Castello di Tricosto (GR)

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Introduction

The original project at the Castello di Tricosto at Capalibiaccio started in 1976, with the objective of understanding the transformations over time of the Ager Cosanus from the Roman period through the Middle Ages (fig. 1). While the area had been excavated since the beginning of the 20th century by Classicists, the director of the project, Stephen L. Dyson (State University of New York, Buffalo), turned his attention to one of the few medieval castles to the south of the Roman colony of Cosa, along the Via Aurelia. This was a pioneering period for medieval archaeology.

Dyson led three campaigns in 1976, 1978, and 1980, respectively, which resulted in a preliminary report of the findings (fig. 2)\(^1\). Recently, a team headed by Michelle Hobart (The Cooper Union, New York) came together to publish the results of the analysis of the material excavated by Dyson and interpret the settlement on the basis of new research done in the region\(^2\). What follows are the results from the 2009 campaign, which intended to discover whether there were earlier settlements below the standing castle, as suggested by material culture deriving from periods predating the medieval occupation of the hilltop. The team further cataloged every standing medieval wall and recorded their different construction techniques, in an attempt to establish a relative chronology for the site and to find parallels with nearby castles and medieval settlements. In 2009, the team also surveyed areas with no standing structures using geophysical technology, further exploring the possibility of classical settlements. For the post-Medieval period, cartography and land registries were compared to material finds. The final goal of this study is to unite all of the information deriving from the

\(^{1}\) Dyson 1984.

1970s excavations and the recent survey of the site to create a GIS platform and expand the understanding of the dynamics of settlement patterns in central Italy.

The Castello di Tricosto Through History

The presence of much Bronze Age and early Etruscan pottery at Capalbiaccio revealed that the first settlers date from the 9th and 8th centuries BC. As the pottery shows, the original community was rather large and fairly important. It seems to have covered the entire area of the castle and more, since the early pottery was found in all the trenches that were excavated to the bedrock. Furthermore, the relatively large amount of classical pottery found at Capalbiaccio (1188 fragments) during the three years of excavation gives a good indication of the importance of the earlier settlements. Compared with the other sites on Tyrrenian Coast, the diversity of the classical pottery suggests that Capalbiaccio was a crucial point of cross-cultural intersections.

Sparse traces of a Roman settlement were found, after which a long period of abandonment is testified to by a thick layer of earth bearing no material. Unfortunately, documentation reveals nothing for this period. Then, the hilltop was once more inhabited during the end of the 9th or early 10th century AD. It is possible that there was a curtis at Capalbiaccio during the resettlement phase. Recent research undertaken in Tuscany intimates that many castles developed over an existing settlement that overlooked the surrounding territory; or what is known as a curtis3. In time, as the curtis grew more powerful, these open structures were walled in and transformed into closed systems that became the original castles4.

The castle of Tricosto on the Capalbiaccio hill, together with many other sites, was part of the property of the Aldobrandeschi family. The vast territory that the family controlled for more than 400 years included most of the Tuscan region. The Aldobrandeschi, descended from the Lombards and originally tied to the bishopric of Lucca, inherited their properties from Carolingian rulers. The Aldobrandeschi enjoyed a privileged and at times controversial relationship with the Roman church, whereby yearly taxes were paid for use of the properties and military defense5.

By the 13th century, the rising power of the commune of Orvieto began challenging the Aldobrandeschi family and by November 1223, the castles of Tricosto, Marsiliana, Scerpenna, and Capalbio, after more than ten years of attempts to remain independent, fell under Orvieto’s control6. By the beginning of the 14th century, Siena, whose strength was increasing, was also competing for former Aldobrandeschi territories. In 1417, the Senese had acquired most of the family’s territory and the castle of Tricosto was destroyed and abandoned. Thereafter, the hill of Capalbiaccio would never be the same again, becoming one of the many abandoned villages in Tuscany.

The hill of Capalbiaccio and the castle of Tricosto in Southern Maremma, with its long settlements and periods of abandonment, represents, on a micro level, the changes that occurred in the area throughout the centuries. Today the territory is part of the two communes of Orbetello (Cosa/Ansedonia) and Capalbio (Tricosto) and the land now belongs in different percentages to the local farmers who live in the area.

Michelle Hobart

Magnetic Prospecting at the Castello di Tricosto

The Castle of Tricosto’s fortifications enclose a surface area of ca. 13,600 square meters, which is laid out in roughly the shape of an oval and is divided into two zones separated by a massive fortified partition. The first (Area A) and more extensive of the two zones occupies the northern area of the castle, in which rise the remains of a fortified town with a tower, some houses, and a church. The second smaller area (Area B) lies to the south and seems to have been free of structures, save some walls situated near the stone fortification (fig. 3).

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4 Wickham 1990: 98, n. 30; cites Cecarelli Lemut’s example of the Scarlino castle and its precedent curtis. See the data collected for northern part of Maremma on curtis and incastellamento in Cecarelli Lemut 1985; Francovich 2008.
5 Caimarosano 1998: 76, 120, 183.
Fig. 4. Plan showing the areas explored via magnetic prospecting.

Fig. 5. Plan showing the anomalous masonry structures discovered via magnetic prospecting.
The conditions of the site do not allow magnetic measurements to be taken on the entire site, but only in limited areas of the castle, because dense vegetation and thick layers of debris from the ruins cover much of the surface.

The probe concentrated on two areas: the first (henceforth designated as Probe 1) is situated in the southern zone of the castle (Area B), beyond the wall that divides the castle, and covers around 1300 square meters; the second, much smaller area (Probe 2) is about 300 square meters and is situated in the northern part of the castle (Area A), beyond the immense masonry partition. Magnetic testing was conducted with the aim of verifying the presence of masonry structures, especially in Probe 1, where the discovery of ceramic material and brick fragments (tiles and caning) from Etruscan and Roman times might allow one to hypothesize the existence of an habitation or an area of occupancy prior to the establishment of the medieval castle.

The probe was conducted with a fluxgate gradiometer, type FM256 by Geoscan. Probe 1 was subdivided into 12 quadrants of 10 square meters on the interior of which data was collected every 50 cms along sections 50 cm apart, proceeding in a northeasterly direction, for a total of 4800 readings. Probe 2 was subdivided into 3 quadrants of 10 square meters and in this case too, the measurements were done every 50 cm along sections 50 cm apart, for a total of 1200 readings (fig. 4).

The results obtained during the study have made possible the detection of numerous anomalies — above all in Probe 1 — many of which are attributable to masonry structures buried in the ground (fig. 5). Numerous alignments oriented in a NE-SW and NW-SE direction were discovered in both Probes 1 & 2. These indicate the presence of many masonry structures in the subsoil. The structures identified present a different orientation with respect to the structures and buildings that are still standing and those that were brought to light with excavations in other zones of the site. The sole exception consists of a wall — added to the map during the campaign of January 2009 — which lies in Area A and which seemed to follow the direction of the structures beneath the surface (fig. 5, n. 1).

In addition to being oriented differently with respect to the structures of the castle, the masonry structures that were detected by the survey bisect the stone fortifications of the castle and thus appear to belong to an earlier phase. In effect, the presence of materials from the Etruscan and Roman period, which were found by survey in Probe 1, confirm that the area was already occupied before the castle was built in the Middle Ages. These finds suggest a more ancient phase of occupation, which would also explain the different structural configurations in this zone with respect to the rest of the castle and the nearly complete absence of medieval walls preserved in Area B.

The data obtained from the survey is encouraging and it makes it possible to reconstruct a good portion of the castle's area that had not hitherto been elucidated by archaeological excavations. If the hypothesis that the structures detected by geophysics belong to a pre-medieval period is correct, then it is possible to conjecture that in the Middle Ages, Area B was a zone free of structures, used perhaps as a garden. Such a hypothesis might also account for the dividing wall, which separated this zone from the rest of the castle, possibly for defensive reasons or to exclude an area that was no longer important.

Laura Cerri

Digital Elevation Modeling

The topographic survey of the fortified village of Tricosto has two distinguished aspects: an updating of Dyson’s plan and a second more extensive project, that of documenting the landscape of the area using DGPS (Differential GPS, Trimble 5700). In this preliminary phase, we used a total
station Leica Tps 400 to establish the topographical system by creating a series of stations with an open polygonal plan and anchoring data on visible structures. On this platform, we’ve established an ideal squared grid (10 x 10 m) to physically investigate the eastern part of the settlement. In the central area of the settlement, we have added to Dyson’s plan some emerging walls that seem to be connected with the rest of the houses in the medieval village (fig. 3, Bldg. H, N, and G). We also identified a smaller secondary entrance (the opening measuring 1.25 m) and a second church, both dated, via masonry technique, to the 13th century phase. Another objective was to identify the original circulation system that, from the valley, reached the hilltop. We have identified the roads, which touch five different springs: fontanile del Tricosto, fontanile della ‘mortella,’ fontanile dello stregone, and fontanile del Salaiolo I & II (fig. 6).

Analysis of the Standing Medieval Structures

The purpose of the 2009 season was that of identifying the relative chronologies of all the standing structures by applying the recent methods of the archaeology of architecture. The first step was to photograph the 32 different buildings evidenced in the castle walls, with a detailed description of the masonry techniques (fig. 7). For the best-preserved structures, we applied photo-correction to counteract distortion, using a total station.

The defensive circuit, of which only random fragments survive, is adapted to the morphology of the hilltop (fig. 8). The fortified settlement consists of about 1.3 hectares and is positioned on the oblong hilltop with a north-south axis, parallel to the coast. It is about 6 km distant to the village of Capalbio and is 4.5 km to the Via Aurelia. Most of our research has focused in the area (A) with the most standing structures and the one investigated by Dyson.
in the 1970s. Inside the settlement, a large number of buildings survive partially and contribute to the understanding of the nature of the settlement at its maximum development, which suggests a community of some importance. The dating of the structures has been ascertained by a close observation of building techniques and how the walls connect to one-another. This vertical matrix provides a relative chronology. By observing how the stones were cut and the tools used therein, the nature of the mortar, and finally comparing them with other examples in the area, allows for a better understanding of the architectural development of the site. However, at Capalbiaccio, a number of masonry techniques that have not yet been documented in the region appear.

The recording of the walls indicates that three major building phases took place during the medieval period. The first stage consists of only 2 buildings: a tall tower (5=E) that is small in area and a single-nave and apse church (1=D) oriented east-west (fig. 9). The masonry technique is typified by the well-carved square stones that are common to 12th century religious construction, known from many examples throughout Tuscany (fig. 7a).

The second stage signifies the true growth of this proto-communal village in the 13th century. There are three major types of structures: a tall circuit city wall wide enough to allow one to walk on top of it, residences, and the palatial compound (fig. 10). There were two entrances through the walls: the major one to the north and a smaller one on the southern border. The identified residences are aligned in two parallel rows; each unit was at least two stories in height and abutted its neighbor. In the northern part of the site in front of the main gate, on the highest part of the hilltop, a wide manor house (palazzo) (18) was surrounded by three other structures: one on its eastern side (19), the largest on its southern side, and a third tower, with a small scarp, abutting the circuit wall (20). Between the gate and the compound, a wide rectangular structure (17=K) with 2 central pilasters, seems to have had some form of public function as either a covered marketplace or a civic area. Against the western exterior of
Fig. 10. Phase 2 indicating the walls built during the 13th century.

the surviving wall a semi-circular cistern seems to have been available for public use (fig. 11). In front of this structure, looking east, an open area was delimited by a second church (2=D).

In the third and final phase, from the end of the 13th to the early 14th century, the area of the community was reduced with the construction of a thick and well-defended wall running east-west on the southern part of the hilltop (fig. 12 and 13). This wall integrated the 12th century church (1=D), blocking the original entrance, and creating the need for a new threshold to the building. The wall completely cut off access to the southern part of the original fortified village. It can be suggested that this event was tied to a change of owner, just prior to the arrival of the Siene and the decline of Capalbiacco. We know from the documents that by this time, the site was ruled by the Orsini of Pitigliano, under the auspices of the commune of Orvieto. During this period, one final monumental residence (3=J) was added to the northwestern circuit wall. Among its notable elements, this building was equipped with interior running water.

Irene Corti

Material Culture

1. Classical

The finds presented here are few, but they provide an accurate chronological sequence of the earlier settlements. The site of Capalbiacco seems to have been first inhabited in the late Bronze Age–early Iron Age. It was used for a short period and then apparently abandoned until the end of 7th century BC, when traces of a Etruscan settlement appear between the 6th and 5th century, which has been confirmed by the magnetometry. Between the 4th century BC and the 5th century AD, there are scattered signs of habitation at Capalbiacco. Beginning with the Romanization of Etruria and the conquest of Vulci, local settlement patterns are believed to have shifted with the creation of new Roman towns that
Fig. 12. Phase 3 indicating the walls built during the 14th century.

Fig. 13. The dividing wall of the castle, built during Phase 3 (14th century). Photo: Hermann Salvadori.
likely replaced older Etruscan villages. Therefore, the little evidence that survives at Capalbiaccio from the Roman Era is most likely linked to the creation of the nearby colony of Cosa in 273 BC. After a long period of abandonment of the hilltop, beginning in the Roman Era, Capalbiaccio was resettled as early as the late 9th century. Dyson’s stratigraphic approach identified 6 periods (called levels) that correspond to a chronological sequence. Level 1 is just below surface, while level 6 is the oldest in time (read from top to bottom). The classical material all derives from the bedrock, 6th, and 5th level, with the exception of Fabric A, all fabrics were wheel-made.

1.1 Classical Fabrics

With the exception of Fabric A, all Fabric were wheel-made.

Fabric A (Late Bronze Age and Iron Age)
Color: internal: dark brown; external: ranging from black/dark brown to reddish-brown depending on firing conditions. Inclusions: small quartzite; medium and small augite; small black. Fracture: irregular, with voids. Surface: burnished. Decoration: incised or cordons.

Fabric B (Corinthian pottery)

Fabric C (Etrusco-Corinthian pottery)

Fabric D (Attic black figure pottery)

Fabric E (Bucchero pottery)

Fabric F (Grey bucchero)

Fabric G (Red ware)
Color: pink-orange (internal); surface from red/dark-red to strong orange. Inclusions: small/very small quartzite and augite. Fracture: irregular with very small voids. Surface: red slip.

Fabric H (Coarseware)
Color: dark brown (internal); surface from dark to light brown, to reddish brown, depending on the firing conditions. Inclusions: small/very small quartzite; medium/small/very small mica; some small stones. Fracture: irregular with very small voids. Surface: mostly smooth, with a slip; a few examples have a rough surface.

Fabric I (Cream coarseware)
Color: Light pink-light or yellowish. Inclusions: small quartzite; small augite and black; small ‘chamotte’. Fracture: irregular with very small voids. Surface: rough.

Fabric L (Fine creamware)

Fabric M (Etruscan Amphorae)

Fabric N (Black-glazed pottery)

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7 CARANDINI, CAMBI 2002.
Fabric O (Black-glazed pottery)
**Color:** light grey. **Glaze:** black dull, thick covering. **Inclusions:** very well depurated. **Fracture:** regular.

Fabric P
**Color:** orange. **Inclusions:** small quartzite, augite and black. **Fracture:** irregular with medium-small voids. **Surface:** rough.

Fabric Q (Roman coarseware)
**Color:** varying from yellowish to pink to light grey. **Inclusions:** small black, augite and quartzite. **Fracture:** regular with small voids. **Surface:** rough.

Fabric R (Roman coarseware)
**Color:** brown. **Inclusions:** small and medium augite, quartzite and stony. **Fracture:** irregular with large voids. **Surface:** rough.

Fabric S (Roman coarseware)
**Color:** light, varying from greyish to pink. **Inclusions:** small black, quartzite and augite. **Fracture:** regular.

Fabric T (Roman coarseware)
**Color:** white-light yellow. **Inclusions:** very depurated clay, medium and small black and quartzite. **Fracture:** irregular with small voids. **Surface:** rough.

Fabric U (Roman coarseware)
**Color:** pink-yellowish. **Inclusions:** small black. **Fracture:** regular. **Surface:** rough.

Valeria Acconcia

2. Early Medieval

The coarseware from the 10th century that was excavated at the Castello di Tricosto represents an important economic indicator of the near- and long-range trade in which the early medieval inhabitants engaged.\(^8\) The material fully reflects regional commonalities in terms of socio-economic exchange in the 10th century AD.\(^8\)

Of the pottery used for transportation, the most significant discovery from this period was a large amount of *amphorae biansate* (two-handled amphorae, fig. 14). While no fabric analysis has yet been undertaken in order to identify the center of production and past contents of these wares, it is, at this point, possible to make comparisons with other sites in the region. These are quite frequent from the 8th century to the 11th century in southern Tuscany. The term *amphorae* was used throughout the centuries and its profusion suggests that, at the time, copious amounts of these vessels in different sizes were used towards diverse ends. The smaller 8th–11th century amphorae seem to have been designed for overland and fluvial transportation and they are known to have contained liquids, such as oil and wine, which represent a fundamental aspect of the early medieval economy of the region.

The most intriguing and anomalous finds at the hill of Capalbiaccio were coarsewares that share similarities with pottery fragments that have been found in the northern part of Latium and in Rome (some tale and storage wares and also kitchen wares, at least 11 *olle*, fig. 15). Further, the presence of Forum ware, sparse glaze, and some depurated coarseware, also present at Cosa, testifies to the existence of commerce that connects Rome to southern Tuscany and which is relevant only for sites of the *Ager Cosanus* formerly dependent on the Roman monastery of Sant’Anastasio\(^9\).

2.1 Early Medieval Fabrics (Xth – Xith c.)

There are three different types of fabrics: Grezze: G1–7 (coarseware), Acroma Depurata: AD1–4 (depurated ware), and Selecionata: Sel1 (selected). And also fragments of Dipinta di Rosso DR1–2 (Red Painted).

Impasto G1 (fig. 15, nn. 1–3, 14)
**Production:** Roma o Lazio; **Chronology:** X secolo; **Hardness:** abbastanza duro; **Fracture:** da regolare a concoide; **Texture:** italata ed omogenea; impasto ben cernito; inclusi presenti nell’ordine del 10-15%; **Inclusions:** presenza di calcare, calcite, feldspati, quarzi e in misura più contenuta di muscovite (inclusi molto minuti pari a 0,1-0,2 mm). La dimensione degli inclusi varia da 0,1 a 0,6 mm, mediamente 0,2-0,3 mm. La loro forma è generalmente sub-arrotondata;

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\(^8\) Here and in what follows, ‘coarseware’ refers to storage wares (amphorae), kitchen ware (cooking pots with inclusions), and domestic wares (table and service wares).

\(^9\) LLOYD 2006.
Fig. 14. Acroma Depurata types from the early medieval period at Capalbiaccio (10th century).
Fig. 15 Coarseware and Dipinta di Rosso types from the early medieval period at Capalbiaccio (10th century).

**Porousness:** pori nell’ordine del 10% circa, di forma prevalentemente arrotondata e misuranti <0,1 mm; **Color:** da 2.5YR 6/6 light red a 2.5YR /1 reddish black.

Impasto G2 (fig. 15, nn. 4, 12)

**Production:** locale o sub-regionale, confronti con Poggio Cavolo; **Chronology:** seconda metà del X secolo; **Hardness:** duro; **Fracture:** leggermente irregolare; **Texture:** ialale ed omogenea. Rapporto inclusi/matrice 25/30%. Ben cernito; **Inclusions:** inclusi delle dimensioni da 0,1/0,2 a 0,6 mm, in media 0,2-0,3 mm. Inclusi sub-angolosi ad alta sfericità. Presenza di quarzi alcuni feldspati mentre sono rari i cristalli di calcite; **Porousness:** pori nell’ordine del 10/15%. Pori allungati ed orientati, delle dimensioni da 0,2 a 0,5 mm, prevalenti quelli di 0,3 mm; **Color:** presenza dell’anima grigia (GREY 2 4/1 dark greenish gray) in alcuni frammenti, ma generalmente è 2.5YR 5/8 red; la superficie è 5YR reddish brown 5/4.
Impasto G3 (fig. 15, n. 5)  
**Production:** locale o sub-regionale, confronto con Santa Rufina, campagna Romana; **Hardness:** duro; **Fracture:** leggermente irregolare; **Texture:** iatale ed omogenea. Rapporto inclusi/matrice 30/40%. Impasto ben cernito; **Inclusions:** dimensione degli inclusi da 0,1 a 0,5 mm, dimensione media 0,2-0,3 mm. Inclusi arrotondati a bassa sfericità. Presenza dominante di cristalli di calcite e i quarzi; la biotite è rara; si osservano pochi frammenti di aggregati polimaterici caratterizzati da associazione di quarzo e bitotite. Presenza ancor più rara di ossidi di ferro; **Porousness:** pori presenti nell’ordine del 5/10%, di forma prevalentemente arrotondata e delle dimensioni di 0,1; **Color:** colore grigio in frattura (Grey1 6/1 greenish gray); superficie: 2.5YR 5/6 red.

Impasto G4 (fig. 15, nn. 10–11, 13)  
**Production:** locale o sub-regionale; **Hardness:** abbastanza duro; **Fracture:** irregolare; **Texture:** iatale ed omogenea; ben cernito; inclusi nell’ordine del 15%; **Inclusions:** presenza di calcite, quarto e bitotite; dimensioni da 0,2 a 0,8 mm; la forma degli inclusi è arrotondata e a bassa sfericità; **Porousness:** pori nell’ordine del 5-10%; pori arrotondati del diametro di 0,1 mm; **Color:** spesso bicromo, dal rosso al rossogrigio (2.5YR 5/8 red - 2.5YR 3/1 dark reddish gray).

Impasto G5 (fig. 15, nn. 7–8)  
**Production:** Roma o Lazio (?), confronto con domus solarate del Foro di Nerva
text

Impasto G6 (fig. 15, n. 9)  
**Production:** sub-regionale o laziale, presenza di augite che rinvia ad un’area vulcanica; **Hardness:** poco duro; **Fracture:** molto frastagliata; **Texture:** iatale ed omogenea; abbastanza ben cernito; inclusi nell’ordine del 5-10%; **Inclusions:** dimensioni variabili da 0,1 a 0,5 mm; inclusi arrotondati e ad alta sfericità; presenza di quarzi e alcuni frammenti di calcite, rarissima bitotite e muscovite; il calcare è molto raro. Pochi ossidi di ferro; **Porousness:** pori nell’ordine del 5%, prevalentemente di forma arrotondata e delle dimensioni di <0,1 mm; **Color:** da 2.5YR 6/6 light red a 2.5YR 5/6 red.

Impasto AD1 (fig. 14, nn. 1–8)  
**Production:** provenienza non determinabile; **Chronology:** X secolo; **Hardness:** duro; **Fracture:** regolare; **Texture:** iatale ed omogenea; impasto cernito; **Inclusions:** inclusi nell’ordine del <5%; essi sono arrotondati e ad alta sfericità; dimensioni variabili da 0,08 a 0,2 mm, ma in genere minutissimi. Si osservano in prevalenza cristalli di calcite, rari anche frammenti di bitotite; **Porousness:** pori nell’ordine del 5%, prevalentemente di forma arrotondata e delle dimensioni di <0,1 mm; **Color:** 10YR 5/1 reddish gray.

Impasto AD2 (fig. 16)  
**Production:** provenienza non determinabile; **Chronology:** X secolo; **Hardness:** duro; **Fracture:** da regolare a irregolare; **Texture:** seriale ed omogenea. Impasto ben cernito; **Inclusions:** inclusi nell’ordine del <5%; essi sono arrotondati e ad alta sfericità; dimensioni variabili da 0,08 a 0,2 mm, ma in genere minutissimi. Si osservano in prevalenza cristalli di quarzo e raro calcare; **Porousness:** pori nell’ordine del 5%, prevalentemente di forma arrotondata e delle dimensioni <0,1 mm; **Color:** 10YR 6/8 brownish yellow.

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10 Thanks to Dr. De Luca for sharing information concerning Roman findings from Nerva’s Forum.
Fig. 16 Acroma Depurata types from the early medieval period at Capalbiaccio (10th century).

Impasto AD3 (fig. 16)
**Production:** provenienza non determinabile; **Chronology:** X secolo; **Hardness:** duro; **Fracture:** regolare; **Texture:** seriale ed omogenea; impasto cernito; **Inclusions:** inclusi <5%; impasto ricco di calcare, si osservano anche alcuni quarzi e ossidi di ferro; le dimensioni degli inclusi sono in media di 0,2 mm; la loro forma è sub-arrotondata; **Porousness:** pori nell’ordine del 5% circa, di forma arrotondata e misuranti in media <0,1 mm; **Color:** 10YR 6/8 light red.

Impasto AD4
**Production:** possibile provenienza laziale; **Hardness:** abbastanza duro; **Fracture:** leggermente irregolare; **Texture:** iatale e omogenea; impasto ben cernito; **Inclusions:** inclusi presenti nell’ordine del 5-7%; inclusi di forma sub-arrotondata e ad alta sfericità; si osservano in ordine quantitativo cristalli di calcite, quarzi, calcare e muscovite ed infine rara augite (un frammento di 1,3 mm). La dimensione degli inclusi varia da 0,08 a 0,5 mm; **Porousness:** pori nell’ordine del 5% circa, prevalentemente arrotondati e delle dimensioni di <0,1 mm; **Color:** 2.5YR 5/6 red.
Impasto Sel1

**Hardness:** abbastanza duro; **Fracture:** concoide; **Texture:** iatale ed omogenea; impasto ben cernito; **Inclusions:** presenti nell’ordine del 7-10% circa; si osservano soprattutto ossidi di ferro, ma anche cristalli di calcite, quarzo e feldspati. Le dimensioni variano da 0,1 a 0,8 mm; **Porousness:** pori nell’ordine del 5% circa; prevalentemente arrotondati e delle dimensioni di <0,1 mm; **Color:** 2.5YR 6/8 light red; talvolta è presente l’anima grigia (2.5YR 7/1 light reddish gray).

Impasto DR1 = AD2 (fig. 15, N.7)
Impasto DR2 = AD3 (fig. 15, N.8)

Emanuele Vaccaro

3. Medieval (XIIth – XIVth c.)

The medieval coarse and semi-depurated wares have been sorted according to their different fabrics and analyzed macroscopically. Ideally we would integrate this data with proper mineralogical analysis to identify if there is correlation with the glazed pottery production centers, but this has not yet taken place. For this later period, we have three major distinctive fabrics, which appear in the later strata (levels) and date from the 12th to the 14th century. Slight variations of these fabrics have not been included here in the interest of saving space.

3.1 Medieval Fabrics

Fabric 1.

Porous clay with small random white, black, and quartz inclusions. The color shifts from dark orange to dark leather. The shape of the testi varies from completely flat to almost vertical rims, which are both rounded and pointed. The technique is mixed: thrown and in some cases finished by hand. The large amount of this fabric suggests a local workshop and a common source for the clay. There are a number of interesting samples of rimless testo that have large grooves made with either a finger or a thick stick. Fabric 1 has been found in all medieval levels (1–4)\(^{11}\).

Fabric 2.

Characterized by larger inclusions in a hard and less porous fabric, although it is similar to Fabric 1 in texture. The color ranges from dark leather to rusty orange. The surface is smooth with traces of fingerprints. Both internally and externally there are traces of fine lines or filettatura. Thrown technique. There are testi, lids, and smaller containers (ollette). All of the lids are similar in shape and in most cases their diameter could cover pots (olle) and pans (tegami). Unfortunately, none of the pieces contain surviving traces of the handle. The profiles differ slightly from the testi of Fabric 1 in their height (taller) and in their reduced thickness. The fact that the clay is not burnt, as are the rest of the testi, strengthens the lid hypothesis. However, there is a chance these were unused testi. This fabric is found in levels 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, although the majority comes from level 2.

Fabric 3.

The small inclusions of quartz, black, and white differ only in color; some are more clear beige, while others tend towards pink. The clay is compact and less porous than Fabric 1. Lids, pans, and pots (olle) are made out of this fabric. The shapes of the testi’s rims are similar in this group: squared and flattened. There are two testi with a complete profile. These could have been made with a wheel and finished by hand. The bottom is very thick compared to the vertical rims, which are thinner towards the end. Other shapes include low thick pans and small pots (ollette). Some of the fragments in this group show calcareous residuals. Fragments of Fabric 3 are present in levels 1, 2, and 3.

Michelle Hobart

The Post-Medieval Period

During the 2009 season, survey exploration was undertaken around the castle. The objective was to examine the castle and its vicinity in a broader spatial and temporal context with regard for the various phases of the site’s occupation, that is, without isolating it from the region where it was built or from the historical shifts that have affected it diachronically. The data from the previous excavation was integrated with the new information considering the period after the site’s abandonment.

This research on the Castello di Tricosto is part of a larger project aimed at comprehending the transformation of the agricultural terrain in the province of Grosseto between the late 13th and 16th centuries. Its point

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\(^{11}\) HOBART et. al. 2009.
of departure is the analysis of the phenomenon of fortification in southern Tuscany. The peculiarity of this area of Tuscany is in fact the absence of prominent urban centers. Grosseto and Massa Marittima were cities in the full sense of the term for a little over two centuries, but never played an urban role comparable to that of Siena or Pisa. Written sources present a highly diversified panorama lying between Siena and the Maremma, with no attestation of a systematized community. This gives rise to the following two scenarios/questions: Did castles still function as “central places” after the decline of the fortified village? Or, rather, should we assume that in the late 14th century a process of re-fragmentation distributed the population into rural settlements, of which there is no archaeological evidence in the preceding centuries?

Archaeological data suggests that the dynamics and the period of depopulation be treated with caution. It encourages a more articulated view than the one granted by written sources. For instance, the mention of an abandoned castle in the literature can in fact refer not so much to a complete cessation of human habitation, but to a complex network of social and institutional functions that may have been related to the fortified village of the 12th and 13th centuries. Moreover, sporadic and seasonal occupations, which were not recorded in written sources, can be documented through archaeological investigation. The main goal of the research is to target the phases of the castle’s abandonment, distinguish the forms of its successive reorganizations (either in the case of abandonment and subsequent occupation, or in that of transformations effected by changing political conditions at the site between the 16th and 17th century), and finally determine the degree to which this evidence can be comprehended in consideration of textual sources.

The literature used herein mainly consists of Emanuele Repetti’s Dizionario Geografico e Storico della Toscana and Leopold’s Catasto of 1823-25, land registries and cartographic sources that, while not precise geographical indicators, do provide information on sparsely populated sites, canalization, types of cultivation, and conditions, all of which are useful in providing a diachronic view of the region. The archaeological data used in this study further derives from a systematic consultation of the published literature relating to the period in question, drawn from excavations and non-destructive means, such as evidence provided by extant stone structures. All this information will be added to the archives provided by GIS bases of the ASFAT (Atlante dei Siti Fortificati d’Altura della Toscana).

The summit of the plateau on which the fortified village of Tricosto lies has been the object of intense exploration, organized according to three macro areas: the zone north of the wall fortifying the castle, the zone south of it, and the zone lying outside the wall girding the village. The material found on the surface contained mostly ceramic fragments datable to between the 12th and the first half of the 14th century. Although the presence of two conditions, all of which are useful in providing a diachronic view of the region, the material culture.

The date that emerges from the recovered materials in this phase of research, however, seems to disagree slightly with that appearing in written sources. In fact, documents report that in 1417, the General Council of the Republic of Siena deliberated over a proposal to destroy the fort of Tricosto. The motive that led the Sienese to view the destruction of Tricosto as necessary (that it was “an inconvenient and a useless expense,” the possession of which could be “rather harmful”) suggests that the Castello was already on the verge of depopulation. It may not have been by chance that the investigation carried out in the two casale closest to the castle, Salajolo and Casale Tricosto, which were listed in the Leopoldine Catasto of 1823, contained evidence of occupation in the beginning of the fourteenth century.

The questions we are posing, as noted above, are many and all of relevant importance. It is necessary to understand whether and to what extent we can retro-date the evidence from the early 19th century and project it back to the late medieval or early modern era. Other questions will emerge from an assessment of the impact of the settlement or, conversely, its sparseness, which may not apply to all regions in the same manner and at the same moment. This introduces observations of not only a patrimonial but also an administrative nature. How did the castles manage the surrounding lands in the centuries under research? Did different settlement patterns correspond to different types of resource exploitation, different road networks and different systems of water regulation? Obviously, the greater importance of castles that did survive as population hubs (as opposed to the less significant ones that did not) may have influenced all the criteria that we have just presented and need to be taken into consideration in the final overall picture.

Hermann Salvadori

12 PINTO 1982.
13 LA CARRUBBA, MACCHI 2005.
16 Ibid.