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1610 and 1621/1622”

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Ministerium für Wirtschaft, Innovation,
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WP2

Storylines synopsis

Theme 2: Fortification

Storyline: The sieges of Jülich Fortress 1610 and 1621/1622

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Storyline:	The sieges of Jülich Fortress 1610 and 1621/1622
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1. Introduction

The history of the Euregio Meuse-Rhine has been marked by wars and conflicts for centuries. Impressive remains of fortifications from the time of late antiquity to the 20th century still bear witness to this today. The introduction of firearms powered by black powder in the 1500s marked a major turning point in warfare.

The narrow high and turreted walls of the Middle Ages were no longer a match for the cannons that appeared in the 15th century. New fortification systems were developed. In the course of the 16th century, the so-called bastion system became established. Mighty ramparts and arrowhead-shaped bastions in deep ditches now provided optimal all-round defence with firearms. However, only a few rich and politically independent cities could afford this kind of fortification. It was rather the princes, such as the Duke of Jülich and the Prince-Bishop of Liège, who had strategically important places fortified with ramparts and bastions. With the citadel and the town fortifications in Jülich, one of the most modern fortifications of the time was built in the middle of the 16th century. Contemporaries considered the Jülich fortress impregnable.

Fortress construction always developed in response to current weaponry and war technology. The two spectacular sieges of the fortress of Jülich in 1610 and 1621/1622 illustrate the interaction of artillery and defence construction, whereby the practical experiences of the military experts involved were again incorporated into theoretical works.

2. The historical background

In the middle of the 16th century, the Habsburgs ruled over the Netherlands. After the war over succession in the Duchy of Guelders was decided in favour of Emperor Charles V in 1543, Habsburg interests dominated the area between the Rhine and the Meuse. Both the Duke of Jülich and the Prince-Bishop of Liège stood on the side of the Habsburgs. In this respect their rule was threatened by the King of France, who opposed the powerful position of the Habsburg imperial house in Europe. Time and again there were armed conflicts in the area where the Habsburg Netherlands bordered on the dominions of the King of France. At the end of the 1540s Emperor Charles V began to implement a comprehensive fortification building programme. Entire city complexes such as Mariembourg and Philippeville were rebuilt in this way.

The city of Jülich in the duchy of the same name occupied a geostrategically important point between the Rhine and the Meuse. The crossing of the River Rur at this point formed the last obstacle before the Rhine or, conversely, before the Meuse - a circumstance that still led to massive fighting for Jülich at the end of the Second World War. The development of Jülich into an ideal city, residence and fortress under Duke Wilhelm V of Jülich-Kleve-Berg from 1547 onwards, according to plans by the Italian architect and fortress builder Alessandro

Pasqualini, is ultimately part of the wide network of fortifications built by the Habsburgs to secure their territory.

In the context of the Eighty Years' War and the Jülich-Kleve succession crises at the beginning of the 17th century, there were two sieges of the fortress of Jülich: in 1610 and 1621/1622. The first siege in 1610 was led by Moritz of Orange, the commander of the Dutch States General, who actually succeeded in taking the fortress within a month. This was a sensation that received a great deal of attention throughout Europe. The second siege by a Spanish army led by Ambrosio Spinola, Moritz of Orange's opponent on the Spanish side, was also an event of European significance.

3. The historical contextualization

The town, fortress and residence complex of Jülich, which was built in the middle of the 16th century, demonstrated the bastion system developed in Italy in an almost ideal way. Contemporary experts looked to Jülich with admiration and recognition. The citadel in particular was regarded as an exemplary example of such a fortification. The fortress underwent its baptism of fire in 1610, the year before the last duke of the House of Jülich-Kleve-Berg, Johann Wilhelm I, had died without a male heir. As there were several competing candidates for the inheritance, the Jülich-Kleve succession dispute broke out. The Elector of Brandenburg and the Duke of Palatinate-Neuburg, who called themselves "Possidians" ("Possidierende"), quickly asserted themselves as candidates for the inheritance. Since both princes were Lutherans, the dispute took on a political dimension, the explosive power of which should not be underestimated. Emperor Rudolf II did not recognize the claims of the hereditary claimants and refused them the enfeoffment with the territory. In the spring of 1610, the Jülich bailiff Johann von Reuschenberg succeeded in occupying the fortress of Jülich on behalf of the Emperor, which now led to a military escalation of the Jülich-Kleve succession dispute. The Emperor sent his nephew Archduke Leopold of Austria, Bishop of Passau, to Jülich to put the fortress on defensive alert. Now the conflict focused on Jülich, for all concerned were aware that rule over the Duchy of Jülich was only possible with the most important fortress town. With this, however, the dispute took on yet another dimension. Since the mid-1560s, the Eighty Years' War had been raging in the Netherlands between the rebellious seven northern provinces and the King of Spain, who had ruled over the Netherlands since 1556. This war was fought with all its harshness, with the two Christian denominations again opposing each other in the form of the Catholic King of Spain and the predominantly Protestant States General. In 1609, the States General had concluded a twelve-year truce with the governors of the Spanish Netherlands, Albrecht and Isabella. The outbreak of conflict over the question of succession in Jülich-Kleve-Berg now offered the possibility of a proxy war, although the Spanish side took no action. Since Jülich formed an important relay station of the land route to the Netherlands, which the Spanish troops used as a supply route, the States General were very interested in gaining control of this place. In this respect it was only logical that they supported the princes of Brandenburg and Palatinate-Neuburg in taking the fortress of Jülich. In August 1610 it came to the showdown in front of Jülich. All of Europe seemed to be watching the fortress city of Jülich in the late summer of 1610, as the numerous contemporary pamphlets and relations (reports) make clear. The fortress was occupied by a garrison of about 2,000 men loyal to the emperor, who were surrounded by a siege army of well over 30,000 men. This was composed of troops from the Dutch States General, the possidian princes, the Protestant Union, and English and French contingents. Here, coalitions and lines of conflict became

apparent that were to come to full fruition eight years later in the Thirty Years' War. In almost exemplary fashion, the siege was brought against the north side of the fortress and especially against the northeast corner of the citadel, the bastion later called Marianne. As early as 1589, Daniel Specklin, in his treatise "Architectura von Vestungen", had taken Jülich as an example of how best to besiege a citadel with four bastions, namely by concentrating the attack on one of the bastions, since it was difficult to flank it with the two adjacent bastions. In addition, the topographical situation in Jülich facilitated the siege work. From the "Merscher Höhe", the besiegers were able to bombard the fortress from an elevated position and advance their attack with approach trenches. For Moritz of Orange-Nassau, one month was enough to shoot the northeastern bastion of the citadel almost ready for assault. On September 1, 1610, the defender of the fortress of Jülich, Johann von Reuschenberg, capitulated and was allowed to leave with his troops. From now on, the fortress was under the command of the States General, who thus occupied an important geostrategic point on the Lower Rhine. The capture of the fortress after a little more than four weeks was a sensation. The victors proudly had a commemorative medal minted with the inscription "Nihil Inexpugnabile" - "Nothing is impregnable". A Dutch garrison was stationed in the fortress.

The siege of 1610 had revealed the northern front as a decisive weak point of the fortification. Consequently, the reinforcement of the fortress in the following years concentrated on this area. According to the plans of the Dutch fortress builder Johan van Valckenburgh, three hornworks were erected on the northern front in timber-earth construction, typical of Dutch fortress construction of the time. As they were later demolished and the surviving historical accounts differ, their exact appearance cannot be reconstructed. Apparently, a system of apron fortifications encompassing the entire city fortification was planned at that time. On the occasion of the visit of the Polish crown prince Wladyslaw Wasa to Jülich in 1624, the works were described as "a fortification erected by the Dutch with astonishing art between the ramparts".

The military campaigns of the Spanish and the Dutch in 1614 did not affect the fortress of Jülich. The trigger for the deployment of troops on the Lower Rhine was the break-up of the joint regiment of the Possidians. Wolfgang Wilhelm of Palatinate-Neuburg had converted to Catholicism and Johann Sigismund of Brandenburg to Calvinism. Both hoped for support from the Catholic and Protestant forces respectively in asserting their hereditary claims. The Spanish troops passing through the Duchy of Jülich took the alternative route via Düren to Cologne.

The armistice of 1609 was the reason why the conflicting parties still avoided direct confrontation at this time, so that it came to the Treaty of Xanten. In addition to the division of the territories of Jülich-Kleve-Berg under Brandenburg and Palatinate-Neuburg, the withdrawal of the States General from Jülich and the Spanish from Cleves was determined. However, as the treaty was not ratified, the Jülich garrison remained under Dutch command. A renewed military conflict over Jülich was therefore only a matter of time, which came at the beginning of September 1621. The armistice between Spain and the States General had just expired in August, when the Spanish general Ambrosius Spinola wanted to attack the States General from Jülich-Kleve with 40,000 men. It was up to General Hendrik Count van den Bergh to conquer the fortress of Jülich for the Spanish with his force of 7,000 foot soldiers and 700 horsemen. The latter was in a difficult situation, as the garrison had been weakened by a withdrawal of 1,000 men by Moritz of Orange. The siege that now began was similar to that of 1610, though it was now up to the Dutchman Frederik Pithan, as commander of the fortress, to disrupt and drive back the besiegers in their entrenchments.

Since neither side succeeded in bringing about a decision - Moritz of Orange had given up the attempt of a relief early on in view of the superiority of the Spaniards and had not even set out for Jülich - the siege dragged on through the turn of the year 1621/1622. Only when General Spinola personally appeared in front of Jülich in January 1622 and intensified the bombardment of the fortress was the will of the garrison to defend itself broken. They - and with them the inhabitants of Jülich - suffered greatly from the fact that rations ran out and diseases spread. Frederik Pithan had not managed to have the supplies stored in the surrounding area of Jülich brought behind the fortress walls before the siege began. According to contemporary reports, horses were slaughtered and rats and mice were finally on the menu of the trapped. In addition, the temperatures dropped to such an extent that "several times the shield guards froze to death". On February 3, 1622, the formal surrender took place, which had been prepared by treaty on January 22, 1622. The "Spanish Road" to the southern Netherlands from Cologne via Jülich was open again. From then on, the fortress of Jülich remained in Spanish hands until 1660. Only when the Pyrenean Peace of 1659 concluded with France put an end to Spain's European hegemonic policy did the latter relinquish their garrisons in the forefront of the States General, such as the one in Jülich. The military doctrine of cutting off the Netherlands from supply routes by maintaining garrisons on the Lower Rhine thus came to an end. In retrospect, the Spanish blockade policy had caused fewer problems for the Netherlands than expected, as they were largely independent of the land route due to the flourishing overseas trade. For the town of Jülich, the strong Spanish occupation meant that it was largely spared the passage of troops during the Thirty Years' War - unlike the surrounding countryside; however, the inhabitants did not fare any better.

4. Fortification in the Euregio Meuse-Rhine

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Aachen

The imperial city of Aachen - from the 10th to the 16th century the coronation site of the Roman-German kings and emperors - goes back to a settlement from Roman times. As can be observed elsewhere in Germania inferior, a fort was built here around 300 to protect against warlike incursions by Frankish family groups from the right bank of the Rhine. Apart from the hot springs, the remains of this fort may have been one of the reasons why Aachen became a preferred place of residence for the Frankish under Pippin and his son Charlemagne.

The medieval city wall of Aachen was a double ring of walls designed to protect the city from attack. It was built in two stages, the inner ring - the so-called Barbarossa Wall - from 1172, the outer ring from around 1300. In the course of the city expansions of the 19th century and the construction of the railway lines, the remaining parts of the city fortifications were demolished, only two city gates and five towers escaped destruction. Of the towers, the former Lavenstein watchtower, the Lange Turm, the Marienturm, the Pfaffenturm and the small Adalbertsturm still exist. The two remaining city gates, the Marching Gate (Marschiertor) and the Pont Gate, were badly damaged during the Second World War, but could be restored.

The artillery towers of the early fortifications gradually developed into the so-called rondels, which were usually larger in diameter and at the same time lower in order to offer less surface for attack. In 1512, the city of Aachen had a rondel with a diameter of 15.2 m built on its north side, incorporating older building fabric with the Marienturm.

In 1521, Charles V even planned to have the imperial city of Aachen "provided with [such a fortified] castle against all external and internal violence and rebellion." For this reason, "[he] had the city surveyed by war architects." The plans were dropped, however, since the situation of Aachen "was such that nothing special could be accomplished."

Jülich

The place Jülich occupied the crossing over the river Rur an important geostrategic point in the forefront of the Netherlands. This location was already significant in antiquity and so there is an almost 2000 years old history of fortification. The Rur crossing is one of the few geographical obstacles in the area between the Rhine and the Meuse.

The Romans built a multi-towered fort here at the beginning of the 4th century.

In the Middle Ages, the dominion of the Counts of Jülich developed from this place. The settlement was raised to the status of a town around 1234 and fortified with a town wall with three town gates at the beginning of the 14th century. In 1547 a devastating fire destroyed large parts of the town.

This disaster cleared the way for a generous new planning as an ideal residence, city and fortress complex. Duke Wilhelm V of Jülich-Kleve-Berg had it built according to plans by the Italian architect Alessandro Pasqualini. It is one of the earliest and best-preserved examples of the bastion system developed in Italy. Contemporaries considered the fortress with its ditches, ramparts and bastions almost impregnable. The first extensions to the fortress were made during the first siege in the late summer of 1610 in the form of small ravelins in front of the curtain walls. The Dutch built three hornworks on the northern front between 1614 and 1621. The fortifications underwent a massive expansion in the years around 1700 under the Elector Johann Wilhelm von der Pfalz, who wanted to see his residential city of Düsseldorf covered by Jülich. After Jülich fell into the hands of the French revolutionary troops in 1794, plans were made for a comprehensive extension of the fortress from around 1798. The starting point for this was the Rur crossing with a newly constructed sluice bridge, with which the south-eastern apron of the fortress could be flooded in an emergency. To protect it, the bridgehead was built as a crownwork on the left bank of the Rur. The bridgehead was built to protect the fortress from attackers, while the Fort Napoleon on the Merscher Höhe was intended to prevent the fortress from being fired upon from here. Napoleon himself stopped this generous extension after an inspection visit to Jülich in the autumn of 1804. He regarded the fortress as less important.

Under the Prussians, Jülich underwent a final expansion, which mainly involved the endangered northern front of the citadel. In 1859, however, Jülich's fortress status was revoked and the fortress was released for demolition.

Liège

The Citadel of Liège was the central fortress of the strategically important Belgian city of Liège until the end of the 19th century. It is located in the Sainte-Walburge district, 111 m above the Meuse valley at the confluence of the Meuse and Ourthe rivers. The first fortification on this site was built in 1255. In 1650, Prince-Bishop Maximilian Henry of Bavaria had it rebuilt in a pentagonal shape. This fortress was destroyed shortly afterwards by French troops and rebuilt in 1684. During the Napoleonic Wars it received five bastions. The citadel was obsolete at the latest since the invention of the brisance grenade in 1890. It continued to be used as barracks and as a command post. In the 1970s, the citadel was largely destroyed by the construction of a hospital on the site. The southern walls have been preserved. There are still 20th century bunkers on the south side.

Between 1880 and 1890, twelve modern forts were built around Liège - six large and six small. Their construction dates back to the Belgian general Henri Alexis Brialmont. The forts were built at a distance of about seven kilometres from the centre of Liège. All of these forts were built with concrete and equipped with the most modern weapons of the time.

Maastricht

It was not until the period of the States-General (1632-1749) that Maastricht became internationally known as the bulwark of the Netherlands. The medieval ramparts, since then known as the main ramparts, retained their importance as a location for guns and as a last line of defence, but in the forefront a system of forts developed. The forts were financed by the generals and were initially built according to the principles of the Old Dutch fortification system, which essentially consisted of a series of clear and low earth embankments flanking each other. Compared to the bastions built in stone, these forts had the advantage that the enemy's projectiles stuck in the ground and, thanks to the placement of the guns in the open, the defenders were not hindered by the smoke of the powder in the vaulted gun emplacements. The fortification system was actually designed for additional protection by moats. This also limited the construction of masonry. The situation around Maastricht, where ditches were lacking in the section between Tongersepoort and Lindenkruispoort, the so-called Hoge Fronten, forced the military architects to deviate from the Dutch fortification model time and again, namely to use more masonry and sometimes to greatly extend the fortification belt. The large hornworks consisted entirely of earth, but the pentagonal earth bastions had marlstone walls lined with brick. A dry ditch served as protection, the field-side embankment of which was later usually given a layer of masonry. The lunettes were also provided with a lining wall. In addition, there were other earthworks, mostly without a wall, such as the counter-guards with a projecting angle and the tenailles or shears with a reentrant angle, which created a zigzag-shaped protective wall. The outer line of defence was formed by a covered path with breastwork defence, which ran along the glacis, sloping slightly in the apron.

Tongeren

The first medieval ramparts in Tongeren probably date from the end of the tenth century and surrounded an approximately 1 hectare area around the church of Our Lady and the episcopal residence. In the 1160s or as a result of the destruction of the city in 1179, this city wall, which may or may not have had a moat, was renewed. However, the usefulness of that wall disappeared in the mid-thirteenth century due to the construction of the medieval ramparts.

Around 1240, a larger fortification was built in Tongeren that, in addition to the old trade quarter to the west of the church of Our Lady, also contained the quarter of Saint John, grounds north of the River Jeker and an area east and southeast of the church of Our Lady. The medieval enclosure covered 54 hectares and was protected by at least fourteen towers and was accessible through six gates and a few smaller entrances to the River Jeker. The ramparts were only extended once and this with the Tanner Quarter in the sixteenth century.

From the middle of the thirteenth century, the city walls were responsible for the protection of Tongeren for more than two hundred years. For example, the victories by prince-bishop Adolf de la Marck in 1328 and by Engelbert de la Marck in 1347 were successfully stopped. The creation of a larger enclosed area was partly responsible for the arrival of various monasteries in the city, the construction of patrician houses and the growth of the trade

center. In 1467 however, a turning point followed when in the aftermath of the occupation of the land of Liège by the Burgundians, the city was forced to demolish its gates and walls (after the battle of Othée in 1408, the Maastricht Gate had also been demolished). It took until the beginning of the sixteenth century before the fortifications were restored and the ditches were deepened.

Around 1518, a reform of the urban militia followed and a city gunpowder-maker was appointed. Agreements were then made with the crafts for the defense of the towers and walls, etc.

In the sixteenth century, Tongeren and the land of Liège were increasingly dragged into international wars and the city suffered a great deal from passing armies. Moreover, these armies were increasingly able to dispose of heavy mobile artillery. In 1569, during the religious wars, the duke of Alba appeared before the gates. He started a siege in which a significant part of the fortifications was damaged, but still had to drip off. The walls were rebuilt even more impressive on this and the ditches made even deeper. For the first time there were also constructions of advanced lines. That these walls, despite the reinforcements, could not cope with a more extensive armed forces became apparent in 1672-1673 and 1676-1677 when the city was alternately occupied by French and Dutch troops. Largely under duress during that period, the majority of the walls were demolished and five of the six gates were blown up. The walls had not yet been rebuilt or there was an occupation in the 1690s and an occupation with more dramatic consequences in 1703-1714. Nevertheless, it was decided in 1725 to restore the ramparts and gates. However, the defenses were no longer restored to the same size as before because the way of warfare and siege had completely changed. The ramparts consequently evolved de facto towards a more physical definition of the trade zone. The defense was directed against itinerant gangs and no longer against large armies.

From the beginning of the nineteenth century the idea of demolishing the ramparts came into being. The ditches were already rented out as sheep pastures at that time and the thorn bushes were removed. In 1811, the city wanted to have the Maastricht Gate demolished in function of the construction of the new road to Maastricht and in order to improve access to the city. The tight gates were seen as a nuisance. When subsequently the patent rights were also abolished in 1866, the other gates also lost their economic usefulness and a decision was made to completely dismantle parts of the walls. This was followed by the damping of all of the ditches.

5. Summary

The Euregio Rhine-Meuse has been a contested area for centuries. With the conquest by the Romans more than 2000 years ago, the places that were of geostrategic importance crystallized very quickly. In late antiquity, their fortification history began, which mostly continued into the 20th century. Places such as Aachen, Jülich, Maastricht or Tongeren should be mentioned here. In the Middle Ages, the walls and towers of the city fortifications were usually an expression of urban self-confidence, as in the case of the imperial city of Aachen. In many cases, however, the sovereign also exerted an influence on the development of city walls, towers and gates. The introduction of gunpowder-operated rifles was a major turning point in the development of fortification. These had a wall-breaking effect, so that the medieval fortifications with their narrow, high walls were no longer able to withstand them. Now it was the sovereigns, such as the duke of Jülich-Kleve-Berg or the prince-bishop of Lüttich, who were responsible for the defensive development of

strategically important places. In case of doubt, they overrode the autonomy of the cities, which is particularly evident in the case of Jülich. Duke Wilhelm V of Jülich-Kleve-Berg took advantage of a fire in the town in May 1547 to plan a generous reconstruction as a residential and fortified town. As early as the late Middle Ages, there were indications that the central location of the area in north-western Europe made it a "land at the centre of the powers". This situation became even more acute in the early modern period, when in the state-building process of the time the different interests clashed even more harshly than before. This was the case, for example, with the Geldrian War of Succession between Duke William V of Jülich-Kleve-Berg and Emperor Charles V from 1538 to 1543, which already showed that regional and supra-regional interests produced a bundle of lines of conflict that could hardly be traced. This continued from the mid-1560s in the Eighty Years' War and from 1609 in the Jülich-Kleve succession crises. The Peace of Westphalia marked a turning point in that the States General of the northern Netherlands were recognized as a sovereign state. This marked the beginning of the consolidation of state boundaries. However, the Spanish did not vacate the cities they had occupied, such as Jülich, until after the conclusion of the Peace of the Pyrenees with the King of France in 1659. King Louis XIV of France subsequently acted as the new hegemon in the region and laid siege to Maastricht, among other places. The question of who was to take the leading role in Europe continued between 1701 and 1714 in the War of the Spanish Succession, which was also fought in the Euregio Meuse-Rhine area. Throughout the 18th century, the situation between the King of France and the Habsburgs remained tense. The area experienced a new dimension of conflict after the French Revolution when the French Revolutionary troops conquered the entire area up to the Rhine and it officially fell to France in 1801. Fortified towns such as Jülich took on a completely new significance as border fortifications facing east. This circumstance was reversed after the Congress of Vienna, when the Rhenish territories fell to the Kingdom of Prussia. Until the middle of the 19th century, there had been no fundamental change in weapon technology. Then new types of guns were developed as muzzle-loaders with rifled barrels, which significantly increased the accuracy of hits. In addition, cannons were used to fire shells, which themselves possessed explosive power. Early modern fortifications made of brick and earth, such as the one in Jülich, were no longer able to withstand the power of these guns. This became clear when a siege exercise was carried out at Jülich in 1860. Fortress construction subsequently concentrated on individual forts built of steel and concrete. Such forts were built around Liège, for example. They still played a role in the First World War. The end of the actual city fortifications also led to the fact that in the second half of the 19th century, the medieval city walls, which were sometimes still preserved, were put to use. As a result of the industrialization that began at that time, they constricted the cities too much as they grew. For this reason, walls were demolished and ditches filled in. At the same time, however, it can be observed that individual elements, such as gates and towers, were left standing as reminders. Aachen and Tongeren are good examples of this.

6. Where to visit

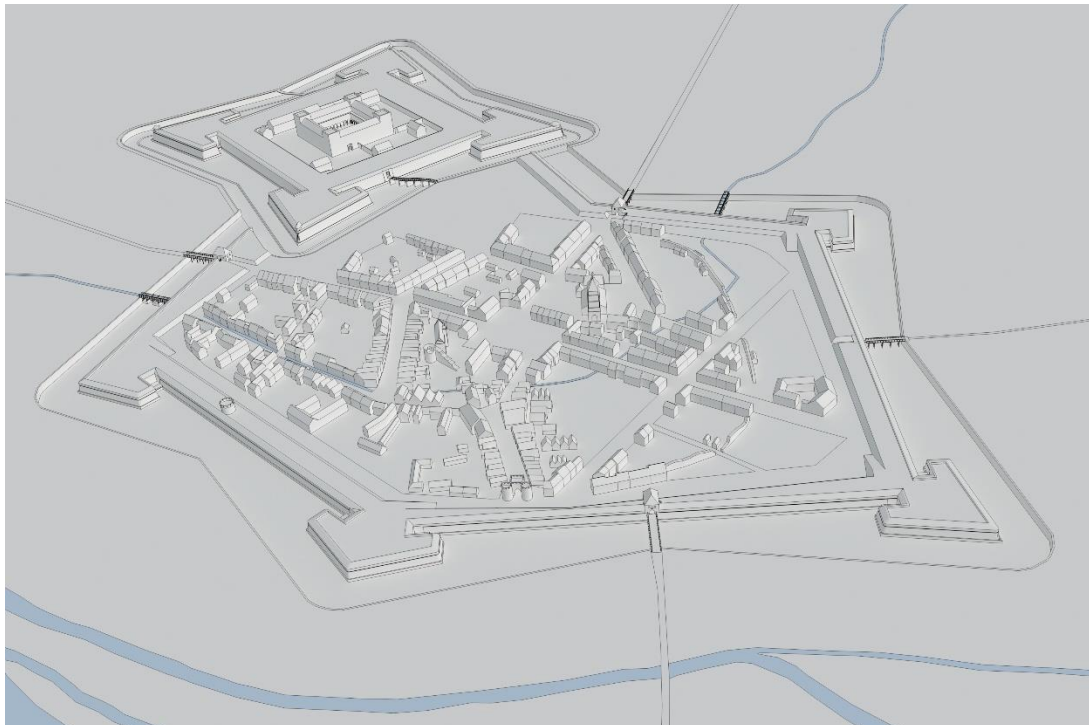
The ramparts and bastions of Jülich Citadel are largely preserved. The museum in the citadel houses numerous testimonies of the two sieges (paintings, engravings, weapons, etc.). In addition, in the north of the citadel on the Merscher Höhe above the Jülich district of Broich, a five-pointed star earthwork built by the Spanish besiegers in 1621/1622 is clearly visible in ground relief. On the left side of the Rur is the well-preserved bridgehead (Brückenkopf) from the French period - one of the few testimonies to the fortress construction of the

French Empire in Germany. The medieval Rur gate "Hexenturm" at the exit of the Kleine Rurstraße dates from the first quarter of the 14th century and shows the technique of fortification before the introduction of firearms. The Euregio Meuse-Rhine has preserved numerous testimonies of defensive construction from Roman times to the 20th century, by which the lines of development of defensive construction can be traced. Examples of this are:

- Aachen (city fortifications, gates and rondels)
- Alden Biesen (former country commandery of the Teutonic Order)
- Aldenhoven-Siersdorf (former Deutschordens-Commende)
- Fort Eben-Emael
- Franchimont in Theux
- Huy (Citadel)
- Liège (Citadel, Forts)
- Maastricht (Fort Sint-Pieter)
- Nideggen (castle and town)
- Tongeren (city wall)

7. Storyline products

The 3D visualization of the history of the city of Jülich illustrates the most important steps in the development of the city's shape from Roman times to the present day, especially with regard to the fortifications. A 10-minute film explains the history of Jülich's urban development from antiquity to the present day.



Digital model of the town of Jülich in the middle of the 16th century.

A second film deals with the sieges of 1610 and 1621/1622 on the basis of the painting by Pieter Snayers, which shows the second siege of Jülich. In both cases, the combination of

historical source material, architectural remains and virtual reconstructions provides a vivid picture of the importance of the fortifications for the historical urban form of Jülich.



Still from the film "The Siege of a City: Jülich 1621/1622".

8. Literature

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