

Waterfront Development and Land Reclamation for Urban Tourism in Manado, Indonesia

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Abstract. This study is aimed to identify common issues in urban tourism where Manado Waterfront Development existed. Manado waterfront was expected to be the focus of residents' activities in support of tourism and community development. Urban tourism has been used to create economic growth by providing new employment opportunities and by increasing business capacity. The current study has shown that Manado Waterfront Development and land reclamation were originally intended to maximize the city's potentials as a tourist destination and also to promote commercial development for economic gains. The study emphasizes that successful waterfront development must address multiple needs and uses, including tourism. This study involves questionnaire survey on the field and on-site observations to provide evidences of waterfront development in Manado, Indonesia. The present study makes several noteworthy contributions that confirm the interdependence between coastal zone planning and management, waterfront development and land reclamation in coastal areas. As an important part of the city's tourism development, Manado Waterfront Development inevitably involves the use of coastal resources. While the rapid growth of Manado Waterfront Development within Manado Bay was perhaps unavoidable, many of the negative impacts of the project could have been avoided if clear guidelines had been put in place and implemented.

1 Introduction

Urban tourism development in the Less Developed Countries (LDCs) is likely to be seen as a way to overcome local economic and social welfare issues. There are large disparities in the socio-economic development levels of different regions and the tourism industry can be a means of revitalizing less developed areas. Cities in developing countries are generally in an expansion phase and tourism is being used as a catalyst for development. There is a need to invest in tourism resources, such as heritage attractions and infrastructure, in order to enhance tourism activities. Tourism is seen as a regeneration strategy but protection of natural and cultural resources is also required to support

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tourism for the benefit of cities. However, it is not easy to achieve an acceptable balance between the protection and utilization of resources so that over-exploitation of natural resources often occurs in developing countries. Thus, while tourism in developing countries should not become the reason to over-exploit natural and cultural resources, it is a challenge to use these resources to boost city development for both social and economic benefits within the constraints of tolerable negative impacts.

2 Literature reviews

2.1 Waterfront development

In spite of much discussion concerning waterfront development in the urban planning literature, few clear definitions of the waterfront exist. Few scholars have defined waterfronts precisely. Breen and Rigby (1996) consider the bay, canal, lake, pond and river, including man-made water bodies, under the generic term 'waterfront'. The Coastal Zone Management Act (CZMA) of the United States, section 306A (a) (2) defines the term "urban waterfront" or port as: "any developed area that is densely populated and is being used for, or has been used for urban residential, recreational, commercial, shipping or industrial purposes" (Goodwin, 2008). McGovern (2008) pointed out that the waterfront in Philadelphia is situated at the edge of the city centre and adjacent to a refurbished historic district and serves as a centre of commerce, tourism and recreation. The specific nature of waterfronts provides unique characteristics for urban development (Malone, 1996). Waterfront development often is expensive, requires much investment and, therefore, involves large outside investors (Amin and Thrift, 1992). However, challenges may arise in the operational stages due to the high degree of dependency on such business operators causing the government and other public' authorities to weaken their position as the development process proceeds. Then, the development may meet business and commercial purposes while protection of the environment and natural resources may be neglected.

In contrast to definitions of waterfronts, the history of waterfront development is well documented. For the last 200 years, waterside locations have been used for port facilities, manufacturing industry, boat building, repair and maintenance, drainage and sewage-treatment plants (Craig-Smith, 1995). In the 1970s, urban regeneration of waterfront areas emerged as an area of academic study in North America with contributions made by architects, planners and urban geographers. Ten years later, political scientists, geographers and economists fostered this area of study in Europe. Contributions to waterfront development literature have also emerged from Australia (Bradbourne, 1989) where the international nature of the waterfront revitalization processes was traced. Redevelopment of waterfront areas in the United States began in the late 1950s under the Urban Renewal Program. In the United Kingdom, waterfront development was undertaken by Urban Development Corporations or other development agencies that encouraged acceleration of redevelopment in such places. Wrenn (1983: 9) claimed that urban waterfronts in North America have historically suffered from a lack of vision and management in their adaptations to successive demands for new functions because waterfront development and growth have been disjointed and incremental, and characterized by a web of loosely-related decisions and actions by dozens of political jurisdictions and hundreds of entrepreneurs.

2.2 Urban tourism

Ashworth (1992) proposed two conditions which showed the complexity of the relationship between urban features and tourism functions in creating urban tourism. First, the intrinsic characteristic of cities as a settlement type shapes tourism or leisure activities where urban tourism emerges. Second,

the tourism and leisure functions also shape important aspects of cities. Moreover, cities are places where various major facilities such as transport, hotels and event facilities are located. Jansen-Verbeke (1986) sorted urban tourism products into three types of elements (Figure 1).

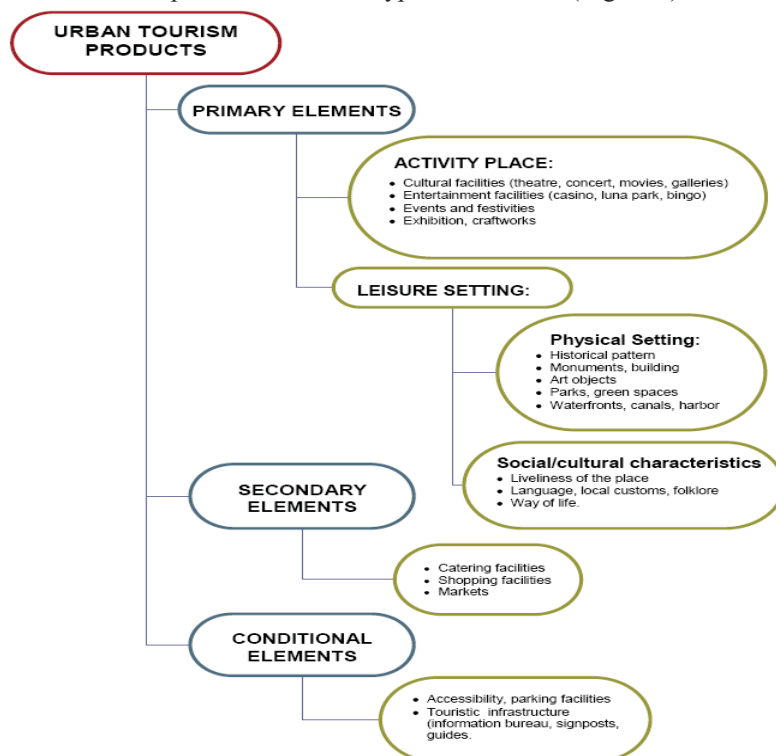


Figure1. Elements of urban tourism product, adapted from Jansen-Verbeke (1986: 86)

Primary elements include activity places such as cultural, sports and amusement facilities and leisure settings with a variety of physical and socio-cultural characteristics. Secondary elements provide services and include accommodation, food and beverage, and various forms of shopping opportunities. The conditional elements of the urban tourism product are ancillary goods and services consisting of infrastructure, such as transportation, and information for tourists. Wall (2006) argued that complexity, which is inextricably melded into the nature and structure of urban tourism, gives rise, at the same time, to many challenges and opportunities. The complexity of the relationships between cities and tourism has been discussed increasingly from various perspectives such as geography, urban planning and tourism disciplines (Jansen-Verbeke, 1986, 1992; Ashworth, 1989, 1992; Law, 1991; Page, 1995). Rehabilitation for tourism was seen as one way to revive declining industrial areas in the western world. Tyler and Guerrier (1998) stated that urban tourism, especially in larger cities that are already well-known nationally and internationally, can suffer from a lack of focus for it may not be clear exactly why tourism is being developed. Most urban tourism investments have been located in relatively more developed western and southern regions and often in ecologically sensitive coastal areas.

Urban tourism has been used to create economic growth by providing new employment opportunities and by increasing business capacity. This has led to an increase in planning for tourism in cities based on existing resources and the creation of new products, providing a challenge to develop urban tourism in a sustainable manner. According to Dieke (2005), tourism planning refers to the methods policy makers adopt to achieve tourism development objectives. Such planning can occur at national, regional and local levels, incorporating the following components: (1) analysis of demand;

(2) analysis of the availability and quality of tourism assets; (3) forecasting of visitor demand; (4) costing and financing of the tourism plan; (5) human resource development issues; and (6) marketing. Dieke stated that implementation of urban tourism plans require a plan of action. When the plan is accepted (usually by government), it should also have incorporated three additional components: (1) an implementation strategy (action plan); (2) a monitoring procedure (Is the plan meeting the objectives and/or have unforeseen problems or other difficulties arisen?); and (3) an evaluation function which relates to an assessment of whether objectives have been achieved, need to be modified or discarded. Such a process should ensure that the plan and its implementation are constantly monitored so that they can be altered as necessary to meet changing market conditions or priorities. To plan effectively for urban tourism development while lessening its negative effects, planners need to understand the multiple sectors that exist in cities and their relationship to tourism and how these have been changing over time and space.

Urban tourism has often been viewed separately from other land uses and physical planning. However, towns and cities have rapidly changed and developed as tourist attractions. Therefore, land use planners, including planners of urban tourism, have become concerned with environmental and economic issues during the planning process. Hall (2000) argued that land use planning concerns within an ecological emphasis, such as environmental problems, have come to be defined in terms of human-environment relationships. Tourism is often considered as a challenge to the sustainability of urban environments, just as it is within wilderness and rural environments (Hinch, 1996). Tourism entrepreneurs, planners and researchers have readily adopted the rhetoric of sustainable development as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (World Commission of Environment and Development, 1986: 43). Therefore, planners should address the need for sustainability.

2.3 Waterfront development and land reclamation

According to Goodwin (1999), waterfront revitalization is a process that begins with the desires of a community to improve its waterfront and that proceeds through a series of planning steps and public review to adoption of a waterfront plan. Implementation of the plan involves public and private actions, investment decisions, and developments which occur, ideally, in a coordinated fashion. He also presented typical elements of physical changes resulting from waterfront revitalization: "Dilapidated structures are razed, infrastructure upgraded, and land parcels assembled for private development. Normally, public walkways and viewpoints, and waterside improvements such as visiting vessel floats or docks, are installed. Leased space is rented in new or refurbished buildings; townsfolk and visitors discover a new amenity at their backdoor; pedestrian counts rise and new businesses respond to the market opportunities they present" (Goodwin, 1999: 241). Waterfront developments were a key feature of urban redevelopment in the 1980s as the revolution in shipping made former connections with port lands redundant. Much waterfront land was previously cut off from public access, and dock walls and buildings obscured the view of the water, but access and land could potentially be reclaimed for the community (Law, 1994). To a certain extent, land reclamation has become a solution for waterfront development in locations with scarce flat coastal land resources. Since land in Singapore is so scarce, there is a limit to physical growth and there is not much that can be done other than to build upwards and to undertake reclamation schemes. Singapore has employed reclamation to provide the land for an airport, a bridge, commercial and industrial sites, and recreational parks and islands. Land-scarce territories like Japan, Singapore and Hong Kong have resorted to major reclamation programs that have allowed expansion and development of new infrastructure to facilitate business, port and airport growth. Particularly in Hong Kong, land reclamation for the urban core represents the sole remaining source of substantial new land and development sites, housing expansion, and extension to the central business district and for specific requirements, such as exhibition and cultural sites and expansion of the port (Bristow, 1988). It is obvious that, on the one hand, waterfront development and reclamation have significantly contributed

to environmental degradation and, on the other hand, it often has environmental improvement as a primary objective. However, questions arise concerning the extent to which such developments give benefits and how to balance the two phenomena. Jay and Handley (2001) suggested the application of Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) to land reclamation practice. They argued that EIA is a tool to assist in limiting the potential environmental damage of developments. However, Balfors (1993) raised questions about whether or not EIA can be used in a wider design process of environmental improvement. Can it be an instrument for guiding a process that will find solutions? The reclamation of land takes a state of environmental degradation as its starting point and has positive improvement of adverse conditions as its aim (Handley, 1996). In the case of Singapore, nineteen islands were created between 1975 and 1977 and, based on a simple qualitative analysis; such developments have had more positive than negative impacts (Kim and Siong, 1985).

3 Methodology

This research involved a mixed methods approach, combining quantitative and qualitative research techniques. Fieldwork comprising questionnaire surveys and on-site observations were used to provide evidences of waterfront development in Manado. The questionnaire surveys were coded and analyzed using The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). It was used to calculate descriptive statistics, such as frequencies and means; to generate cross-tabulations; and to prepare graphs. Likert scales were used in the questionnaire, with possible scores from 1 to 5, to generate numerical indicators of the level of importance that respondents attached to their responses. The research question is explored through a case study of Manado, North Sulawesi, Indonesia. Case studies are a qualitative strategy through which the researcher explores in-depth a program, event, activity, process, or one or more individuals. The case(s) are bounded by time and activity and the researcher collects detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time (Cresswell, 2009). The advantage of a case study approach is that it permits a particular case to be explored in depth. However, there is no guarantee that a particular case is typical and this limits the extent to which findings can be generalized to other cases. This research focuses on the case of waterfront development in Manado, Indonesia, which has been planned since 1991. The study examines the MWD program, process and the people involved in the project. City governments of Manado have introduced waterfront development to the public over a period of almost two decades. Since 1992, a vision has existed to establish Manado as a waterfront city to attract tourists and visitors to the area. As a part of that program, the city government declared the vision for Manado to become a world-class tourism city in 2010. For development purposes, Manado waterfront has been divided into three clusters that are to be developed consecutively: clusters A, cluster B and cluster C (Fig 2). Cluster A was selected as the site for this study because it is a location that is undergoing massive land reclamation in an area that has important tourism resources in Manado. The Boulevard area has become the primary zone for shopping and local recreation and provides access, through the port, to the offshore islands, including Bunaken National Park. There are many buildings that are used for trade and business purposes. The spatial distributions of tourism, commercial and residential land uses overlap as can be seen in the development plan. The area exists in the middle of the city or Central Business District (CBD) with a high level of use and a wide variety of uses by and for the local community. Furthermore, changes in waterfront uses to date have primarily taken place in cluster A. Division of Manado Waterfront into Cluster A, Cluster B and Cluster C is shown on the map on Figure 2.

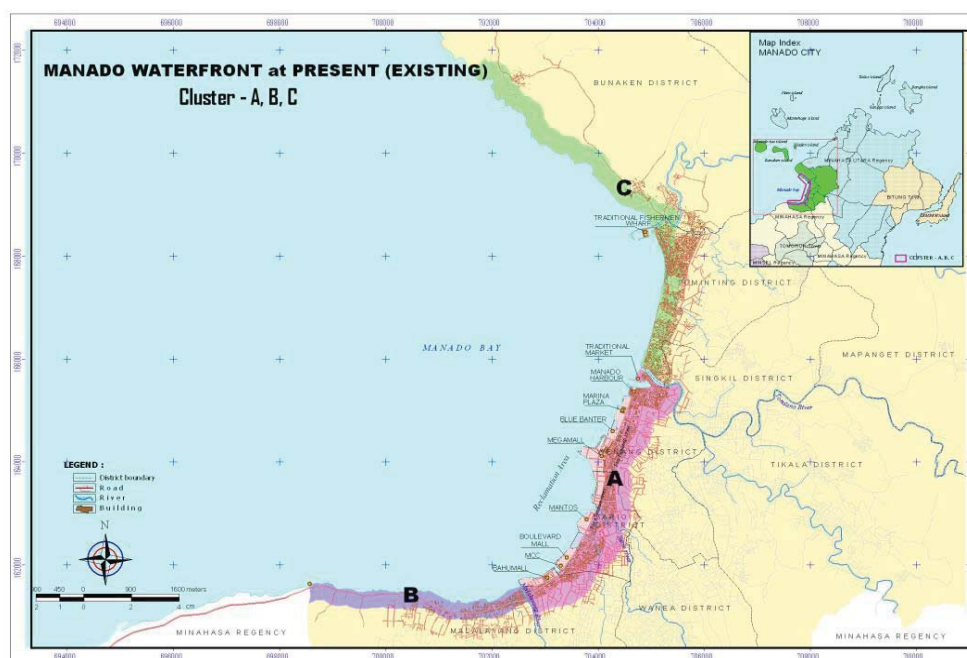


Figure 2. Cluster A, B and C of Manado waterfront

4 Results and discussions

4.1 Manado waterfront as a part of city tourism planning

Manado was positioned as a waterfront city for it has a long coastline and the business centre has evolved in close proximity to the sea. In congruence with stakeholders' perceptions of Manado Waterfront Development, tourism was expected to be the leading sector within the region and was considered to have an important role in city development. The respondents saw the Manado waterfront as being a key component of this: 53% of respondents strongly agreed and 41% agreed with this perspective (Figure 3). Thus, through urban tourism planning, Manado Waterfront Development was expected to be the focus of residents' activities in support of tourism and community development. The aim for Manado to be a world tourism city by 2010 was predicated upon the role of tourism in Manado Waterfront Development. This vision was recognized by residents and governments at all levels. However, the high priority of the city government to use tourism as a stimulus of regional development, through Manado Waterfront Development, was blurred by the lack of detailed guidelines for implementation.

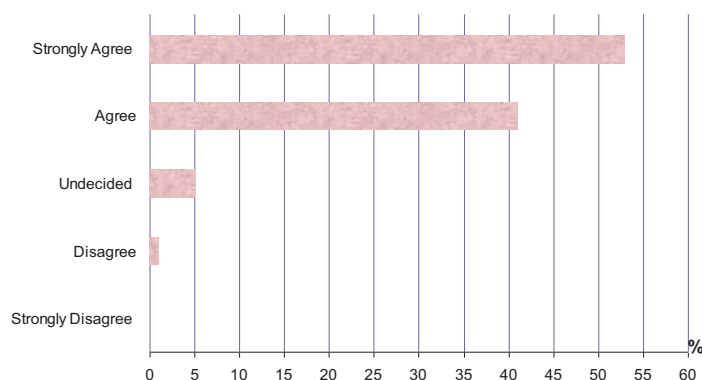


Figure 3. The importance of the waterfront to city tourism (Survey 2013)

Respondents evaluated the importance of various uses of the water waterfront from 1 to 8 (indicating very important to less important) and the mean scores are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Mean scores of the importance of the uses of Manado waterfront

Uses on Manado waterfront	Average Rank
Tourism port	2.38
Ferries	3.29
Public recreation	3.29
Conference facilities	4.33
Restaurants	4.42
Fish and vegetable market	5.10
Department stores and shopping centres	5.63
Hawkers and food stalls	6.56

Source: Survey 2013

The scores show that respondents recognized that some activities, such as ports and ferries, require water access; others, such as recreation and conference facilities, are enhanced by being on the waterfront, but some, such as department stores and supermarkets, do not need a coastal location. However, the latter are currently major users of the reclaimed land. The findings suggest that respondents have a reasonable understanding of what needs to be and, conversely, what does not need to be on the waterfront. It follows that the respondents have reservations about the existing uses on the waterfront where many large buildings, including malls, limit direct access to the shoreline and restrict views of Manado Bay and the islands.

4.2 Manado as a waterfront tourist destination

Manado City Government set the goal of becoming a world-class international tourism city by 2010 and this message was advertised in various media to introduce it to both residents and visitors. More than half (54%) of respondents were very enthusiastic about the potential of Manado to become a prominent waterfront city as well as a tourist destination and a further 43% agreed somewhat (Figure 4). Only 3% felt that Manado lacked potential to become a waterfront tourism destination. Thus, it is

evident that there was substantial support for the development and positioning of Manado as tourism destination.

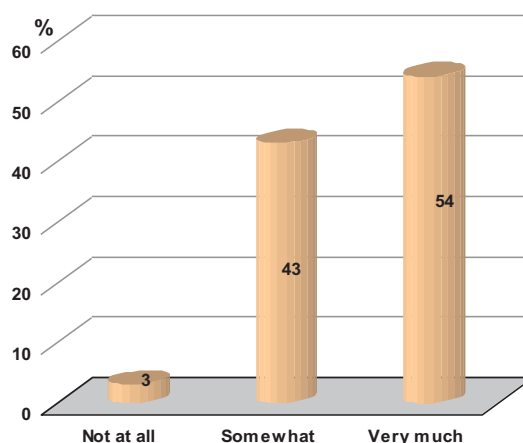


Figure 4. Manado's potential as a waterfront tourist destination (Survey 2013)

4.3 Land reclamation and waterfront development in Manado

The current study has shown that Manado Waterfront Development was originally intended to maximize the city's potentials as a tourist destination and also to promote commercial development for economic gains. The study emphasizes that successful waterfront development must address multiple needs and uses, including tourism. Debate also continues about the land reclamation and waterfront development within Manado Bay. Observation on the Manado waterfront in the past and at present has drawn attention to the paradox about the land uses within the area. The natural environment has been extensively exploited for economic reasons. However, important questions that need to be asked are whether and to what extent the land reclamation benefits multiple stakeholders and when the land reclamation will be stopped and who will stop it. It is evident that there is increasing concern that some stakeholders, such as fisher families, on the Manado waterfront are being disadvantaged. Massive land reclamation and additional developers appeared in the Manado Waterfront Development project at the operational stage. This was a problem because the development was not well balanced and lacked conservation efforts for environmental protection. Manado Waterfront Development lacks coordination between coastal planners and land reclamation developers to discuss strategic issues. Complaints and criticisms have been made regarding Manado Waterfront Development in part because of lack of participation of all stakeholders in the planning and decision-making processes. Regardless, the research shows, through questionnaire survey, that Manado Waterfront Development is widely viewed to be having more positive than negative impacts. It probably implies that the Manado Waterfront Development project has prioritized short-term rather than long-term benefits. Irrespective of the reasons for waterfront development and land reclamation within Manado Bay, it is evident that Manado Waterfront Development has harmed the environment. It has become a commercial and promotional tool for the public authorities and business operators to attract and strengthen investment opportunities in the city. The commercial exploitation of reclaimed land has been resisted by certain groups because of the changes that have occurred to the physical environment of Manado Bay. Both local and international NGOs have been very critical of the government policies on land reclamation in Manado Bay.

5 Conclusion

The present study makes several noteworthy contributions that confirm the interdependence between coastal zone planning and management, waterfront development and land reclamation in coastal areas. As an important part of the city's tourism development, Manado Waterfront Development inevitably involves the use of coastal resources. However, the development has lacked balance among the environmental, social and economic benefits. Guidelines and standards were not used by the city government as a base for the establishment of coastal management and development policies. While the rapid growth of Manado Waterfront Development within Manado Bay was perhaps unavoidable, many of the negative impacts of the project could have been avoided if clear guidelines had been put in place and implemented. This research confirms the many challenges documented in previous studies of the waterfront development in cities regardless of size. However, it provides additional evidence concerning waterfront development in a mid-size city in a Less Developed Country (LDC) such as Indonesia. The empirical findings in this study provide a new understanding of the waterfront development in Manado as a mid-sized city in a developing country, particularly with respect to the establishment and promotion of the city as a waterfront tourist destination. In addition to the efforts to make the Manado waterfront into a commercial centre, the significant opportunity to make the city a tourism destination has been recognized. However, the present study is unable to provide evidence that the Manado Waterfront Development project fostered integration in the management and development of water and land areas. A critical limitation of Manado Waterfront Development is that it is not specifically designed, planned and carried out based on sustainable development principles. The research also examined the capability of the waterfront development to meet the various needs and interests of the coastal communities, as a centre for trade and business, leisure, lifestyle enhancement and tourism region.

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