC, the valley was flooded as far north as Annapolis, Maryland. By 1,000 BC, the Chesapeake Bay and the inundated portion of the Potomac River reached their present limits and modern climactic and biotic regimes developed to their present state. Oysters and a variety of benthic and pelagic fishes occupied newly created niches in what is now one of the richest estuarine environments in the world. Oak and hickory boreal forests covered the region, and swamps, marshes, and streams formed in the hinterland and along the coasts (Carbone 1976, Lippson 1973, Schubel 1981).

Native Americans were attracted to the coastal environment by rich aquatic and terrestrial resources. Prior to the formation of the Chesapeake Bay (c. 3,000 BC), people occupied a broad range of upland and lowland settings, invariably close to a water source. Paleoindian tools, dating between 13,000 and 7,500 BC, are rare in Anne Arundel County. Generally, avocational collectors and professional archaeologists find them in redeposited contexts, often associated with multi–component sites in floodplains (Brown 1979). Gibb (2004) has identified a Paleoindian site on a knoll top in southern Prince George’s County, more than three miles west of the Patuxent River and 1600 ft from Swansons Creek. Although eroded, the site yielded a number of lithic artifacts, mostly of quartz and quartzite, including: a black chert Clovis point; a cemented limonite stemmed biface; a quartzite uniface; decortication, primary and tertiary flakes (83); and fire-cracked rock (95). The Garrett’s Chance #3 site (18PR704) lies well above and distant from the nearest surface water, indicating significant change of the landform and local hydrology. The assemblage points to domestic activities beyond mere lithic reduction.

The Maryland State Highway Administration has excavated a Paleoindian component at the deeply stratified Higgins site in Anne Arundel County (Ebright 1989), west-northwest of the project area. The site is located along a small drainage that appears to have shifted its course and overflowed its banks many times. Waterborne silts and drifting dunes covered the Paleoindian component. The Higgins site is exceptional in its preservation of Paleoindian and Early Archaic components.
### Table 3-1. Sequence of prehistoric cultural periods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Date Range</th>
<th>Diagnostic Points</th>
<th>Diagnostic Vessels</th>
<th>Climate</th>
<th>Sea level</th>
<th>Vegetation</th>
<th>Fauna</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paleo-Indian</td>
<td>13,000-7,500 BC</td>
<td>Clovis, Hardaway-Dalton</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Gradual post-glacial warming</td>
<td>70-110 ft below present</td>
<td>Succession of spruce, then pine Megafauna, replacement by modern fauna</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early Archaic</td>
<td>7,500-6,000 BC</td>
<td>Kirk-Palmer, Warren</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Warming and increased rainfall</td>
<td>58-70 ft below present</td>
<td>Pine replaces spruce, oak increases; expansion of swamps Modern species; swamp species</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Archaic</td>
<td>6,000-4,000 BC</td>
<td>LeCroy, Stanly, Morrow, Mountain, Guilford</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Warm and wet, drying</td>
<td>43-58 ft below present</td>
<td>Oak-hickory association dominates Modern interior wetland species established</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late Archaic</td>
<td>4,000-1,000 BC</td>
<td>Broadspaw, Savannah River, Brewerton</td>
<td>Steatite</td>
<td>Warm &amp; dry, cooling after 2,300 BC</td>
<td>13-43 ft below present</td>
<td>Climag oak-hickory, mature estuarine/wetlands communities Modern terrestrial and marine</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early Woodland</td>
<td>1,000-300 BC</td>
<td>Rossville, Calvert</td>
<td>Accokeek, Marcey Creek, Dames Quarter, Selden Island</td>
<td>Climate</td>
<td>7-13 ft below present</td>
<td>Modern stable</td>
<td>Modern stable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Woodland</td>
<td>300 BC-AD 900</td>
<td>Selby, Jack's Reef, Pages Creek, Mockley, Wolfe, Neck, Hell Island</td>
<td>Popes Creek, Moda, Wolfe</td>
<td>Modern, stable</td>
<td>3-7 ft below present</td>
<td>Modern, stable</td>
<td>Modern, stable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late Woodland</td>
<td>AD 900-Contact</td>
<td>Jack's Reef, Triangles, Page, Keyser, Shepard, Potomac Creek, Moye, Riggins</td>
<td>Modern, stable</td>
<td>Modern, stable</td>
<td>1-3 ft below present</td>
<td>Modern, stable</td>
<td>Modern, stable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contact</td>
<td>16th-mid 18thC</td>
<td>Triangles, some European materials, Potomac Creek, iron</td>
<td>Modern, stable</td>
<td>Modern, stable</td>
<td>1-2 ft below present</td>
<td>Modern, stable</td>
<td>Modern, stable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ARCHAIC STAGE

Archaeologists generally defined the Archaic Stage as a period of cultural diversification, represented by more varied projectile point styles and more varied adaptations to the environment than characterize the preceding stage.

Early/Middle Archaic

There are no Early or Middle Archaic period sites (7,500 to 6,000 BC and 6,000 to 4,000 BC) recorded within the immediate vicinity of the project area, although there are sites of this period in Maryland. Some researchers feel that the coastal locations favored by Early and Middle Archaic peoples were abandoned in favor of Piedmont locations (Kavanagh 1982:50), but this may be based on the lack of study of sites submerged by rising sea levels.

A more likely scenario is that Early and Middle Archaic peoples, like the Paleoindian peoples before them, occupied what are now upland areas around streams and marshes, settings now altered by inundation of the ancestral Susquehanna River and stream down cutting in response to isostatic rebound. Many of these upland areas have been eroded as a result of deforestation and poor farming practices.

Another difficulty in identifying these early sites are projectile point typologies of uncertain accuracy and consistency, combined with the likelihood that point styles and settlement and subsistence patterns did not change synchronously. The plethora of Late Archaic projectile point types, for example, may have existed in earlier periods; hence Early and Middle Archaic sites may be misidentified as those of Late Archaic vintage.

Late Archaic

By the Late Archaic period (4,000 to 1,000 BC), the forests around the Chesapeake Bay were primarily deciduous. The rich plant and animal life provided a wide array of foods and raw materials. Expanding Late Archaic communities took advantage of this great abundance, as evidenced by increases in both the number and size of Late Archaic sites over those of previous periods. Late Archaic peoples could have exploited the freshes of the Susquehanna, Potomac, and Patuxent rivers, as well as the shallow waters and spreading estuaries of the bay, for crabs, oysters, and anadromous fishes. At the end of the period the deciduous forests were widespread and less diverse, thereby decreasing the heterogeneity and richness of terrestrial resources. With the encroachment of brackish water into inland bays and waterways, and the stabilization of sea level during this period, the estuarine species such as shellfish became better established, and more importantly, accessible to human occupants of the area. The dominance of deciduous forests and the stabilization of sea level may have caused a shift from interior wetlands to riverine and estuarine environments. Estuaries provided numerous locations for habitation where resources were close, plentiful, and diverse. It was during the Late Archaic that local Native American groups developed more complex technologies (e.g., canoes, fish weirs, and nets), and adopted more sedentary lifestyles in large, more or less permanent, base camps along the Bay and its major tributaries, with associated seasonal camps and resource collecting sites in the interior.

The expanding waters of the Chesapeake Bay and its tributary rivers, creeks, marshes, and swamps provided an extensive network for travel and communication. Overland travel became more difficult as the shoreline became deeply etched by down-cutting interior streams and inundated tidal creeks. The waterways served as both transportation corridor and as a source of food. Exotic materials on Late Archaic period sites, such as rhyolite from the Blue Ridge
Province of Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, argillite from the lower Hudson Valley and southeastern Pennsylvania, and steatite from Maryland’s piedmont, indicate extensive trade networks and/or travel.

**WOODLAND STAGE**

Archaeologists divide the Woodland Stage (c. 200 BC to AD 1600) into three periods: Early, Middle, and Late. Each period is characterized by distinctive settlement and subsistence patterns and ceramic styles. While Late Archaic peoples may have experimented with pottery making, it is the widespread appearance of ceramics that marks the onset of the Woodland Stage.

*Early Woodland*

The Early Woodland period in the Middle Atlantic Region, between 1,000 BC and 400 BC, is characterized by a continuation of many of the cultural traditions and subsistence and settlement patterns established in the Late Archaic. There was a pronounced decline in trade and exchange networks with fewer exotic materials being found on sites of this period relative to those of earlier periods, although Ohio cherts appear on Early and Middle Woodland sites in the region. Shellfish, migratory waterfowl, anadromous fish, and other marine and estuarine species were procured from the waters of the Bay, and faunal remains found at sites indicate a high reliance on woodland animals. The present vegetation patterns of the region, with tulip poplar and sweet gum in the lowlands, and oak, hickory, chestnut, and pine found in the uplands, were established by this time. Early Woodland peoples made extensive use of these resources. Underground storage facilities, grinding tools, and faunal remains often are found on Early Woodland sites (Gardner 1982).

The Early Woodland period is divided in the Maryland Coastal Plain into two phases: Marcey Creek (1,000–750 BC) and Accokeek (750–400 BC). They are defined largely on the basis of pottery styles. Marcey Creek ceramics are molded (as opposed to coiled) and they are tempered with crushed steatite. Pot forms imitate steatite vessel forms of the terminal Late Archaic. They are undecorated and usually lack lug handles. Examples of Marcey Creek ceramics are found on sites throughout the Delaware and Susquehanna River valleys and in the Coastal Plain and Piedmont provinces of Maryland and Virginia, with some occurring in New York State. Selden Island wares also are found in association with Marcey Creek ceramics. They have thinner walls, steatite tempering, and cord marking on exterior surfaces. Projectile points of this phase are the Holmes/Bare Island, Claggett, Dry Brook, and Orient Fishtail points, all of which made their first appearance in the terminal Late Archaic.

The Accokeek phase is named for a pottery type identified at the Accokeek site in Prince George County (Stephenson, et al. 1963), about 15 miles (9.3 km) northwest of Hughesville. Accokeek vessels are small conical vessels, tempered with sand or crushed quartz, with cord marked exterior surfaces and, often, smoothed rims. Accokeek ceramics are found in association with Calvert projectile points.

Wright (1973) and Custer (1984) postulate a continuation of Late Archaic settlement and subsistence patterns into the Early Woodland. Local populations formed macrobands and occupied semi–sedentary base camps during certain seasons. At other times of the year, they split into microbands and occupied short–term task specific and seasonal camps. With the development of food preservation techniques, such as underground storage, larger populations could be supported in smaller areas. Food storage reduced the need for seasonal migration. It also required a degree of sedentism in order to maintain access to, and control over, stored foods. Population growth probably occurred at this time. Base camps appear in the Chesapeake Bay
along the major river drainages, and several extensive surveys, conducted along the Wicomico, Severn, South, and Patuxent rivers, have identified numerous Early Woodland sites. In his survey of the Severn River, Wright (1968, 1969) identified eight sites with Marcey Creek components. Steponaitis (1978) found three Marcey Creek components along the South River, and ten within the Patuxent River drainage (1980, 1983). Both Wright and Steponaitis found the majority of the Marcey Creek sites in the upper reaches of the rivers, with a few sites next to estuaries. All of these sites are shell middens. Wanser (1982) documented 28 assemblages from Early Woodland components along the Wicomico–Allen’s Fresh–Zekiah Swamp drainage, 21 one which are situated in interior wetlands settings. This pattern indicates a riverine orientation for Early Woodland sites, especially those of the Marcey Creek phase.

The Accokeek phase sites represent a shift from the established Late Archaic–Marcey Creek period sites. Steponaitis identifies three trends:

1. a greater number of Accokeek sites than Marcey Creek, suggesting population growth;
2. an increase in the amount of artifacts found on Accokeek sites, indicating longer occupations, and;
3. an increase in oyster use, and exploitation of a broad range of terrestrial and aquatic resources.

Intensive gathering in rich ecozones supported a shift toward increased sedentism and population growth.

A shift in trade networks also is seen with the acquisition of exotic materials and tools: chert from New York, Canada, Indiana, Ohio, and Tennessee; copper from the Great Lakes region; and Adena or Adena–like goods similar to those found in Ohio. The latter examples are found almost exclusively at mortuary sites, indicating a complex Adena–like mortuary practice. The West River site in southern Anne Arundel County is the closest identified manifestation of Adena to the study area (Ford 1976).

**Middle Woodland**

Subsistence and settlement pattern changes distinguish the Middle Woodland period in the Middle Atlantic region from earlier periods. The Middle Woodland is divided into two phases: Popes Creek (400 BC–A.D.200) and Selby Bay (A.D.200–800), each characterized by distinctive ceramics and projectile point types.

Popes Creek Net Impressed ceramics have a medium to coarse sand temper comprising 50% to 70% of the paste. The vessels are coil constructed, in the form of wide–mouthed jars, with conical or semi–conical bases. Interiors are scraped and exterior finishes are net impressed. Rims are decorated with incised horizontal lines, often with finger smoothed and incised chevron patterns. Popes Creek ceramics rarely are cord marked. Wright (1973) identified a local variant that he has named Smallwood ware, but the only significant difference is the presence of some shell and quartz tempering in a sandy paste. Rossville projectile points occur in deposits with Popes Creek ceramics. They occur on sites from southern New England to the Chesapeake Bay. The Popes Creek tool assemblage also includes bone awls, knives, grinding stones, mortars, axes, choppers, and hammer stones of local lithic material.

The Selby Bay phase follows the Popes Creek phase, and is represented by Mockley Cord–marked and Net Impressed pottery, and exotic lithic materials. Mockley ceramics are tempered with coarse crushed shell, comprising about 20% to 30% of the paste. The vessels are coil constructed, medium to large in size, with rounded or semi–conical bases. Vessels from the beginning of the period are predominantly cord–marked. Cord marking appears to have been gradually supplanted by net impressed treatments, both plain and crumpled. Vessel rims often
are undecorated with some vessels having their exterior surfaces smoothed just below the rim. The smoothed necks commonly are decorated with incised cross-hatching, diamonds, chevrons, or parallel lines, with occasional punctates. Mockley pottery is found on sites from the western coastal plain of Virginia to the Delaware River. On Maryland’s Western Shore they occur in association with Selby Bay bifaces—made from non-local rhyolite, argillite, and jasper—and elliptical two-holed gorgets, hematite squares, grinding stones, bifacially retouched flakes, and worked bone. Gardner, et al. (1989), also recovered several Piscataway points from a pit at 18CV272 in association with Mockley sherds. The chronological placement of Piscataway points, however, is still a point of contention among scholars in the region (e.g., Ebright 1992:38).

The Popes Creek phase may represent local development, with an intensification of the subsistence patterns established during the Accokeek phase of the Early Woodland. Large semi-permanent macroband sites were located along the upper portions of major river drainages, with associated satellite procurement stations located in strategic spots near the base campsites.

There is some discontinuity between the lithic assemblages of the Popes Creek and Selby Bay phases. Popes Creek tools generally were made from locally available quartz and quartzite. Selby Bay phase lithic assemblages are entirely different, dominated as they are by exotic materials: rhyolite from the Blue Ridge Province of Maryland and Pennsylvania, argillite from the northeast, and cherts from New York and Ohio. Luckenbach, et al. (1987), suggest that there was a greater affinity of Selby Bay phase peoples with populations to the north, if not migration into the Maryland Coastal Plain Province from the north. Custer (1986) hypothesized that this settlement pattern reorganization may have culminated in the establishment of small chiefdoms by the Late Woodland period. Gibb and Hines (1997) suggest intensive use of particular aquatic resources, specifically oysters, to the near exclusion of other aquatic and terrestrial resources at the Smithsonian Pier site (18AN284) on the Rhode River. Because of the seasonal nature of their use of this resource, and the relative lack of competing species (e.g., drumfish, boring sponges), Middle Woodland visitors to the Smithsonian Pier site appear not to have affected the local oyster population’s ability to reproduce. Neither the Smithsonian Pier site nor the Luce Creek site (18AN143) on the Severn River yielded definitive evidence of horticulture, although Ballweber (1994) found ample evidence of hickory nut processing at Luce Creek.

Late Woodland

The first true signs of horticulture in the Middle Atlantic region mark the beginning of the Late Woodland Period (c. AD 800). The period ends with sustained European contact in the 17th century (after A.D.1600). Horticulture was widely and rapidly adopted throughout the northeastern United States at this time and may have been introduced by cultures to the west of the Chesapeake Bay region. The environment remained essentially the same and local peoples continued gathering plants, hunting, fishing, and oystering. At the time of European contact, aborigines relied less on estuarine resources than did their immediate precursors. Horticultural villages on floodplains were the primary occupation sites of the native inhabitants.

Archaeologists divide the Late Woodland into two phases: Little Round Bay (AD 800–1250) and Sullivans Cove (AD 1250–c.1600).

Little Round Bay Phase ceramics include incised and fabric impressed wares of the Rappahannock series. Both are shell-tempered. The vessels are coil constructed, with smooth interiors and rough exteriors. They tend to be more thinly potted, and the temper is smaller, than the earlier Selby Bay vessels. Rappahannock ceramics are wide-mouthed jars with rounded or semi-conoidal bases.
Griffith (1980) defined eight varieties of Rappahannock Incised pottery, based on decorative treatment. Motifs include horizontal bands, zigzags, and squares or triangles, occasionally filled in with incised lines. Generally, the more complex geometric forms occurred during the period between AD 900 and AD 1300. Fabric impressions on Rappahannock wares typically are clear and not over-stamped. Some vessels have pseudo–cord impression patterns at the rim. Projectile points associated with the Rappahannock ceramic types include Jacks Reef points—found throughout Maryland, Delaware, Virginia, Pennsylvania, New York, Ohio, Michigan, and Ontario—and Levanna points—found throughout Maryland, Virginia, Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, Ontario, and into New England. Other Late Woodland artifacts include bone awls, obtuse angle pipes, grinding stones, and pitted stones.

Sullivans Cove pottery is thinly potted with light crushed shell tempering. Vessels have conical bases and constricted necks. Body sherds are partially cord-marked and smoothed. Rim exteriors are decorated with cord wrapped stick impressions, and horizontal lines and herringbone patterns. Rappahannock Incised ceramics with less complex motifs also are found with Sullivans Cove pottery, as is the Rappahannock Herringbone motif. The small triangular Madison projectile point, found throughout the northeastern United States, typically is the only projectile point found on Sullivans Cove phase sites. The small size of the Madison point indicates that Late Woodland peoples replaced the throwing spear, which required a larger and heavier point, with the bow and arrow.¹ Sullivans Cove assemblages also include: grinding stones, convex–edged end scrapers, knives, and other stone tools. It was during the Sullivans Cove period that horticulture seems to have led to a shift to village life in locations away from the shores of the Chesapeake.

Custer (1984) suggests that vast changes occurred in the settlement and subsistence patterns of the Late Woodland. Prior to A.D.1000, settlement and subsistence patterns centered around intensive gathering and hunting with some use of cultigens. Groups followed seasonal rounds, moving from base camp to base camp, with occasional forays to task specific sites to procure shellfish, waterfowl, and other resources. Wright (1973) suggests that the Little Round Bay Phase occupations centered on base camps at the estuarine/transition zones, with frequent use of numerous nearby procurement camps. Wright interpreted the Obrecht site, near the head of the Severn River, as a base camp for the Purcell site on the Magothy River and the Oakridge site on the Patapsco River. The two smaller sites served as resource procurement sites. Obrecht, a large oyster shell midden measuring 180m in length, produced materials from the Middle Woodland and Late Woodland periods. Wright interprets the broad array of faunal remains and cooking features at the Obrecht site as evidence of a large macroband base camp. The Purcell site is an oyster shell midden site, measuring at least 25m in length, with a similar broad array of faunal remains. Wright suggests that it is a microband base camp, probably occupied in the fall. The Elkridge site is a very large site on the estuarine portion of the Patapsco River, at the confluence of three major tributaries. It is well placed for the exploitation of spring runs of spawning fish. Development has destroyed a number of smaller shell sites near Elkridge that could have served as microband procurement sites. Procurement sites were selected for their ease of access to seasonally available oyster, waterfowl, or fish, or nuts.

Increased reliance on cultigens lessened the need for satellite camps, and this shift is reflected in the archaeological record. The functions of base camps changed as they became village sites devoted to the production, storage, and protection of food. The need for cropland also required a shift away from coastal areas to fertile floodplains. Horticulture in the Bay region

¹ See Nassaney and Pyle (1999) on the morphological distinction between dart and arrow points.
became important around AD 1000, during the Sullivans Cove Phase. Smaller villages and isolated household sites, or clusters, surrounded larger settlements. Sullivans Cove phase peoples still used sites previously used for oystering, waterfowling, fishing, and hunting, but not as intensively.

Regional and County History

Historic settlement patterning in the Chesapeake Tidewater region has been examined by Pogue (1984), Smolek (1984), Lukezic (1990), and, more recently, by Gibb (1996). Concerned with 17th and 18th-century Euro–American settlement along the bay and its tributaries, these studies all note a preference for sites along major navigable rivers near potable water and soils suited to tobacco and wheat cultivation, with little aggregation and avoidance of upland areas. Gibb’s analysis aimed at documenting and interpreting variability and offered a statistical technique for identifying sites that may have functioned differently than those tobacco plantations along the navigable waterways. Settlement patterning in Maryland’s Tidewater region for the 19th and 20th centuries has not been studied and the comments below pertaining to these later settlements are based on preliminary research.

Colonial Period

Land grants from the Lords Baltimore, proprietors of the Maryland colony, varied greatly in size. Tracts listed in the various rent rolls range from a few acres to thousands of acres, with around seventy percent of the patents granted for parcels between 50 and 249 acres (123.5 to 615.3 ha) (Wykoff 1937; Gibb 1996). Most 17th–century archeological sites occur within a few hundred feet of navigable water and near soils suitable for producing tobacco in large quantities, if not high quality; but a few have been found a mile or more inland, surrounded by soils ill-suited to tobacco culture. Tenants occupied all tracts, only the Lord Proprietor actually owning the land. Failure to pay the nominal semiannual rents and swear fealty to Lord Baltimore could lead to escheatment of the land and everything on it to Lord Baltimore. Tobacco was the principal cash crop, except where wheat dominated in portions of St. Mary’s County and the lower Eastern Shore, with maize, cattle, and swine raised for home consumption, ship provisioning, and limited coastal trade.

Post–Colonial Patterns

As the colonists patented all of the prime lands along the coast, they began to move inland. By the middle of the 18th century, the interior of Southern Maryland was thoroughly colonized and a nascent road system developed. The Lords Baltimore had begun to alienate land, selling it in fee simple and abolishing quit rents. Farm tenancy increasingly became the means by which rural families gained access to farmland from large, wealthy landowners. Stiverson (1977) and Marks (1979) have examined patterns of farm tenancy for the 18th and early 19th centuries, respectively, but this author is unaware of any historical studies of late 19th and early 20th–century tenancy in Southern Maryland.

Gibb’s (1991) analysis of late 19th–century agricultural schedules from the federal censuses for the Allen’s Fresh District of Charles County, based on a 30 percent (n=61) systematic sample of the 1880 entries, indicates a 33 percent farm tenancy rate with 16.5 percent renting and 16.5 percent farming on shares. Farm size in that district decreased dramatically during the last half of the century with median values for improved acreage of 178 (440 ha) and 60 (148 ha) for 1850 and 1880, respectively. Yields of the principal cash crops—tobacco, maize, and wheat—plummeted by 17, 60, and 40 percent, respectively. Tobacco, clearly, remained the most important crop.
Whether or not agriculture followed a similar course in the Leonardtown District remains uncertain: the intensive sampling and analysis of late 19th–century agricultural census data simply hasn’t been undertaken.

While not especially industrial, St. Mary’s County had craftsmen, sedentary and itinerant, providing some goods and services for businesses and residents (Marks 1979). For example, the Trustees of Charlotte Hall Academy, just south of Hughesville, contracted Richard Carnes in 1783 to make 250,000 bricks and lime for mortar with which to build their first school building (Gibb 1990; 1989: 5). They contracted with a man named Kirkley or Kirkby in 1857 to burn 150,000 to 250,000 bricks for a new classroom building and the Building Committee reported at the end of July of that year a kiln of 65,000 bricks ready for firing. They discovered the following year that the bricks were of inferior quality and the contractors were required to effect repairs (Gibb 1989:6–7).

Barse et al (1999) uncovered the remains of a brick clamp in their Phase I investigation of the Hughesville bypass corridor, the Homeland Brick Clamp site (18CH664), tested more extensively by Balicki et al (2004). This small (14 by 10 ft) clamp appears to have been used only once and the investigators found no evidence of additional clamps. Balicki et al (2004) did recover a molded ogee brick, suggesting bricks made for a building (possibly as replacements for existing fabric) and mapped two large and one medium sized borrow pit, four spoil piles, and six small borrow or mixing pits. Brickyards are notoriously difficult to date, lacking much of the domestic refuse that archaeologists rely on for dating sites, and the Homeland Brick Clamp, apparently unassociated with any domestic or non–domestic buildings, remains an enigma.

St. Francis Xavier

The Society of Jesus, or the Jesuits, established a foothold in Maryland upon the colony’s founding in 1634 and the one hundredth anniversary year of the founding of their order. They built a chapel at St. Mary’s City as early as 1635 and had acquired three large estates over the following several decades: St. Inigoe’s Manor, southeast of St. Mary’s City; St. Thomas Manor (St. Ignatius Church) in central Charles County near the confluence of Port Tobacco Creek and the Potomac River; and Newtowne Manor near the head of Breton and St. Clement’s bays of the Potomac River. If Father Fitzherbert built a chapel at Newtown sometime between 1654 and 1661, no evidence to that effect has surfaced. Indeed, Himmelheber (2001) has made a convincing argument for the original chapel having been constructed on Medley Neck, the peninsula downstream from Newtowne Neck, by Jesuit father Lawrence Starkey between 1649 and 1654 (when he was in the colony). Supporting plat reconstructions and an archaeological survey at the likely location for the one-acre tract could test Himmelheber’s hypothesis.

The Jesuits established a mission on Newtowne Neck, possibly at the invitation of William Bretton, in 1640. Bretton patented 750 acres on the Neck earlier that year. Religious bigotry and volatile politics in the colony and back in England forced the Jesuits to maintain a low profile, especially during the political upheavals of the late 1640s through 1650s. With the restoration of the Stuarts to the English throne and the reestablishment of Cecil, Lord Baltimore’s control over Maryland, public practice of the Roman Catholic faith became possible. While the Jesuits planned replacement of their small, inconspicuous frame chapel at St. Mary’s City with a substantial Baroque church (ca. 1667), William and Temperance Bretton donated 1.5 acres to the congregation at Newtowne for a chapel and cemetery (1661):
This day came Mr William Bretton and desired the ensuing to be recorded (vizt), Ad perpetuam rei memoriam

Forasmuch as divers good and Zealous Roman Catholick Inhabitants of New Towne and St Clements Bay have unanimously agreed amongst themselves to erect and build a Church or Chappell whether they may repair on Sundays and other Holy days appointed and Commanded by holy Church to serve Almighty God and hear divine Service, And the most Convenient place for that purpose desired and pitched upon by them all, is on a certain parcel of the Land belonging to William Bretton, Gentleman, Now Know ye that I William Bretton of Little Bretton in the County of St Mary’s in the Province of Maryland gent, with the hearty good liking of my dearly beloved wife Temperance Bretton, To the greater hono’ and Glory of Almighty God the ever immaculate Virgin Mary and all Saints have given and doe hereby freely & forever give to the behoove of the said Roman Catholick Inhabitants and their Posterity or Successors Roman Catholicks so much land as they shall build the said Church or Chappell on which for their better Convenience they may frequent to serve Almighty God and hear divine Service as aforesaid with such other land adjoining to the said Church or Chappel convenient, Likewise for a Church yard wherein to bury their dead Containing about one acre and half of Ground Situate and lying on a devident of land called Bretton’s Outlet, and on the East side of the said devident near to the head of a Creek called S’ Williams Creek which falleth into S’ Nicholas Creek and near unto the narrowest place of the freehold of Little Britaine.

Tenth day of November Anno domini 1661 Wm Bretton, Temperance Bretton, Delivered and Signed and Sealed in the presence of Wm Evans, James Thompson, Luke Gardner, Robert Cole (Liber PCR/ 1026, April the 12th 1662).

Father Henry Warren purchased the Newtown Manor estate from William and Temperance Bretton six years later for 40,000 pounds of tobacco.

Language in the chapel lot deed of title suggests that the impetus and resources for building the chapel came from Roman Catholic families on, and in the vicinity of, Newtown Neck. Moreover, the Brettons conveyed the original 1.5 acres to “the behoove of the said Roman Catholick Inhabitants and their Posterity or Successors Roman Catholicks,” and not to the society of Jesus. Robert Cole headed one of those families. His will, witnessed by James Thompson and probated in 1662, nominated Colonel William Evans and Captain Luke Gardiner as executors. All three men and Cole witnessed William and Temperance Bretton’s conveyance of the 1.5 acre chapel and cemetery lot. Cole’s estate was credited 532 pounds of tobacco in 1664 and 57 pounds of tobacco in 1665 “for building the chapel (Carr, Menard, and Walsh 1991: Appendix 1). The estate was debited 1310 pounds of tobacco in 1670 for “a winding Sheet and a coffin to [read for] Betty [Cole]”; “by making of her grave”; by her burial in the Chapel”; and “by Expenses for her funeral.” “Burial in the Chapel” probably refers to a funeral mass and not necessarily inhumation below the floor of the chapel. Parishioners contributed to the construction of the chapel in 1662, and the chapel appears to have remained in use until passage of the Intolerant Act of 1704 forced its closure. The specific location of the chapel was forgotten, although it was part of the parcel that the Brettons donated for the cemetery and the cemetery has continued in use to the present. A historical note in the Woodstock Letters (33[3]: 296-297 [1904]) refers to the chapel, or ‘first church’: “The first church for Newtown Mission was situated in the graveyard, nearly a half mile from the residence, and the foundation walls still remain.” This observation of more than a century ago suggests that the chapel had a brick
foundation and establishes a possible source for Beitzell’s claim that the chapel site is adjacent to the cemetery entrance. We cannot determine from this quotation where in the cemetery that the anonymous author saw the foundation or if the foundation was, in fact, that of the chapel or of some other building, such as a later dwelling or outbuilding, or the school reputed to have operated at Newtown. The project team did identify a cluster of brick and late 18th century domestic refuse at the north end of the cemetery (18ST858) during the initial shovel test survey of the cemetery (Gibb and Lawrence 2011).

Annual debits to the Cole estate represent tuition and, in at least some cases, boarding for Robert Cole’s children, including Elizabeth, or Betty, Cole. The entries do not indicate where the children were schooled. Ten years before Robert Cole died, Edward Cotton bequeathed a horse and mare and their progeny to the Jesuit fathers (1653), “the profit to be made use of for the use of a school.... My desire is, if they shall think convenient, that the school shall be kept at Newtown” (Woodstock Letters 61 [1932]: 16). We have found no evidence of a school having been built in the 1650s, although the Jesuits may have tutored students at that time. Clear evidence of a formal school at Newtown (although not necessarily in a building constructed for the purpose) dates to 1681 when, in an annual report, the following statement appears:

Four years ago there was opened here by ours [a common Jesuit expression to refer to themselves and one of several means for maintaining a low profile in the face of bigotry] in primitive circumstances a school of humane letters, which two [Jesuit Fathers Michael Foster and Francis Pennington] direct and where native youth, extraordinarily devoted to study, make progress. That mission, that recently established school, sent two students to St. Omer’s [a prominent Catholic school in Belgium] and they are second to few Europeans in ability since they strive for distinction with the foremost of their class” (quoted in Hughes 1908: 549).

Thomas Hothersall reputedly taught at the school from 1683 until his death in 1698, at which time a recently enacted law closed the school (Beitzell 1960).

The Society of Jesus owned and operated Newtown Manor until 1967 when they transferred management of the cemetery and the church and manor house lots to the Archdiocese of Washington, DC. A detailed history, drawing on primary resources, has not been written for the St. Francis Xavier Church. The Special Collections division of the Georgetown University Library holds a number of manuscript documents, including ledgers and memoranda books, penned by resident Jesuits at Newtown. Censuses, newspapers, court records, and orphans court records also can be mined for information. And, of course, the extant buildings, archaeological record, and the cemetery monuments are potential sources of information. Cemetery inscriptions, for example, may illuminate the ebb and flow of the parish’s size and wealth.

The distribution of dated stones (Figure 3-1) suggests a peak between 1870 and 1890, followed by a decline that lasted until the 1960s. Whether these variations reflect a changing ethnicity among recently settled immigrants or fundamental changes in the religious leanings of the population can be addressed through rigorous data collection and analysis of the above-cited sources. It is also possible that some of the fluctuations stem from the economic fortunes of parishioners, affecting their ability to purchase stone monuments from Baltimore and elsewhere, leaving many graves from some decades unmarked.
Figure 3-1. Gravestones per decade, 1800-2010.
Chapter 4. Research Design and Methods

Research Design

At the time of the Archeological Society of Maryland’s field session at St. Francis Xavier cemetery (June 2013), a series of investigations over a period of more than two years (December 2010 through early 2013) already had been completed. These include: initial mapping of the cemetery and its markers; shovel testing in an effort to identify the site of the chapel; and the excavation of 50 units (46 measuring 5-ft on a side, four at 2.5-ft on a side). Each phase of work had been reported, the report of 2012 (Gibb and Lawrence 2012) compiling all of the data through the spring of 2012. The work clearly identified the approximate location of the chapel and the presence of a possible dwelling, although no architectural features had been uncovered. With brick virtually absent (a very few pieces likely derive from monument placement and plumbing), the chapel and dwelling likely were earthfast, the chapel sporting a tile floor, the dwelling a wattle and daub chimney. Shovel testing followed by the excavation of stratigraphic units also identified an expanse of oyster shells and gravel suggestive of a pavement built of material quarried from a nearby aboriginal shell midden. Excavations revealed unplowed deposits that had been riddled by unmarked graves.

The goals of the June 2013 were two-fold: recover a least a portion of the chapel footprint through the recovery of paired postholes and molds, and demonstrate definitively that there was a dwelling immediately south of, and contemporary with, the chapel. Secondary goals included recovery of a larger artifact sample with which site dating might be placed on a firmer footing, and determination of whether interaction of Native Americans and Catholic clergy left material traces that might support further investigation of Jesuit-Native American relations. Prior work suggested that each of the primary and secondary goals could be achieved with the available resources and timeframe for the field session.

Methods

The methods employed in the investigation of the chapel site in 2010 through early 2013 had proven effective in generating the information that we had compiled and they seemed suited to meeting the afore-cited goals; or at least we could not devise a more effective means of identifying structural features and recovering larger samples of late-17th-century aboriginal and European material. Once an earthfast building site has been identified, recovering the footprint is largely a process of broadening the excavated exposure of the site. Prior geophysical survey proved ineffective in identifying building features and footprints, in part at least because of numerous gravesshafts and the stratigraphic complexities created by the putative shell and gravel pavement and widespread deposits of grave-throw on which soils continued to develop.

The principal method used once the team identified the chapel site was the stratigraphic excavation of conventional 5 ft by 5 ft units on a site-wide grid, the soils screened through ¼-inch hardware mesh and the resulting finds bagged by unit and stratum. Bags were assigned field specimen numbers (FS numbers) in the field to insure intellectual control over the assemblage in the field and to simplify inventory of bags at the end of each field day. Printed provenience cards were started as each new FS number was assigned, including information on excavators, date, unit number, FS number, and details of soils, finds, and impressions, as well as grids for the drawing of plans and profiles.

Artifacts were washed at the parish hall and, after cessation of the field session, at the archaeology laboratory at the Smithsonian Environmental Research Center (SERC) in Edgewater, Maryland. Participants in SERC’s citizen scientist program in archaeology
completed the processing and cataloguing of material under the direction of the lead author. SERC citizen scientists also undertook a number of the analyses reported in this document.

Spatial analyses involved computer-generated simulations of artifact distributions using the kriging algorithm of SURFER (version 9). Weights rather than counts address the issue of differential breakage and recovery. Distribution maps were exported as drawing exchange files, opened as AutoCAD drawings (*.dwg), and then referenced to the main site drawing. Cataloguing continued in the Excel data base begun in December 2010 and field specimen, lot, and unit numbers are sequential from the beginning of the project.

Fr. Brian Sanderfoot, on behalf of the parish, donated the collection to the State of Maryland, and the collection will be curated in perpetuity at the Maryland Archaeological Conservation Laboratory in St. Leonard, Calvert County, Maryland.
Chapter 5. Results

Introduction

More than two years of intermittent investigation of the St. Francis Xavier chapel site provided ample information on which to develop an approach and allocate resources during the Archeological Society of Maryland’s June 2013 field session (Gibb, Lawrence, and Quantock 2011; Lawrence and Mitchell 2012). Stratigraphically, the site is relatively simple. It is unplowed and the upper soil column is accretive; which is to say, soils continued to form on site after the abandonment of the chapel. Grave-digging, of course, has resulted in highly localized vertical disturbance of deposits and grave-throw—the residual soil that did not make it back into the graveshaft at burial—marks previous ground surfaces, the yellowish fine sandy silt loam from deeper deposits encountered by the grave diggers seemingly floating in the midst of otherwise uninterrupted very dark grayish brown fine sandy silt loam A-horizon. A burried A-horizon (bA_p) was noted in a number of units, generally as a remnant preserved between graveshafts. Excavation, therefore, could proceed by removing the A-horizon to the tops of features (typically graveshafts or shell and gravel pavement), bA_p horizon deposits, or the undisturbed yellowish brown fine sandy silt loam B horizon.

As noted above, prior work failed to uncover postholes or other evidence of building footers. Distributions of certain artifact classes, however, suggested directions in which to extend our excavations. They also revealed strong evidence of a dwelling. Previous work, funded by the parish, was directed at finding and delineating the footprint of the chapel. With the field session, additional resources from the Society enabled the project team to pursue both the dwelling and the chapel, as well as further investigate the puzzling pavement.

Figure 5-1 illustrates the concentrations of architectural and domestic refuse that both point toward the locations of two buildings and that suggest differences in the construction and uses of those buildings. A cluster of nails and window glass, based on weight (as are all of the distribution maps that appear henceforth), suggests a southern building distinct from that to the north which is represented by a concentration of handwrought nails, window glass, and unglazed floor tiles. Clusters of ceramic and vessel sherds appear to be associated with the north and south clusters, although the southern cluster is larger and ‘heavier’ than that to the north. The southern cluster of material also contains a concentration of burned daub with very few, largely isolated finds of burned daub found elsewhere across the excavation. Based on these distributions and the hypothetical presence of both a chapel and a 17th-century house, as revealed by a small number of dateable domestic artifacts, the research team divided the site into two loci, north and south.

Scott Lawrence supervised work on what we call the North Locus, focusing on the search for structural features related to the chapel. Valerie Hall supervised the South Locus with two objectives: find definitive structural evidence of a dwelling and determine whether a Native American presence at the Jesuit mission could be demonstrated. Jim Gibb provided overall direction. We report the findings for each locus, in turn, emphasizing the features, and then examine site-wide artifact distributions that more clearly define the organization of activities on the site. We conclude with specific artifact studies that reveal aspects of life at the mission.

Features, North Locus

Figure 5-2 illustrates the units excavated and the features encountered in the North Locus. Units excavated during the June field session appear in red outline; earlier excavations are outlined in blue. A glance at Figures 5-1 and 5-2 reveals a tactic of expanding the excavation
northward from the earlier block of units that had yielded large quantities of architectural artifacts, but no structural features.
Figure 5-1. Concentrations of domestic and architectural refuse (May 2013).
N.B. Units in red represent those excavated during the June 2013 field session. Artifacts recovered from them do not figure in the cluster definitions.
Figure 5-2. North Locus units and features.
Units excavated the previous autumn and winter exposed a series of graveshafts (depicted in red) oriented east-west that overlap with discernible linearity, suggesting to the team that the inhumations occurred within the chapel. Units immediately to the south failed to encounter postholes, but this area had not been intensively excavated and remains so as of this writing. Excavation of a block of units to the north uncovered additional graveshafts. Approximately 40 graveshafts were exposed by the two blocks and nearby units, some 35 completely excavated units, one of which is a quarter-unit. The combined teams of parishioners and Society members recovered large numbers of highly fragmented window glass and nails from the North Locus.

Graveshafts were easily identified in most, but not all cases, as discernible deposits of mixed soil colors and textures—generally yellowish brown finer grained, but still sandy silt loam or silt loam—against more uniform deposits of brown fine sandy silt loam with regular mottling attributable to recent bioturbation (insect and rodent burrowing, root intrusions). Sequences of overlapping graves were determined through relative densities of inclusions from deeper soil horizons. All of the features identified as graveshafts are oriented within a few degrees of east, suggesting orientation to fences or buildings aligned to the cardinal points, apparent East changing with the seasons by more than a few degrees (Gibb 1996).

The field team encountered several features in the northernmost tiers of units that were different from those features that were clearly graveshafts and they are illustrated in blue. They lacked the redder, finer grain sediment inclusions typical of many of the graves and suggestive of deep holes that extended into distinctly redder, finer grained sediments. The orientation of the long axes of these features also differed from the graves and several of the features encompassed large, circular deposits typical of structural postmolds (Figure 5-3). One of the non-grave features appears to have been truncated by a graveshaft in Unit 72. These non-grave features cluster in six of the 15 units forming the northern block in the North Locus. None have been excavated and the excavation will have to be extended to expose any pattern in their spatial distribution.

The non-grave features that have the size, shape, and configuration of conventional posthole and mold complexes number only five. They vary in dimensions, but not by much. The holes range between 2.5 ft and 2.9 ft in length (mean = 2.75 ft) and between 1.6 ft and 2.3 ft in width. Molds within that likely represent postmolds range between 0.6 ft and 0.9 ft in length and 0.5 ft and 0.8 ft in width, with means of 0.75 ft and 0.62 ft, respectively. Orientations relative to approximated magnetic north range between azimuths 13° and 120°, but three of the five range between 116° and 120°. The long axis for the feature in Unit 61 is 97°, which is close to the short axis azimuth of the feature in Units 57 and 61: 103°. Only the possible posthole and mold complex in Unit 61 has been tested, and that effort did not extend more than 0.4 ft below the top of the feature as originally defined.

No clear pattern has emerged from this cluster of non-grave features, nor is it yet clear that all five of those defined, and at least three others that remain undefined, are structural postholes. We are fairly certain that several of the features are structural.
Figure 5-3. Grave and non-grave features, north block of North Locus.
**South Locus**

Eleven 5 ft by 5 ft units were stratigraphically excavated in the southern locus by the St Francis Xavier Archaeological Project and volunteers from the Archeological Society of Maryland. Placement was informed by shovel testing and previous test units which encountered a deposit of densely-packed oyster shell mixed with a large number of pebbles and gravels. Working under the assumption that the deposit represented a pavement, possibly associated with the Jesuit Fathers’ 17th-century residence, excavations commenced adjacent to Units 3 and 4. Contiguous units included: 49, 51, 53, 55, 56, 58, 59, 62, 64, 70, and 71. Unit 67 was placed just north of Unit 7, between the southern and northern loci. In all of the above units, a thin A_o horizon was removed to expose a number of features.

The shell and cobble feature extended through Units 49, 51, 55, 56, 59, 62, and 64. Grave shafts were encountered in Units 49, 51, 53, 55, 56, 58, 59, and 71. Graves intruded into the shell and cobble feature in Units 51, 55, 56, and 59 (Figures 5-4 and 5-5). However, a portion of the feature in Units 49 and 55 appeared to have an undisturbed and deliberately straight edge, while in Unit 64 the feature appeared to slope away and gradually diminish towards the southern wall.

An area of dark, organic soil was encountered in the southeast corner of Unit 71; an auger test indicated this potential feature extends at least another 6 inches below closing elevation. An area of darker, looser soil was encountered under a lens of grave throw extending from Unit 59 into the northern edge of Unit 71, indicating another possible feature.

**Pit Features**

A shell feature was encountered in adjacent Units 58 and 70 (Figures 5-6 and 5-7; see Figure 5-4). Unlike the shell and cobble deposit, this feature had a lens of shell with charcoal and daub inclusions throughout. Additionally, several indigenous and English artifacts were evident on the surface, including nails and both ball clay and terra cotta pipe stems. Using a three-pronged cultivator, the feature was excavated. The shell lens had inclusions of charcoal and ash throughout, and once removed an area of reddened, burned clay was revealed. The burned area of soil formed two intersecting pits, presumably used as cooking pits. The area of burned earth extended approximately 0.3 ft below the shell/ash lens. Further excavation encountered loose sandy soil extending approximately 3 ft below opening elevations. Several artifacts were discovered in the loose soil filling both pits. Samples of charcoal and shell lens pit fill were taken for water-screening, and a 5-gallon bucket of oyster shells were collected for further analysis. Derek Johnson’s analysis of shell forms and features indicates little difference in valve morphology, suggesting that the oysters were harvested at the same time and place.

A number of artifacts were encountered during excavation of the pits. They included clinched nails, iron strap, terra cotta pipe stem and bowls (including several pieces with running deer motif), ball clay pipe stem and bowls, tin-glazed earthenware, lead-glazed redware (including a very unusual double-strap handle), faunal remains, a copper bed-curtain ring, and large quantities of burned daub. Six sherds of aboriginal pottery, including Popes Creek and Mockley, and about thirty pieces of flaked stone were recovered and we suspect that they are intrusive that happened to be in the surrounding deposits at the time the two pits were dug and then backfilled.
Figure 5-4. South Locus units and features.
N.B. Red features are graveshafts, black are oyster shell and pebbles.
Figure 5-5. Units 51 and 53 reveal two graveshafts and pavement.

Figure 5-6. Top of intersecting shell-filled pits.

The team found no structural features; however, the substantial presence of burnt daub was remarkable: 450 pieces weighing 440 grams. By way of contrast, only eight floor tile fragments weighing 43 grams were recovered from the two pits, and that all from the upper portion of the features (Unit 58/70, Stratum 3).
The June 2013 revealed more of the pavement, as well as ample evidence of it having been disturbed by a number of graveshafts. Wherever encountered, the pavement consisted of a relatively thin deposit (<0.5 ft) of whole and crushed oyster, as well as numerous rounded pebbles. Although never in abundance, both aboriginal and European artifacts, as well as some non-human bone, was recovered. Perhaps the most interesting new find is that the pebble content appeared to be significantly higher than the team had encountered in Units 1 through 4 more than a year earlier. Beneath the redeposited shell and pebbles we encountered the native very fine sandy silt loam with very few gravel or pebble inclusions. Are original hypothesis, therefore, has been sustained: the shell and gravel appear to have been brought to the site, presumably to form a pavement, the original outlines of which may be largely obscured by intruding graveshafts, most of which retail some oyster shells and exotic gravels in their matrices.

Artifact inclusions include some nails and floor tile fragments, and rare bits of European ceramic and vessel glass, as well as tobacco pipe fragments. Aboriginal material includes flaked stone, some fire-cracked rock, and pottery; the latter includes largely Accokeek and Popes Creek pottery. Some of the aboriginal material appears to have been mixed with the oyster shell prior to its removal to the chapel site; but the excavation team also recovered small clusters of Accokeek, Popes Creek, and Mockley pottery below the pavement and in units north of the pavement.

Artifact Distributions

Intruding grave shafts likely effect nail counts as new graves disturbed old coffins, but the bulk of the graves exposed by the excavations do not intrude upon one another and even those that did would not have brought a significant number of coffin nails to the A-horizon: most would remain within the C-horizon that is the graveshaft. Grave digging, on the other hand, likely reduced nail recovery as many architectural nails found their way into the graveshafts.
Potential biases in recovery aside, the distribution of nails should provide a useful initial assessment about the number, sizes, orientations, and footprints of frame buildings, regardless of whether the footers were masonry or wooden posts. Figure 5-8 depicts the simulated distribution of nail weights, the data drawn from total weights of handwrought nails per unit and each unit’s center coordinates used by the kriging program to display isobars.

There is a surprising linearity to the distribution...it is even more linear than the distribution of excavation units, suggesting a common alignment for buildings. There are three apparent clusters: a northern cluster with the highest yields about the posthole and mold complexes; a lower yield, but more expansive cluster among the block of units excavated in previous seasons between the North and South loci; and a relatively low-yield cluster at the northern extremity of the South Locus.

Figure 5-8. Distribution of nails from excavation units.

The nail distribution becomes more interesting when compared to the simulated distribution of window glass (Figure 5-9). Here are three well-defined clusters that bring better definition to the nail distributions, marking the same concentrations. They suggest the locations of as many as three glazed buildings. The simulated distribution of floor tile suggests that the north and middle clusters may be parts of a single building, the separation a product of sampling error (Figure 5-10). The simulated distribution of burned daub (see Figure 5-1) points to a south
building with a wattle and daub chimney. The recovery of a large quantity of burned daub from Units 58 and 70, especially from the pit features, establishes a heated building in the South Locus.

Figure 5-9. Distribution of window glass by weight.
Simulated distributions of domestic materials also suggest two distinct buildings in which different activities occurred (Figure 5-11). Concentrations of vessels of clay and glass occur at three points along the long axis of the excavation, but the heaviest and most expansive concentration is in the South Locus. As important are the tobacco pipe fragments (Figure 5-12). While still represented as three clusters, the overwhelming majority of tobacco pipe fragments by weight occur in the South Locus.

The artifact distribution data support earlier hypotheses that there were two buildings present at 18ST859, one of which was heated and supported a variety of domestic functions, the other unheated but tiled, and around which some domestic activities occurred.
Figure 5-11. Simulated distributions of ceramic and glass vessels, by weight.
Figure 5-12. Simulated distribution of tobacco pipes, by weight.

Artifact Patterns

Several classes of artifacts that were recovered from St. Francis Xavier illuminate aspects of the site’s occupation: tobacco pipes; vessels; and unique finds. Tobacco pipes and vessels, particularly ceramic vessels, reveal the period during which the site was occupied. And, like the less common and unique finds, they reveal aspects of the lives of the site’s inhabitants. Other materials have not been analyzed in depth as of this writing because they derive from other components (the aboriginal pottery, virtually all of which is Early or Middle Woodland) or because they have been recovered from general deposits and in such low numbers as to preclude meaningful analysis until larger quantities are recovered from close deposits (e.g., faunal material).
Tobacco Pipes

Compared to recovery rates from other 17th-century Colonial sites in the Chesapeake region, the number of tobacco pipe fragments for St. Francis Xavier is low; however, the sample is sufficiently large to generate reliable dates. Table 5-1 and Figure 5-13 place St. Francis Xavier into the context of 17th-century sites in the region. The distributions place St. Francis Xavier in the 1650s expansion period wherein colonists established themselves in the modern counties of Calvert, Charles, Prince George’s, and Anne Arundel. Pipestem bore 7/64ths dominates several assemblages from the region (including St. Francis Xavier) which analysts, through regression analysis and consideration of ceramics and other individual artifacts, attribute to the late 1650 through early 1670s.

Binford and Hanson formulas produced mean dates of 1658 and 1663, respectively. Given that the Brettons provided the land for a chapel and churchyard in 1661, these dates might seem suspiciously early. They are, after all, proxies for a measurement of the middle of an occupation, not its beginnings. One might argue that the dates are unreliable because of the small sample size of 122 measureable pipestem bores. Audrey Noel Hume made the argument years ago that large samples—thousands of stems—were necessary before the resulting regression values stabilized with little change despite increases to the samples; but her analysis demonstrated that with 30 to 60 measureable pipestem fragments, in most cases, the regression formulas yielded reliable, consistent dates. The apparent early mean values for St. Francis Xavier may be quite accurate if we consider the possibility—even the likelihood—that one of the Bretton’s 11 tenant households lived at the site prior to its dedication as a chapel and churchyard. In other words, the donation may have come with an extant houselot and habitable house. The Jesuit fathers and lay brothers, then, would have a place to live in while visiting the parish.

Not all of the tobacco pipe stems could be used in the regression analysis: the field team recovered a number of aboriginal pipes from the 75 excavation units, including several bowl fragments with recognizable portions of the “Running Deer” motif rouletted onto the sides (Figure 5-14).

Vessels

Despite the excavation of approximately 1800 ft², only 231 Colonial Era vessel sherds—glass and ceramic—have been recovered from St. Francis Xavier (Table 5-2; Figures 5-15 through 5-18). It is not unusual on Colonial era sites for single units to yield as many sherds. All of the material appears to be 17th century and one sherd appears to be North Holland slipware, a type generally attributable to the 1650s when illegal Dutch imports filled the niche vacated by British imports during the English Civil Wars (Gibb and Balla 1993). SERC citizen scientist and Certified Archeological Technician candidate George Riseling vesselized the ceramic portion of the assemblage, a summary of his work appearing as Table 5-3. Including the candlestick holder, these dozen and a half vessels are lead-glazed, tin-glazed, and stoneware vessels in both hollowware and flatware forms.

Decoration does figure heavily in the assemblage, especially if all tin-glazed earthenware was decorated: eight of the 18 vessels are tin-glazed or sgraffito wares. The two stonewares also likely had slip or medallion decorations. None of the vessels is whole or even close to whole. Probably none of the vessel is represented by more than a few percent of its original fabric. These likely are missed remnants of broken vessels and other detritus that were discarded during the course of regular housekeeping.
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<th>8/64</th>
<th>7/64</th>
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Figure 5-13. Distribution of pipestem bores for site in region.
Table 5-2. Vessels sherds by ware and type

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Table 5-3. Ceramic vessel summary

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</tr>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Earthenware, lead glazed</td>
<td>Morgan Jones?</td>
<td>Milk pan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Earthenware, lead glazed</td>
<td>North Devon sgraffito</td>
<td>Flatware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Earthenware, lead glazed</td>
<td>Morgan Jones?</td>
<td>Milk pan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Earthenware, lead glazed</td>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
<td>Bowl or Basin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Earthenware, lead glazed</td>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
<td>Indeterminate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 5-14. “Running Deer” pipe bowl fragments.

Figure 5-15. Candlestick holder and black-glazed redware handle.
Figure 5-16. North Devon sgraffito.

Figure 5-17. Tin-glazed earthenware.
RARE AND UNIQUE SMALL FINDS

St. Francis Xavier is not a rich site, apart from its innumerable fragments of unglazed floor tile, nails, and oyster shells. Rare and unique small finds, not surprisingly, are few. The field team did recover one-half of a pair of scissors and two clothing hooks (Figure 5-19). These types of artifacts are recovered from virtually all Colonial era sites where more than a few units are excavated. Two metal buttons also were recovered, but no pins or needles. Evidence for the making and repairing of clothing within the excavation area is slim.

Evidence of furnishings apart from the vessels and candlestick holder similar is sparse: two furniture tacks and a brass bed-curtain ring. Only one English flint strike-a-light and two English flint tertiary flakes were recovered. The team found no gunflints and only two lead shot.
Perhaps the most interesting artifact recovered during the June 2013 field session, or at any other time, from St. Francis Xavier is an approximately one-inch square fylfot stamped from a copper alloy sheet (Figure 5-20). George Riseling has researched the artifact and prepared a brief piece on it for an upcoming issue of *Maryland Archeology*. In brief, he has identified it as an English Roman Catholic vestment ornament.

![Figure 5-20. Fylfot.](image)

**ABORIGINAL COMPONENTS**

There are significant aboriginal components present within the portion of St. Francis Xavier tested since the end of 2010. Some of this material has been redeposited with the oyster shell and gravel quarried elsewhere and used as a pavement. Accokeek, Popes Creek, and Mockley pottery—some of it remnants of in situ potbreaks—have been recovered apart from and below the pavement. Detailed analysis of these materials and of the associated lithic material continues. The pottery, by weight, forms four spatial clusters (Figures 5-21 and 5-22).

The northernmost locus (Locus 1) yielded Early, Middle, and Late Woodland wares, with Accokeek dominating the assemblage (Table 5-4). Given the variety of wares recovered from so small an area, the prospects of distinguishing the non-ceramic aboriginal material by components seem dim.
Figure 5-21. Spatial clusters of aboriginal pottery, by weight.
Figure 5-22. Temporally diagnostic aboriginal artifacts.

Table 5-4. Locus 1 pottery wares

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STP/TU</th>
<th>Accokeek</th>
<th>Mockley</th>
<th>Mockley?</th>
<th>Popes Creek</th>
<th>Potomac Creek</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
<td>71.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>71.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>44.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>29.3</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>29.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>17.3</td>
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<td></td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>43.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td></td>
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<td>5.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>74</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>138.7</td>
<td>107.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>320.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Locus 2, the second smallest of the four in terms of total weight, also is dominated by Accokeek, coupled with a few Mockley sherds accounting for 10% of the sub-assemblage by weight (Table 5-5). Again, the prospect for separating Early from Middle Woodland non-ceramic materials seems poor.
Table 5-5. Locus 2 pottery wares

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STP/TU</th>
<th>Accokeek</th>
<th>Mockley</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>80.3</td>
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<td>47</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>17.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>132.3</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Locus 3 (Table 5-6) produced Accokeek and Mockley as well, although in different proportions, as well as some Potomac Creek. The earlier wares concentrated in Unit 13.

Table 5-6. Locus 3 pottery wares

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STP/TU</th>
<th>Accokeek</th>
<th>Mockley</th>
<th>Potomac Creek</th>
<th>Total</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
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<td>6.1</td>
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<td>6.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>71.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>236.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>178.5</td>
<td>71.3</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>259.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By weight, Locus 4 produced the least aboriginal pottery (Table 5-7), a sparseness accentuated by the relatively large number of units over which those finds spread (n=6). Potomac Creek and possible Potomac Creek. Although still a minority proportion, constitutes the largest percentage of the sub-assemblages for the four loci and the largest amount of Potomac Creek of any of the loci. Perhaps not coincidentally, the Locus 4 (South Locus) units also produced most of the aboriginal tobacco pipe fragments, and this is also where the European domestic refuse concentrates. Potomac Creek ware may be associated with the European activities on site. Further tests and probably additional excavation will be necessary to explore this relationship.

Table 5-7. Locus 4 pottery wares

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STP/TU</th>
<th>Accokeek?</th>
<th>Mockley</th>
<th>Popes Creek</th>
<th>Potomac Creek?</th>
<th>Potomac Creek</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
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<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
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<td>55</td>
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<td>46.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.9</td>
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Chapter 6. Summary, Conclusion, and Recommendations

Summary

The Archeological Society of Maryland’s June 2013 field session at St. Francis Xavier cemetery (18STR859) built on two years of survey, testing, and exploration. Archival, survey, and test excavation data all pointed to this being the site of the 1662 Jesuit chapel. There was no evidence of the chapel having burned (e.g., melted window glass and lead came, re-annealed iron nails) and, indeed, the highly fragmented nature of the window glass and unglazed floor tile suggested cannibalization of the building for materials; a process that likely occurred with its closing around 1704.

Fieldwork and analysis through March 2013 also produced evidence of a dwelling that might have started its existence in the 1650s as the house of one of the Bretton family’s tenant households before sheltering Jesuit fathers and lay brothers throughout the remainder of the cemetery. Clustered architectural material and a concentration of burned daub not seen elsewhere on site, coupled with the apparent shell and gravel pavement and concentration of domestic refuse in the southern part of the site, established the basis for designating this, the South Locus, as the residential component, in contrast to the chapel component of the North Locus.

Aboriginal material appeared to be spread across the site, some of it associated with the redeposited oyster shell midden, but some clearly deposited where it was originally discarded.

Excavations in June 2013 focused on these two areas. The North Locus work sought structural features of the chapel, a step toward delineating the building’s footprint. Five probable structural postholes were found, as well as several partial or poorly defined structural features. Reanalysis of architectural and domestic refuse spatial distributions further supported the hypothesis that the chapel was located in the North Locus.

South Locus testing did not encounter any structural features, but it bore out the pavement interpretation (there being increasingly larger quantities of gravel, rather than shell as more was uncovered) and it identified two intersecting cooking pits. Surface trend analyses bore out earlier findings and suggested a connection between the Late Woodland refuse and the European refuse. Tobacco pipe and vessel analysis place the European occupation squarely within the last half of the 17th century, beginning as early as the 1650s and possibly tailing off before the end of the century.

Conclusions

The work to date leaves room for additional analyses to test associations among classes of material culture. The basic findings, however, seem well-supported: a chapel with associated dwelling and pavement, the dwelling likely built and occupied by Bretton tenants before conveyance for use of the Jesuits. The chapel was dismantled around the end of the 17th century. Whether the tenants or the Jesuits or both interacted directly with Native Americans remains uncertain, but the available evidence certainly suggests a connection.

Recommendations

The only way to fully delineate the footprints of the chapel and dwelling, as well as the full extent of the pavement, is through additional excavation. Further fieldwork also may result in the discovery of one or more trash deposits in which the bulk of the occupants’ refuse came to rest. Expansion of the block excavations should pursue the footprints of both buildings while seeking other elements of the built 17th century landscape.
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Griffith, Daniel R.

Hanson, Lee H.

Harrington, Jean C.

Himmelheber, Peter
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title</th>
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<tr>
<td>Land Records of St. Mary’s County</td>
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<td>Land records, patents, warrants, rent rolls, wills, and guardian accounts available at the Maryland State Archives, Annapolis, and the St. Mary’s County Courthouse, Leonardtown, Maryland.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Marks, Bayly Ellen</td>
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<tr>
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Education
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Select Publications
1999 A Layperson’s Guide to Historical Archaeology in Maryland. Archeological Society of Maryland. (Editor and contributor)
1997 Selby Bay Phase Subsistence Strategies at the Smithsonian Pier Site, Anne Arundel County, Maryland. Maryland Archaeology. 33(1&2): 59–76. (with Anson H. Hines)
1995 The History of Helb Barn. The Calvert Historian 10(2):5–18. (with Matt Croson)
1994 “Dwell Here, Live Plentifully, and Be Rich”: Consumer Behavior and the Interpretation of 17th Century Archaeological Assemblages from the Chesapeake Bay Region. UMI, Ann Arbor Michigan.
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BS Information Systems Management  
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Over 13 years of land surveying experience as well as field and lab archaeology experience.  
2006 Certification in Advanced Historic Cemetery Repair and Preservation, National Center for Preservation Training and Technology, National Park Service.  
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Vice Chairman of the St. Mary’s County Historic Preservation Commission. 2009 - present  
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Projects:
- Phase I investigations at St. Francis Xavier Cemetery, Newtown, Maryland 2011  
- Investigations and mapping at St. Francis Xavier Cemetery, Newtown, Maryland 2011  
- Investigations and mapping at the Carter’s United Methodist Church Cemetery, Friendship, Maryland. 2010  
- Investigations, mapping, and repair of the Union United Methodist Cemetery, Lothian, Maryland. 2010  
- Investigations and mapping at the St. Mary’s Church Cemetery, Bryantown, Maryland. 2010  
- Investigations, mapping, stone recovery and stone repair at the St. Nicholas Cemetery, NAS Patuxent River, Maryland, 2003-2009  
- Stone repair at Trinity Church Cemetery, St. Mary’s City, Maryland. 2008  
- Investigations and mapping of an unmarked burial site, Prince Frederick, Maryland. 2007  
- Stone repair at the Johnson Family Cemetery, Howard County, Maryland. 2007  
- Stone repair at Staytonville Cemetery, Staytonville, Delaware. 2007.  
- Investigations, mapping, and repair of the Harrison Cemetery, Huntingtown, Maryland. 2007  
- Stone repair at St. Andrew’s Church, Leonardtown, Maryland. 2006  
- Investigations and mapping at the Hencoop Cemetery, Scotland, Maryland. 2006  
- Investigations, mapping, and repair of the Griffin Cemetery, Dameron, Maryland. 2004  
- Investigations, mapping, and repair at Mount Tirzah Cemetery, Charles County, Maryland. 2004  
- Investigations and stone cleaning at Deep Falls Cemetery, Chaptico, Maryland. 2003  
- Stone repair at the Collinson Family Cemetery, Mayo, Maryland. 2008  
- Archaeology projects at: St. Mary’s City, Webster Field, Fells Point, Port Tobacco and numerous others between 1981 and 2011.

Articles, reports, and conference papers:  
2006 A Phase I Intensive Archaeological Survey of the Burch House Site (18CH765), Port Tobacco, Charles County, Maryland By James G. Gibb and Scott D. Lawrence  
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1994 – President’s Freshman Award for Scholarship, Pennsylvania State University
1993-1997 – Dean’s List, Pennsylvania State University

**Presentations include:**
2014 “Out of the shadows . . . .”: Examining Historic-Period Ceramics Using Subtypological Analysis—Society for Historical Archaeology Annual Conference; Quebec City, Quebec, CAN

2013 Prehistoric Ceramics in an Historical Context—Archaeological Society of Maryland’s 2013 Tyler Bastian Field Session; St. Francis Xavier Cemetery (18ST859) near Leonardtowne, MD

2013 A Material World: Artifacts, Their Stories, and the People They Represent—Museum of the Grand Prairie Archaeology Lecture Series; Mahomet, IL

2013 Negotiating Changing Chesapeake Identities: Indigenous Women’s Influence on the Transformation of Seventeenth-Century English Immigrant Culture in Maryland—Society for Historical Archaeology Annual Conference; Leicester, Leicestershire, GBR

2012 These Pots DO Talk: Seventeenth-Century Native American Women’s Influence on Creolization in the Chesapeake Region—Society for Historical Archaeology Annual Conference; Baltimore, MD

2011 The Arrival of Europeans in Eastern North America: Can we really call it the ‘contact period’?—Guest Lecturer, North American Archaeology (ANT 384), Illinois State University; Normal, IL

2011 “All this is chiefly the women’s work . . . .: Analyzing Engendered Women’s Artifacts from the Fort Period at Jamestown”—Illinois State University Graduate Symposium, Poster Session; Normal, IL