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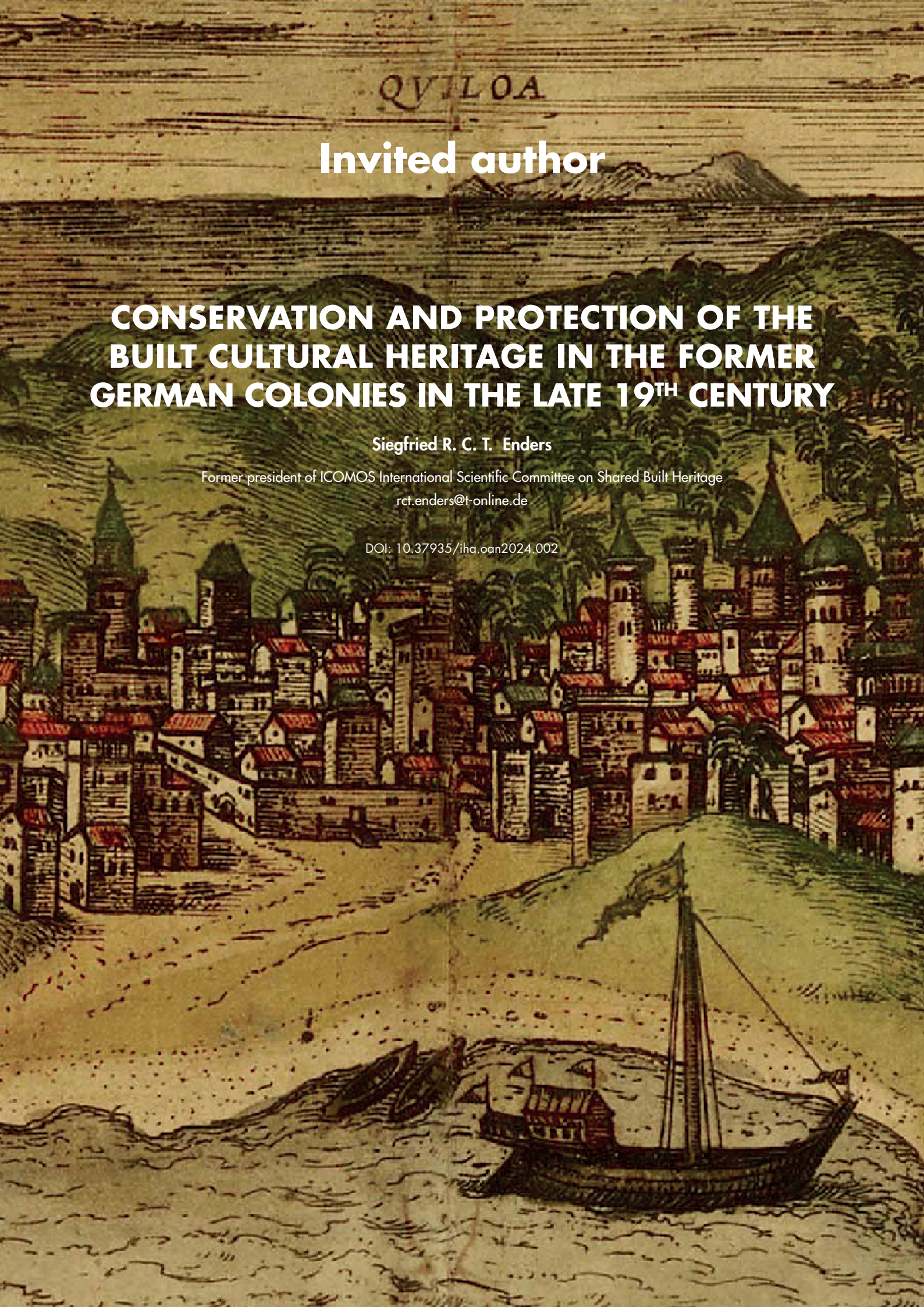
CONSERVATION AND PROTECTION OF THE BUILT CULTURAL HERITAGE IN THE FORMER GERMAN COLONIES IN THE LATE 19TH CENTURY

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There is little documentation on the management and preservation of indigenous built cultural heritage in the former German colonial territories during the German colonial period (approx. 1880-1920), especially when compared to the practices of other European colonial powers¹. This is partly because Germany became a colonial power later than most European nations and was such for a relatively short period. Additionally, with the exception of China, the territories under German rule contained few built cultural heritage sites considered valuable from a European perspective.

Globally, the German colonial period was one of the shortest and affected only a small proportion of the world's colonial territories. By the time Germany founded its first colony in around 1880, much of the world had already been divided up among the first colonial powers: Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, the Netherlands, the Ottoman Empire, and Russia. During the early 19th century, new players like Belgium, Austria-Hungary, Denmark, and Italy joined the colonial race, and by 1900, Japan, China (the Qing Dynasty), and the USA had also joined in.

The Portuguese colonial period spanned over 584 years, beginning in 1415 with the conquest of Ceuta – Portugal's first possession outside Europe – under King John I. It continued from 1418 under the leadership of Prince Henry, *the Navigator*, with voyages of discovery along the African coast, the colonial era eventually drawing to a close in 1999 with the handover of Macao to China.

The Spanish colonial period began with the establishment in Canary Islands in 1477, followed by the discovery of the Americas in 1492. For over 545 years, the Spanish colonial empire expanded across the Americas, Africa, Asia, and Oceania, with its main territorial focus in the Americas. At its height, the empire was one of the most extensive in history and Spain was one of the first truly global powers.

The French colonial empire has spanned 495 years, beginning in 1530, and is divided into two colonial phases: firstly in North America (1530-1763) and secondly the colonial empire (1830-1960) founded in the Napoleonic era, with possessions in Africa, the Middle East, and Asia. Today, it consists mainly of a few islands in the Caribbean, the Indian Ocean and the Pacific region, which are referred to as *Départments d'outre-mer* (overseas territories).

The Netherlands began its colonial expansion with Voorcompagnien's first voyages to the East Indies in 1594, Dutch presence around the world lasting over 430 years. All that remains of the empire is six Dutch-administered islands forming the Netherlands Antilles.

Great Britain, the largest colonial power in the history of the world, ruled over colonies and protectorates on every inhabited continent for 390 years, from 1607 to 1997, the British Empire accounting nearly a quarter of the world's land area by the late 19th century.

1. This article reflects the author's observations, studies, and experiences during his presidency of the ICOMOS International Scientific Committee on Shared Built Heritage (ISCBH) from 2009 to 2020, including study trips to Namibia, Zanzibar, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, and Qingdao.

In contrast, Germany joined the ranks of European colonial powers relatively late, in the late 19th century. Before that, apart from an unsuccessful attempt by Brandenburg-Prussia to establish colonies in Africa (Ghana and Mauritania) and the Caribbean (Puerto Rico) between 1683 and 1721, most German-speaking states showed little interest in colonisation. They lacked both the military power and the financial resources necessary for establishing colonies, despite ambitions to participate in the slave trade and raw material trade (in for example: rubber, ivory, gold, and salt).

Some German rulers, however, participated in global colonial ventures by supplying mercenaries for use in foreign colonies. For example, the Duchy of Württemberg provided the Cape Regiment to the Dutch East India Company (1787-1808), and the Counts and Princes of Waldeck sent troops to England in the 18th century. During the American War of Independence (1775-1783), around 30,000 soldiers from six German principalities (Hesse-Kassel, Hesse-Hanau, Waldeck, Braunschweig-Lüneburg, Ansbach-Bayreuth, and Anhalt-Zerbst) were hired out to England, of which more than a third never returned.

Thus, in comparison with other European powers in the 19th and 20th centuries, the German Empire was a latecomer, the colonial period lasting only about 30 years, from 1884 to 1914, officially ending in 1919 with the Treaty of Versailles following Germany's defeat in World War I. The duration of German colonial rule in different regions varies depending on how treaties, agreements, and annexations are interpreted under international law.

Similar to processes in other European nations which joined the colonial scramble at a late stage, such as Belgium, Italy, and Austria-Hungary, as well as the United States of America, Germany was only unified in the late 19th century (1871), and large-scale colonisation efforts began only after this. The territory that formed the unified Germany consisted of numerous independent states, which were part of a number of confederations, such as the German Confederation (1815-1866). Before unification, some German states were involved in individual colonial adventures on a small scale.

The activities in the colonies of German trading houses and associations which began to form from 1848, grew in the second half of the 19th century. However, they could only successfully compete with other colonial powers after the unification of Germany and the increase of its ambition as a global power. There were four main drivers behind Germany's colonial pursuits:

- Economic participation in global trade;
- Missionary work;
- A desire to assert itself as a global military power;
- The relocation and emigration of German citizens.

Colonial propagandists like Friedrich Fabri and Wilhelm Hübbe-Schleiden argued that colonies would provide markets for German goods, sources of raw materials, and destinations for German emigrants, who had previously migrated primarily to the Americas.

From the 18th century, German trading houses attempted to establish trading posts along key global trade routes. Agreements with local rulers allowed them to acquire land for commercial purposes, but the resulting properties needed protecting from both former owners and rival colonial powers.

Hamburg-based firms like C. Woermann, G. L. Gaiser, and Jantzen & Thormählen were major players in West Africa, including territories which later became German colonies, importing palm oil and rubber and exporting alcohol, cotton goods, weapons, and manufactured items. In 1880, Adolph Woermann took over the family business, which had established trading stations at the mouth of the Wouri River in Cameroon in 1868. C. Woermann soon became the most important German company in West Africa, and he saw the burgeoning colonial movement as an opportunity to expand his enterprise.

During a lecture to the Geographical Society in Hamburg in 1879, Woermann spoke of the “hidden gems” of interior Africa: “There are two great undiscovered treasures in Africa: the fertility of the soil and the power of the labour of millions of negroes. Whoever manages to harness these riches will not only make his fortune but also fulfil a great cultural mission”.

Adventurers and explorers sought to link their discoveries to political and economic interests, often presenting their proposals for land acquisition to the German government, and in return they sought the government’s protection for their ventures. The German government protected colonial ventures by deploying military forces and establishing territorial administration, appointing officials. As a result, the German colonies were commonly referred to as “protected regions” (Schutzgebiete).

By 1900, the following regions had come under German control [fig.01]:

- 1884: German Southwest Africa (now Namibia);
- 1884: Togoland (now Togo and parts of eastern Ghana);
- 1884: Cameroon (now Cameroon and parts of modern Nigeria, Chad, Central African Republic, Republic of the Congo, and Gabon);
- 1885: German East Africa (now Tanzania and parts of modern Rwanda, Burundi, and Mozambique);
- 1885: German New Guinea (encompassing parts of present-day Papua New Guinea, the Marshall Islands, Solomon Islands, Northern Mariana Islands, Palau, and Micronesia);
- 1898: Kiautschou (now Qingdao, China);
- 1900: German Samoa (now Samoa).



Fig. 01· Map of the German colonial territories (source: Pinterest)

CONSERVATION AND PRESERVATION OF BUILT MONUMENTS DURING THE GERMAN COLONIAL PERIOD

In 1884, when the German Empire established its first colony, the primary figures involved showed little interest in or consideration for the local culture or its built heritage. They were mostly merchants focused on securing trade routes and exploiting local resources and populations. Adventurers and politicians sought to accumulate and wield power, while military and administrative officials showed no interest in regional culture. Missionaries from various churches, intent on spreading Christianity, rejected the existence of other gods and indigenous temples. Later, emigrants arrived, mainly concerned with economic survival and displaying little interest in the local culture. Occasionally, scientists, geographers, botanists, doctors, and ethnologists were involved in the colonial enterprise, but their scientific interest only partly extended to the local cultural heritage.

Surveys of monuments, involving the classification of cultural monuments, the assessment of their artistic and historical value, and the exploration of methods for restoration, had been carried out in Germany since the early 19th century. By the late 19th century, the preservation and conservation of historical buildings had been already recognised as the responsibility of the state, and government bodies had been established to manage them in accordance with specific laws and regulations.

The foundations for state preservation of the built heritage were laid in 1815 by Karl Friedrich Schinkel, a Prussian civil servant and an expert in architecture and construction. He drew up a memorandum establishing a framework for an administrative system and the involvement of specialists in preserving monuments, establishing the responsibility of the state for this function. Prussian practice was incorporated into nationwide legislation in 1871. Most German states had already produced and enacted monument protection laws and regulations, forming the basis for monument administration within the German Empire: examples include the Kingdom of Bavaria (from 1827), the Landgraviate of Hesse-Kassel (1780), Brandenburg-Bayreuth (1780), the Duchy of Baden (1840), and the Grand Duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt (1902).

Despite these advances in the homeland, there was no form of monument protection or preservation was developed in the colonies – neither by the Foreign Office in Berlin nor at the level of colonial district administration. Most German colonies, with the exception of China, were perceived as lacking a building culture worthy of recognition in accordance with Eurocentric values in the field of architecture and art; however, a few ethnologists and explorers did take an interest in the richly decorated vernacular architecture they encountered. This was in stark contrast to heritage recognised in the territories colonised by the five major European colonial powers: Portugal, Spain, Great Britain, France, and the Netherlands. Consider, for example, the architectural riches of the advanced civilisations in Central and South America, and the religious and regal architecture found across Asia (Central, South, Southeast, and East Asia).

Some monument preservation was carried out by scientists in the German colonies as part of wider research endeavours. In conjunction with ethnological research at museums and universities, a growing interest in collecting cultural relics led to three notable preservation projects associated with pre-existing monuments: the survey and research of the ruins of Kilwa in Tanzania, a port city which was around 1.200 years old and had been under the successive rule of the Persians, Yemenis, Portuguese, and Arabs; research into the rock paintings at Twyfelfontein, Namibia; and archaeological research on the ruined city of Nan Madol off Temwen Island, a smaller island of Pohnpei in the Caroline Islands archipelago (now part of the Federated States of Micronesia).

KILWA KISIWANI

Founded in 975 by the Persian Ali ibn Hasan from Shiraz, Kilwa Kisiwani was the most important harbour city on the east coast of Africa in the 13th and 14th centuries. It prospered under the rule of the Yemeni Mahdali dynasty from around 1300, particularly during the reign of Al-Hasan ibn Sulaiman Abu'l-Mawahib (approx. 1310-1333), when numerous important buildings were constructed. Kilwa played a key role in Indian Ocean trade, dealing in gold, silver, pearls, perfumes, Arab earthenware, Persian ceramics and Chinese porcelain [fig.02,03,04].

However, by the late 14th century, it had begun to decline. In 1505, the city came under Portuguese control following conquest and plunder by Francisco de Almeida, though this only lasted until 1512. By the 17th century, Kilwa had fallen into disrepair. Nevertheless, in the late 18th century, the city experienced a resurgence due to the slave trade, coming under the rule of the Busaidi dynasty of Oman in 1784. A Liwali (governor) was appointed, whose official residence was later moved to Kilwa Kivinje, which replaced the island town as the main marketplace and port for the slave trade. The ruins of the former port city of Kilwa Kisiwani, located 280 km south of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania's Lindi region, are situated on an island separated from the mainland and the capital, Kilwa Masoko, by an inlet of the Indian Ocean just 1.5 km wide. In 2007, about 500 people still lived on the island in simple mud huts. Important historical buildings in Kilwa include two mosques and a large town hall.



Fig. 02. "QVILLOA" from *Civitates Orbis Terrarum*, 1572-1617, Georg Braun and Franz Hogenberg (source: Wikipedia)



Fig. 03. "Kilwa Kisiwani, German East Africa: old royal castle", Tanzania, postcard, c.1913, unknown author (source: Wikipedia)



Fig. 04. Gereza Fort in Kilwa, Tanzania (source: Wikipedia, photo by Gustav Graves)

TWYFELFONTEIN ROCK CARVINGS

Twyfelfontein, in Namibia, has been inhabited for 6,000 years by hunter-gatherers and later by Khoikhoi herders, who produced over 2,500 rock carvings at this sacred site as part of their shamanistic rituals. These petroglyphs, along with a few rock paintings, represent one of the largest manifestations of rock art in Africa. Following its exploration by German surveyors Volkmann and Reinhard Maack in colonial times, Twyfelfontein became Namibia's first UNESCO World Heritage Site in 2007 [fig.05,06,07].



Fig. 05. Rock carvings at Twyfelfontein, Namibia (source: Wikipedia, photo by Joachim Huber)



Fig. 06-07. Rock carvings at Twyfelfontein, Namibia (source: Wikipedia, photo by Thomas Schoch)

NAN MADOL

An archaeological site located near the eastern shore of Pohnpei Island, Nan Madol is now part of the Madolenihmw district in Pohnpei State within the Federated States of Micronesia in the western Pacific Ocean. Serving as the capital of the Saudeleur dynasty until around 1628, the city was constructed within a lagoon and comprises a series of small artificial islands interconnected by a network of canals. The core of the site, enclosed by stone walls, spans roughly 1.5 km in length and 0.5 km in width and includes 92 artificial islets – platforms of stone and coral bordered by tidal canals. During the German colonial period, Paul Hambruch (1882-1933) researched the ruins, publishing his findings in 1911 in Ponape, which included Ponapean stories of the ruins [fig.08,09,10].

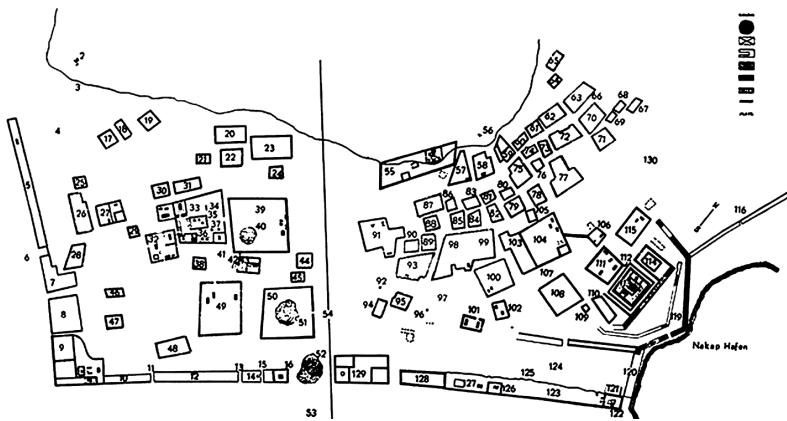


Fig. 08· Map of Nan Madol, Federated States of Micronesia, map by Paul Hambruch, 1911 (source: Pinterest)



Fig. 09· Map of Nan Madol, Federated States of Micronesia, map by Holger Behr (source: Wikipedia)



Fig. 10· The ruins of Nan Madol and surroundings (source: Wikipedia, photo by Uhoep)

QINGDAO

Like Hong Kong, the land at Kiautschou (Jiaozhou) Bay in northeast China, including Qingdao, was forced to be leased to the German Empire for 99 years, allowing the establishment of a naval base, port city, and coal mining operations in the neighbouring Shandong Province to fuel the fleet and develop the necessary infrastructure (for example, railways). This region, rich in cultural history – home to the Imperial Canal, Confucius's birthplace, and significant architectural heritage such as historic towns, villages, temples, and houses – was nonetheless altered under German colonisation. The German authorities conducted no monument preservation; rather, Chinese historical structures were demolished if they obstructed German planning and development.

To assert its imperial power, the German Imperial Navy sought a port and base in East Asia, selecting Kiautschou (Jiaozhou) Bay in Shandong Province after extensive surveying. However, several fishing villages, temples, and a Chinese military base already existed there. During Qingdao's planning, which imposed strict segregation between German and Chinese settlements, all Chinese structures on German-claimed land were removed. Between 1898 and 1905, the German government purchased nine Chinese villages from their owners to construct new housing in Taidong Zhen, a German-planned workers' settlement. Yet, this demolition met considerable local opposition, as the population resisted having "civilization" imposed on them [fig. 11].

An exception was made for a traditional Chinese courthouse, known as the Yamen, which had served as the residence and headquarters of the ousted Chinese commander. It was repurposed as the German governor's residence, preventing its destruction. It is, however, debatable whether this can be regarded as an act of monument preservation. By contrast, the Bismarck Barracks were built where the Chinese military camp once stood, leaving no trace of the original Chinese buildings [fig. 12].

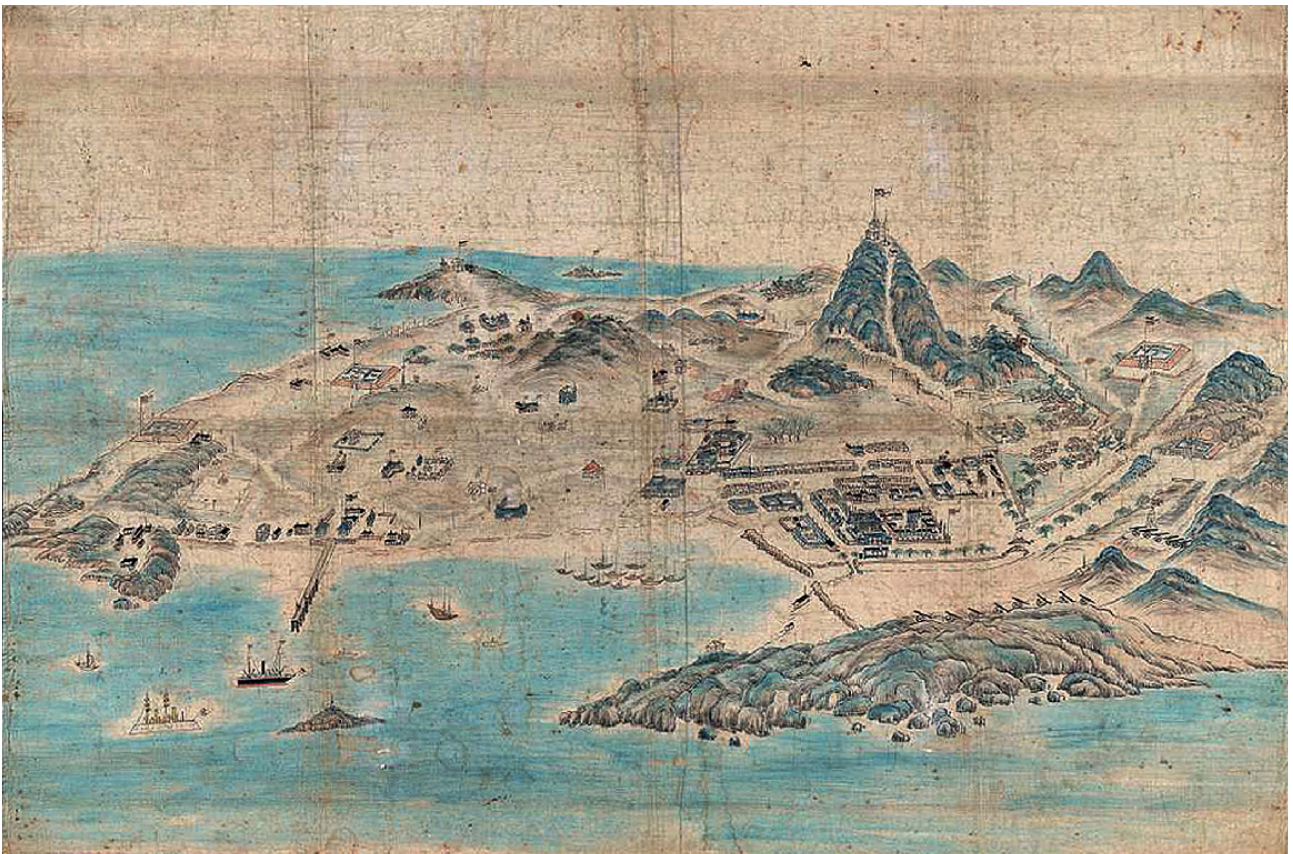


Fig. 11. Historic map of Tsingtau (Qingdao), 1899 (source: Pinterest)



Fig. 12: The Government House in Qingdao: a semaphore before the temporary Government House in Qingdao, which previously was as a *yamen* of a Chinese general (source: Ernst Hesse-Wartegg's travel report - Shantung and German China, 1898)

GERMAN EMPIRE AND ITS COLONIAL ARCHITECTURE IN ITS BEGINNING

German colonisation brought an extensive wave of construction, creating demand for architects, planners, and engineers. This led to a colonial construction and planning industry that attracted young architects. Private companies, often employing architects and engineers, undertook the planning and building of the German colonies. Colonial construction companies emerged to produce prefabricated components, even entire buildings, specifically for use in the colonies. Manuals on colonial construction were published. Despite minor local architectural adaptations for climate, such as verandas, roof overhangs, ventilation options, and the use of native materials, the indigenous building culture was disregarded and held in disdain, and seen as disposable.

Back in Germany, the "guild" of German architects and art historians had been instrumental in the 19th-century monument protection and preservation movement. However, within the colonies, there was no interest in studying, preserving or promoting the indigenous building culture. However, scientific interest in local building cultures grew during the colonial period, especially among ethnologists. Cultural researchers, colonial administrations, museums (like the Berlin Ethnological Museum), and universities began researching, documenting and inventorying the built heritage of the colonies, often as part of efforts to attract European settlers.

International and colonial exhibitions, such as the 1896 event in Berlin – viewed as inhumane by today's standards – were also meant to disseminate knowledge about local built heritage. However, the reconstruction of indigenous vernacular architecture from African colonies and the South Seas in so-called “native villages” can scarcely be considered an act of monument preservation. These reconstructions served, at best, as illustrative material for insights into indigenous building culture [fig. 13-17].

In summary, during the German colonial period, there was little significant effort to preserve or conserve the indigenous built heritage of the colonies.



Fig. 13. Colonial Exhibition of Berlin: main entrance to the Colonial Exhibition in Treptow, 1896 (source: Horst Kleinert, *Die Kolonialausstellung von 1896 in Berlin: Afrika und die Südsee vor der Haustür*, 2023)



Fig. 14. Colonial Exhibition of Berlin: replicas of mosque, pyramid, and souk (market), 1896 (source: Horst Kleinert, *Die Kolonialausstellung von 1896 in Berlin: Afrika und die Südsee vor der Haustür*, 2023)



Fig. 15. Colonial Exhibition of Berlin: Togolese doing domestic work (source: Horst Kleinert, *Die Kolonialausstellung von 1896 in Berlin: Afrika und die Südsee vor der Haustür*, 2023)



Fig. 16. Colonial Exhibition of Berlin, meeting house from New Guinea, 1896 (source: Horst Kleinert, *Die Kolonialausstellung von 1896 in Berlin: Afrika und die Südsee vor der Haustür*, 2023)

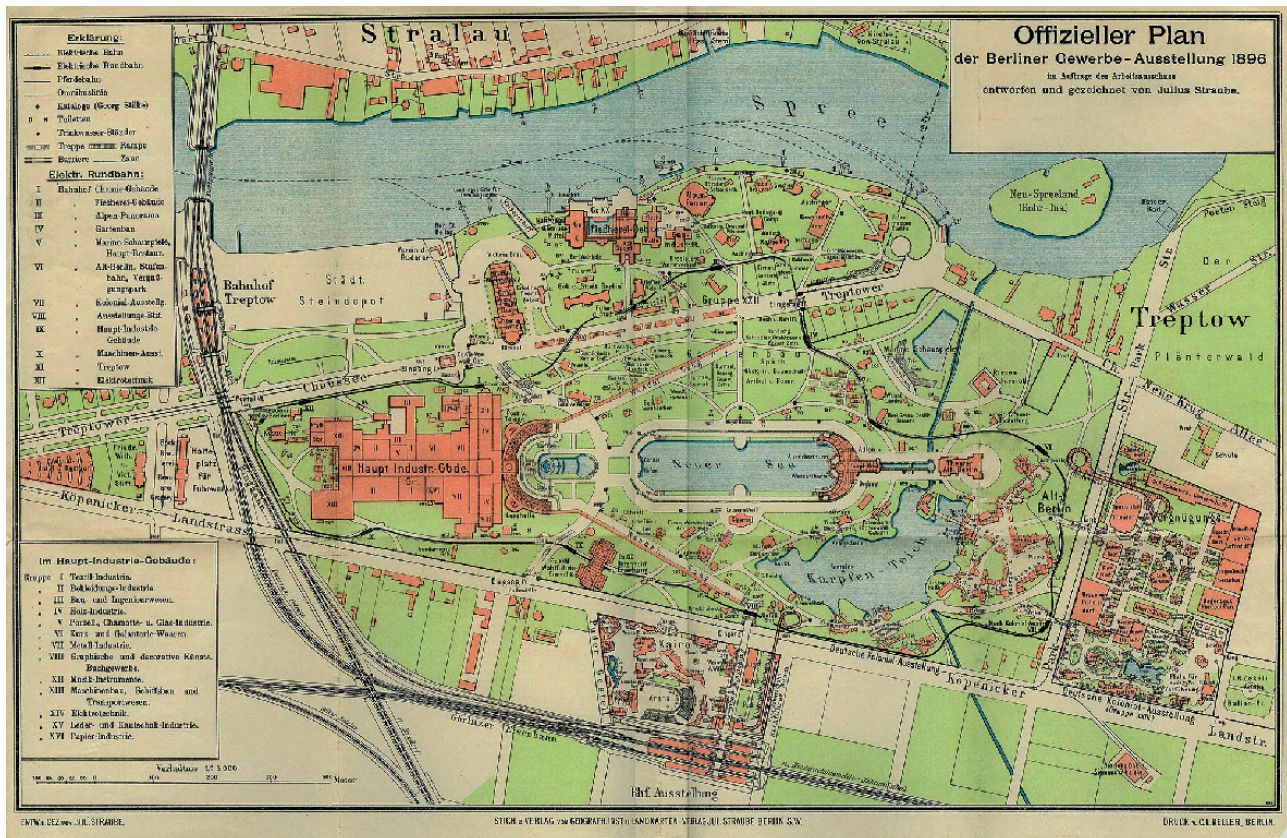


Fig. 17- Map of the Colonial Exhibition of Berlin, by Julius Straube, 1896 (source: Wikipedia)

CONSERVATION AND PROTECTION OF THE BUILT CULTURAL HERITAGE IN THE FORMER GERMAN COLONIES POST-1918

With the Treaty of Versailles of 28th June 1919, Germany lost all its colonies, and all Germans had to leave, except those in Namibia. These former colonies were designated as mandated territories by the United Nations. The infrastructure and architecture left behind – such as railways, roads, bridges, and port facilities – became colonial built heritage, valued for historical, technical, urban, and in some cases, artistic reasons. However, preservation and conservation efforts for these structures varied significantly across the territories and depended on the policies of each mandate country, including Great Britain (parts of Togo and Cameroon, Tanzania, South Africa – Southwest Africa/Namibia), Belgium (Rwanda-Burundi), France (parts of Togo and Cameroon), Australia (Bismarck Archipelago, Kaiser Wilhelm Land), New Zealand (Samoa), and Japan (Kiautschou with Qingdao, Caroline Islands, Mariana Islands).

In Germany, interest in colonialism waned after World War I, and it faded from the public and political discourse. Nonetheless, during the Weimar Republic, colonial societies and associations persisted until 1943, pushing for colonial revisionism and the return of the territories, although they exerted little political influence. From 1933 to 1945,

the National Socialist regime shifted its colonial aspirations to expansion eastward, essentially moving away from traditional colonialism. Following World War II, Germany's colonial history was overshadowed by the country's reckoning with its Nazi past. Colonialism rarely appeared in educational curricula, politics, or media, leaving a generation largely unaware of Germany's colonial activities.

However, the political upheaval of the 1960s and 1970s, especially the independence struggles of other colonies, spurred academic interest in German colonialism. Researchers delved into archival sources to re-examine the impact of German rule on African societies, which led to a shift in understanding of colonial history. Student protests in 1968 also spotlighted imperialism, with Hamburg students famously toppling monuments of colonial figures like Governor Hermann von Wissmann and military commander Hans Dominik. Only in the 1980s did German architects and researchers begin to investigate and catalogue the architectural legacy of former German colonies. As African states achieved independence, some initiated efforts to evaluate and preserve colonial-era buildings.

In a few former colonies, legislation and heritage administrations emerged for safeguarding built cultural assets, including the following:

- Namibia: National Heritage Act, 2004, and a historical monument commission dating back to 1949;
- Cameroon: Federal Act No. 63-22, 19th June, 1963;
- Togo: Law No. 90-24, 23rd November 1990, National Cultural Heritage Protection;
- Papua New Guinea: The National Cultural Property (Preservation) Act, 1965.

The preservation of German colonial architecture varies widely; while some buildings have been destroyed to make way for new development, others remain remarkably well-preserved. In Namibia (Swakopmund and Windhoek) and Qingdao, many historical structures have even become valuable for tourism. The quality and state of preservation of these structures, including administrative buildings, churches, schools, hospitals, and transportation infrastructure, underscore their architectural significance. Many were repurposed by subsequent administrations and even became hotels or tourist attractions, while high-rise development was confined to areas outside of historical zones.

The typology of German colonial architecture includes government buildings like governors' palaces, administrative offices, banks, trading houses, churches, schools, hospitals, and barracks, alongside infrastructure such as ports, railway lines and stations, roads and bridges, and residential buildings [table 01, fig. 18-33].

Since the 1990s, there has been a renewed interest in studying, inventorying, preserving and restoring colonial architecture, spurred by building researchers, art historians, and ethnologists at universities and museums. A clear interest in preservation exists across various parts of society. In former German colonies evacuated in 1919, the immediate successors of the German colonists initially valued these buildings for their practical use and adaptability to their own needs. In Namibia, German descendants took a vested interest in maintaining these buildings, which had become integral to their identity. The unique architectural style also appealed to the new owners and helped fuel tourism, which became an economic boon.

After World War II, German colonial history and its architectural legacy held no place in the cultural or foreign policies of either the Federal Republic of Germany or the GDR. As a result, colonial-era architecture was not seen as a shared heritage, leaving no incentive for the government to offer economic or financial support for its preservation. To date, Germany's official development aid has provided no funding specifically for maintaining these structures. Occasionally, support has come from private groups, church communities, or associations, sometimes even leading to collaborative restoration projects. Meanwhile, there was occasional support from private groups, church communities or associations and sometimes even joint restoration projects.

The built cultural heritage serves as a historical record and, for many, is a visible reminder of the injustices and economic exploitation imposed by colonial powers. In many countries, historical importance is one of the primary criteria for evaluating cultural monuments, alongside artistic, scientific, technical, and urban planning considerations. As debates on cultural appropriation and exploitation by the European colonial powers unfold, the treatment and conservation of colonial architecture represent an ongoing task for future generations.



Fig. 18. Governor's Palace in Duala, Cameroon, by Wolfgang Lauber, 1905 (source: Wikipedia, photo by Steve Mvondo)



Fig. 19. Government Office Building in Windhoek, Namibia, by Gottlieb Redecker, 1912-13 (source: Wikipedia, photo by Zairon)



Fig. 20. Deutsche-Asiatische Bank in Qingdao, China (source: Wikipedia, photo by StefanTsingtauer)



Fig. 21. Wormann's Trading House in Swakopmund, Namibia, by Friedrich Höft, 1894 (source: Wikipedia, photo by Patrick Giraud)



Fig. 22. Christ Church in Qingdao, China, by Curt Rothkegel, 1910 (source: Wikipedia, photo by StefanTsingtauer)

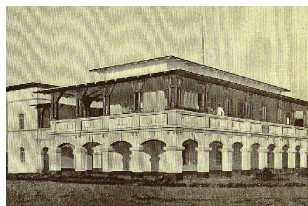


Fig. 23. Queen Charlotte Hospital in Lomé, Togo, 1909 (source: Wikipedia)



Fig. 24. Advanced Training School in Lomé, Togo, 1912 (photo by J. Makali Bruton)



Fig. 25. Courthouse in Qingdao, China, c.1900 (source: Wikipedia, photo by Zhiqiang)



Fig. 26. German Fort in Swakopmund, Namibia, 1905-06 (source: Wikipedia, photo by Olga Ernst)



Fig. 27. Jetty in Swakopmund, Namibia, 1899 (source: Wikipedia, photo by Diego Delso)



Fig. 28. Mwanza Railway Station, Tanzania (source: Wikipedia, photo by Hansueli Krapf)



Fig. 29. Bridge of Edea over the Sanaga River, Cameroon, 1911 (source: Wikipedia, photo by Carlos Braga)



Fig. 30. Hohenzollern House in Swakopmund, Namibia, by Hermann Dietz, 1904-06 (source: Wikipedia, photo by Martin Cígler)



Fig. 31. Hotel Prinz Heinrich in Qingdao, China, 1899 (source: Wikipedia, photo by StefanTsingtauer)



Fig. 32. Villa Goerke in Lüderitz, Namibia (source: Wikipedia, photo by Bgabel)



Fig. 33. Residential House in Windhoek, Namibia (photo by Wander Luster)

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