

PLANNING APPROACH TO MANADO WATERFRONT DEVELOPMENT FOR URBAN TOURISM IN MANADO, INDONESIA.

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Abstract

Waterfront development is acknowledged as being significant to urban tourism planning and, ideally, the involvement of multiple stakeholders should be required in the development program. This research argues that although the importance of urban waterfronts has been realized, planners do not always give sufficient attention to tourism uses of the waterfront in their plans. Tourism planning and waterfront development are commonly presented separately in different documents so that there is a lack of synergy between them. Waterfront and urban tourism development might contribute to good practice for the planning and decision-making processes for resource and environmental management, especially for long-term waterfront planning. Principles for the involvement of stakeholders in planning are reviewed and evaluated in the context of tourism and waterfront development in Manado, Indonesia. The principles of sustainable tourism development are assessed in a situation in which there is tension between the achievement of socio-economic benefits and the protection of environmental quality. This research involved desktop research and fieldwork comprising questionnaire surveys and on-site observations to provide evidences of waterfront development in Manado, and the planning process that preceded it. The study provides evidence of the links between waterfront development and tourism planning in a mid-sized city in a less-developed country. Governments and Manado waterfront developers expect high returns from MWD through increasing local revenues and a stronger regional economy. However, the sustainability of the development is debatable. A stronger economy, increased incomes and wider job opportunities are widely acknowledged, but an enhanced quality of life for local people is not yet certain, especially if environmental degradation continues.

Key words: waterfront, planning, approach, urban tourism, Manado

Introduction

Manado city as the capital of the province of North Sulawesi is recognized as one of marine destinations in the world where the World Ocean Conference in 2009 and the World Coral Reef Conference in 2014 were taken place. The position of North Sulawesi in the Pacific Rim and at the gate of a distribution point in the Eastern part of Indonesia is considered as the selling points of the region. Activities involving the development of tourism with local participation can successfully raise public awareness that can be used to improve the support of various parties. The introduction of a clustered-based model and strategy for tourism on the Manado waterfront is expected to increase the contribution of tourism to a wide range of development issues from environmental conservation to social and economic benefits leading the direction of sustainability principles. This is relevant to the main purpose of tourism development in Manado as a coastal city that is to create socio-economic advantage both for city residents and urban development. Urban development along the coastal area in Manado bay has currently created avoidable coastal environmental modifications. Manado Waterfront Development (MWD) was done by giving priority to substantial economic benefit in the short term. However, for long-term the protection of environmental quality is very important. A great extent of tourism research have been carried out range from identification of tourism potential, characteristics of tourist attractions, tourism management, to tourism marketing and program evaluation. However, limited literature on the planning tourism on the waterfront development was presented. This study explores how the planning approach model will apply to planning tourism on the waterfront that based on the conceptual context of tourism and waterfront.

Conceptual Contexts of Planning Approach

Many definitions of planning exist. Hudson (1979) pointed out that planning involves foresight in formulating and implementing programs and policies. Wall (2003) described planning as a process involving the exercise power and it often results in the production of a document or plan which can then be used to guide future activities. Hall (1992) and Veal (1992) asserted that planning is the process of preparing a set of decisions for action in the future directed at achieving goals by preferred. In an earlier document, Chadwick (1971) stated that planning is a process of human thought and action for the future. Hall (2000) reported that planning is a kind of decision making and policy making: it deals with a set of interdependent and systematically related decisions rather than individual decisions. Therefore, planning from the author perspective is a list of guidelines that provide key information and instructions that figure out what will be done in the future. It is perfectly designed in writing by different people with different background depending on what kind of planning will be done. However, it sometimes has to adjust to the current condition after long time the file has been documented. There

are various crucial aspects that influence the planning implementation in the field depending on the economic, social, environmental, cultural and most importantly political condition where the planning operates. In most cases, based on the author experience, planning document is about to change when the resources become available to implement it. It will more likely to change according to the interest, priority, view and purpose of the government bureaucracy who has full authority over his or her period of time of governance. As a result, there are so many planning will lack of effectiveness and create dissatisfaction of those who get involved in the planning design. A broad review of a range of traditional planning approaches was undertaken by Hudson (1979). They included synoptic planning, incremental planning, transactive planning, advocacy planning and radical planning and he summed these up in the acronym 'SITAR'. Each of these will be considered in turn.

Synoptic Planning

Slusser (1999) explained that the synoptic model of planning follows a process involving the following steps : (1) goals and objectives are set; (2) policy alternatives are identified; (3) the policy alternatives are evaluated for such as aspects as efficiency and constraints, and often conceptual models and evaluation techniques (such as cost-benefit analysis) are used to assess the alternatives; (4) a policy option is then selected and implemented. Hudson (1979:388) maintained that the process of synoptic planning is not always undertaken in a strict sequence because each stage permits multiple iterations, feedback loops and elaboration of sub-processes. Synoptic planning typically looks at problems from a systems viewpoint, using conceptual or mathematical models relating ends (objectives) to means (resources and constraints) with heavy reliance on numbers and quantitative analysis. Despite its capacity for great methodological refinement and elaboration, the real power of the synoptic approach is its basic simplicity. Another name for such synoptic planning is rational comprehensive planning and it can be seen in a tourism context in the development of national and provincial tourism master plans.

Incremental Planning

Incrementalism is a practical response to rationalism (Slusser, 1999). Incremental planning is considered as less of a scientific technique and more of a mixture of intuition and experience. Major policy changes may be made in small increments over long periods of time. Incrementalism very accurately describes what actually occurs in most planning offices on a daily basis. Hudson (1979) suggested two main points pertaining to incremental planning. First, the case for incremental planning derives from a series of criticisms leveled at synoptic rationality such as its insensitivity to existing institutional performance capabilities, its reductionist epistemology and its failure to appreciate the cognitive limits of decision makers.

Second, incrementalists also take issue with the synoptic tradition of expressing social values.

Transactive Planning

Like incrementalism, transactivism does not view planning purely as a scientific technique. Transactivism espouses planning as a decentralized function based on face-to-face contacts, interpersonal dialogues, and mutual learning (Slusser, 1999). Transactive planning is not carried out with respect to an anonymous target community of beneficiaries, but in face-to-face contact with the people affected by decisions (Hudson, 1979). Another major study by Friedmann (1973) suggested that transactive planning consists less of field surveys and data analyses, and more of interpersonal dialogue marked by a process of mutual learning. It also refers to the evolution of decentralized planning institutions that help people take increasing control over the social processes that govern their welfare. Planning is not seen as an operation that is separate from other forms of social action, but rather as a process embedded in continual evolution of ideas validated through action.

Advocacy Planning

The fourth type of planning approach is advocacy planning. Planners advocate and defend the interests of a particular client or group (which is preferably economically disadvantaged and/or politically unorganized or underrepresented). Slusser (1999:30) reported that three key people promoted advocacy planning. These were:

1. Paul Davidoff who was an early champion of advocacy planning. He argued that there is not one public interest for planners to serve and thus, planners have no choice but to become non-objective advocates for specific interests and groups.
2. Saul Alinsky developed an advocacist vision of planning that is centered around so called 'organizations'. Alinsky's organizations are developed where people feel powerless. These organizations then hire planners (which Alinsky largely sees as political organizers) to identify problems, develop an awareness of these problems and generate action.
3. Alan Altshuler also argued for abandoning the objective, non-political view of planning. He felt that to be effective, planners must become actively involved in the political process.

In theory, advocacy calls for development of plural plans rather than just one plan (Davidoff 1965). In practice, however, advocacy planning has been criticized for posing stumbling blocks without being able to mobilize equally effective support for constructive alternatives (Peattie :1968).

Radical planning

Slusser (1999) pointed that that radicalism counters the hierarchical bureaucracies, centralized planning, and domineering professional planners. He argued that

planning is most effective when it is performed by non-professional neighborhood planning committees that empower common citizens to experiment with solving their own problems. The ideal outcomes of the planning process are collective actions that promote self-reliance. More than other planning approaches, however, its starting point is collective actions and ideas that can achieve concrete results in the immediate future. It draws on varying sources of inspiration - economics and the ecological ethic (Schumacher, 1973), social architecture (Goodman, 1971), humanistic philosophy (Illich, 1973), and historical patterns of different groups or organizations (Katz & Bender 1976; Hampden, 1975).

The acronym 'SITAR' based on the first letters of Synoptic, Incremental, Transactive, Advocacy, and Radical planning is symbolic of the sitar or lute which is a five stringed musical instrument from India. It can be played by performing on a single string at a time or by weaving a blend of harmony and dissonance from all five. The same applies to SITAR as taxonomy of planning approaches for each can render a reasonable solo performance in good hands, but fuller possibilities can be created by use of each approach in conjunction with the others (Hudson, 1979:390). Table 1 explains the characteristics of the SITAR criteria for describing and evaluating the planning tradition proposed by Hudson (1979).

Table 1 : Characteristics of the SITAR traditions

Major criteria, or descriptive characteristics of planning theory	The SITAR traditions				
	Synoptic	Incremental	Transactive	Advocacy	Radical
	Planning	Planning	Planning	Planning	Planning
Public interest	√	√	√		
Human dimension					√
Feasibility					
Action potential	√	√	√	√	√
Substantive theory		√	√		√
Self-reflective			√	√	√

Note: √ indicates partial or one sided treatment, blank cells indicate characteristic weaknesses

(Sources: Hudson, 1979)

Public interest	Explicit theory of the public interest, along with methods to articulate significant social May include principles of distributive justice, and procedures for dealing with conflict.
Human dimensions	Attention to the personal and spiritual domains of policy imp acts, including intangible outcomes beyond functional-instrumental objectives for example, psycho-social development, enhancement of dignity, and capacity for self-help.
Feasibility	Ease of learning and applying the theory. Implies the theory is practical to translate into policy implications, and adaptable to varying types of problems, scales of action and social settings.
Action potential	Provision for carrying ideas into practice, building on experience underway and identifying new lines of effective solutions to problems.
Substantive theory	Descriptive and normative theory of social problems and processes of social change. Predictive capacity based on informal judgments, not just trend extrapolation; ability to trace long range and indirect policy consequences; historical perspectives on opportunities and constraints on action.
Self-reflective	Capacity for laying analytical assumptions open to criticism and counter -proposals; provision for learning from those being planned for; capacity for depicting concrete experience in everyday language, as well as conceptual models using aggregate data.

Table 1 indicates major strengths or emphases within SITAR. One can identify additional modes of thought, such as indicative planning, bottom up planning, ethnographic planning methods, social learning theory, comparative epistemologies of planning, urban and regional planning, basic needs strategies, urban design, environmental planning, macro-economic policy planning and so on. These can be added to the SITAR package of planning traditions. However, it is necessary continuously examine and assess what relevant to the context and time for which planning is required. The question is whether this traditional planning approach is applicable in the present. With more rigorous study and evaluation this can be more fully established.

Collaborative Planning

Collaborative planning involves interaction in the form of a partnership through consensus building in plan development and implementation using stakeholder and public involvement (Lowry *et al*, 1997; Malgerum, 2002). Collaborative decision making requires a process of shared decision making usually through a group of stakeholders prepared to share information and build consensus (Fulton, 1989). The participants in the process are typically people with a particular interest or stake in the outcome. These stakeholders may include representatives of government,

interest groups, and major sectors of the community. Some of the most common obstacles that have confronted stakeholder groups in their efforts to build consensus include contextual, compositional, operational, organizational, ideological and power and capacity limitations. Gray (1989:57) traced the process of collaborative planning and divided it into three phases. First, there is a problem setting phase, in which stakeholders become involved and a convener is determined. Second, there is the direction-setting phase, in which the stakeholder groups interact in an effort to reach consensus. Third, stakeholders work to implement their decisions through individual and joint actions. Wall (2003) stated that while there are many forms of planning, most of those currently advocated in the developing world, such as participatory, community and collaborative planning, are oriented towards the mediation of power imbalances in decision-making processes through the involvement of the public.

Approaches to Tourism Planning

Tourism has been defined as “the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destination, and the facilities created to cater to their needs” (Mathieson and Wall, 1982:1). Tourism is also described as an inherently spatial concept with various overlapping dimensions (such as economic, environmental and social) and, as such, it is best viewed from a broad perspective (Wall, 2003). Debates have also emerged on whether or not tourism is an industry (Smith, 1988; 1994, Leiper, 1979; 1983, Davidson, 2005). However, tourism is certainly as a huge phenomenon involving millions of people who spend massive amounts of money. It is a growth industry in numbers and spending and is extending into the most remote parts of the world. It is a major element of the economy in many countries. As one of the world’s largest industries, it is increasingly promoted as an engine for development and poverty alleviation (Litchfield, 1988; Tepelus, 2006). Tourism generates employment and income for residents of destination areas and is often perceived as a means of heritage and environmental preservation, and a stimulus for the creation of infrastructure, inter-cultural communication and even political stability (Andriotis, 2005; Ioannides, 1995; Squire, 1996). While tourism has demonstrated potential for creating jobs to benefit destination communities and, less clearly, environmental protection, there are a number of conditions under which these potentials can be used more effectively. Successful tourism development is best achieved with collaboration of all stakeholders, including governments and intergovernmental bodies, the private sector, related industries, destination communities and NGOs. A major goal for tourism development should be to increase the utilization of tourism resources whilst protecting the natural

environment and cultural heritage, improving economic well-being and maintaining the social and cultural integrity of destinations.

Getz (1987) stated that planning is a process which seeks to optimize the potential contribution of tourism to human welfare and environmental quality (Getz, 1987). Murphy (1985:156) argued that planning is concerned with anticipating and regulating change in a system, to promote orderly development so as to increase the social, economic and environmental benefits of the development process. The main thrust of this argument is that tourism planning should be able to reduce negative impacts and increase the benefits to the destination, including the local community. From an economic point alone, tourism planning provides an opportunity to design concepts and frameworks with the potential to increase the economic benefits gained from tourism. However, economic-oriented planning and development are likely to create conflicts of interests with advocates of sustainable tourism development. In recognition of this, Moughtin (1996) proposed four principles of sustainable development: a future orientation, attention to environmental matters, equity and participation within the context of a planning and development issue. A balance should be achieved economic growth and environmental quality.

Wall (2003) is critical of the existing tourism planning literature. He contends that 'true tourism planning is a virtually impossible task'. The tourism system is complex, involving multiple origins and multiple destinations that are linked by multiple pathways, catering to the needs and desires of diverse and highly competitive markets and operating at a variety of scales from the global to the local. It is not possible to address all of these complexities within the compass of a single plan' (p.3) Therefore, he argues, most of what is called tourism planning is actually the planning of destinations. Gunn (1988) listed a number of assumptions regarding the value of and approaches to tourism planning: 1) only planning can avert negative impacts, although for planning to be effective all actors must be involved and not just professional planners; 2) tourism is symbiotic with conservation and recreation and not a conflicting use with incompatible objective or effects that cannot be reconciled; 3) planning today should be pluralistic, involving social, economic and physical dimensions; 4) tourism planning must be strategic and integrative; 5) tourism planning must have a regional planning perspective: because many problems arise at the interface of smaller areas, a broad planning horizon is essential. In practice, many tourism planners and professionals may find it difficult to employ Gunn's suggestions when undertaking tourism planning projects due to the existence of various constraints and conflicts that differ from the values and approaches that he proposed.

Urban Tourism Planning

The emergence of urban tourism through a process when tourism was seen as a danger in 1970 is argued by Ashworth (1989) as a defensive approach to tourism in the city. However, the economic conditions after the 1970's were the most significant phenomenon in the city, which allowed tourism to be considered an important urban function. The urban tourism product is what attracts and caters to the demands of visitors. The economic decline of the cities in the UK, Western Europe and Northern America in the late 1970's highlighted the role of tourism as a catalyst to boost economy development in urban areas. Therefore, tourism is suggested as a mean to manage the change and transition of city functions and then is expanded to become the principal sector in the city economy. In parallel with this, tourism and urban regeneration started to become important activities and received greater attention in the 1980's related to the problems that exist in the city (Ashworth, 1989; Law, 1991). Ashworth (1992) proposed two conditions for the concepts urban and tourism joined together which showed the complexity of relationship between urban features and tourism functions in creating urban tourism. First, the intrinsic characteristic of cities as a settlement type is perceived as an instrument in shaping tourism or leisure activities where the roles of urban tourism emerge. Second, the function of tourism or leisure also becomes the instrument in shaping important aspects of cities. Moreover, cities are places where various major facilities such as transport, hotel facilities and event facilities are located. Blank (1994) identifies five major factors that characterize cities as tourism destinations: 1) location of high populations, which attract high numbers of tourists who are visiting friends and relatives; 2) major travel nodes that serve as gateways or transfer points to other destinations; 3) focal points for commerce, industry and finance; 4) harbor concentrations of people services such as education, government/administration centre, health and others; 5) places that offer a wide variety of cultural, artistic and recreational experiences. 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. Fainstein and Judd (1999) asserted that the complexity of urban tourism can be addressed through three elements that involve (1) the tourist, 2) the tourism industry and 3) the city. According to Fainstein and Judd, these elements interact and produce a complex ecological system where each of them is unique but is strongly related. Here, the relationship is viewed as: 1) the need of taste and desires of tourists, which 2) requires cities to transform the environment for tourists to inhabit, and therefore 3) requires the constant transformation of urban landscapes because the tourism industry as a 'must' feature for the political economy of the cities. As a new subject for the political economy of the cities, this complexity of urban and tourism relationships has been increasingly discussed from various perspectives and backgrounds such as geography, urban planning and tourism disciplines (Jansen-

Verbeke, 1987, 1992; Ashworth, 1989,1992; Law, 1991; Page, 1995; Wall, 2006). Urban tourism development is the case in the western world where rehabilitation for tourism was seen as one way to revive declining industrial areas. 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. Ashworth (1989) has described the emergence of urban tourism in the 1970s at a time when tourism was seen as a danger, resulting in a defensive approach to tourism in the city. However, the economic conditions in many western cities after the 1970's encouraged the search for new economic drivers, eventually allowing tourism to be an important urban function. Most of the urban tourism investments have been located in relatively more developed western and southern regions and often in ecologically sensitive coastal areas.

Jansen-Verbeke (1986) figured out urban tourism product into three types of elements (Figure 1). The first or primary elements include activity places such as cultural, sports, and amusement facilities, and leisure settings consisting of a variety of physical and socio-cultural characteristics. Secondary elements provide the service dimension and include accommodation, food and beverage, and various forms of shopping opportunities. The third layer of the urban tourism product is ancillary, consisting of infrastructure-like elements related to transportation and tourist information. While the boundaries between these categories can be debated, e.g. shopping facilities. Urban tourism has been used to create new employment opportunities by increasing business capacity and to provide economic growth. 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.

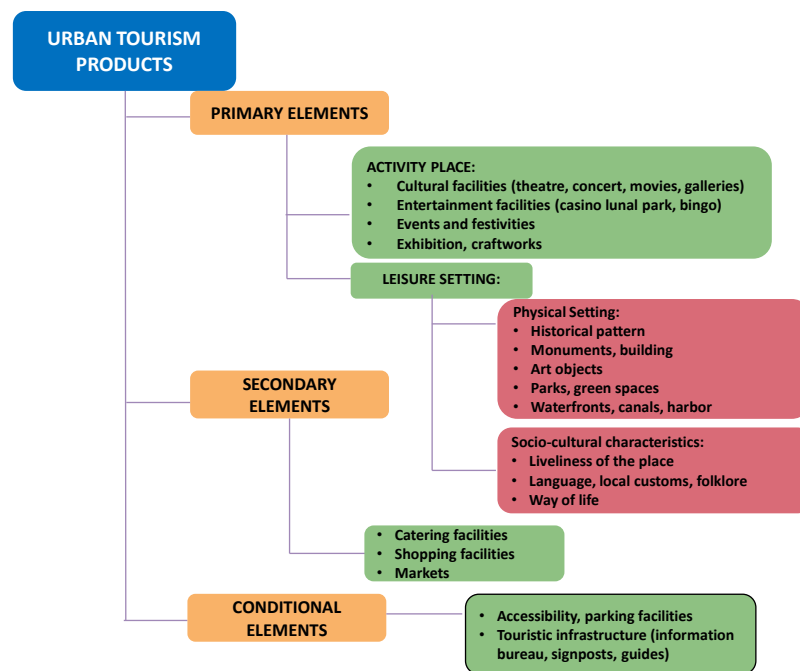


Figure 1: Elements of urban tourism products (Adapted from Jansen-Verbeke, 1986)

According to Dieke (2005), tourism planning refers to the methods policy makers adopts 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 requires 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 it 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 been apart from land use and physical planning in urban tourism development era. Town and cities have rapidly changed and developed as a tourist attraction. Therefore, land use planners including planner for urban tourism

are concerned on environmental and economic issues during their planning process as argued by Hall (2000) that land use planning concerns within an ecological approach as environmental problems have come to be defined in terms of human-environment relationship. This is considered as the challenge of sustainable development as sustainable tourism represents a challenge within urban environments just as it does 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, development planning designs should meet the need for sustainability. Evan (1997:5) proposed a contemporary environmental planning which is conceived as an integrated and holistic approach to the environment that transcends traditional departmental and professional boundaries and is directed toward securing the long term goal of environmental sustainability.

The Waterfront as a Part of Urban Tourism Planning

Buhalis (2001) commented critically that no books that he has reviewed deals satisfactorily with tourism outside of the western economic realm. A detailed description and critical analysis of urban tourism in Asia, Africa and South America is missing and requires attention is to provide a complete picture of urban tourism. He claimed that this is as a result of the lack of urban tourism research in such places. It has resulted in lack of innovation in general tourism texts in the last 15 years. Only a few authors of tourism texts have taken cities as the focal points of their work. Few authors have examined and discussed waterfront development as an important part of urban tourism planning. In fact, waterfronts in urban centres have great potential to: 1) attract local residents as well as tourists for repeat visits; 2) extend the re-use of heritage building; 3) affect the proximity of the central business districts on the success of redeveloped areas; 4) link new sites with existing urban transportation systems; 5) include local residents in the benefit sharing of the success of improvement to their areas through employment, better settlements and quality of life (Craig-Smith & Fagence, 1995). More and more people are being drawn to live on the coast due to quality of life considerations. However, increased productivity stimulated by sea trade requires that the economic activity of coastal cities is overwhelmingly concentrated within a short drive of ocean. Harbours can make a large contribution to productivity. In one of the greatest human migrations of modern times, people are flocking to giant urban agglomerations along shorelines in both developed and less-developed countries. Tibbetts (2002) stated that in 1950, New York City was the planet’s only ‘megacity’, defined as a city with more than 10 million people. Now there are 17 megacities around the globe,

and 14 are located in coastal areas. Eleven of today's megacities are located in Asia, and the fastest-growing ones are located in the tropics. McBee (1992) defined three types of waterfront uses to help planners determine a city's priorities: 1) water-dependent uses are those totally dependent upon the waterfront such as marinas, ferry terminals and shipbuilding; 2) water-related uses are those that are enhanced by a waterfront location but could also prosper elsewhere such as resorts, aquariums, restaurants, and seafood processing plants; 3) water-enhanced uses are those such as hotels and condominiums that exist in many settings, but can attract more patronage with waterfront amenities. Such a classification of uses may be helpful in assigning priorities in allocating land for particular uses for some uses have more locational flexibility than others. Fuller (1995: 51) has documented lessons that can be learned from the results of Alexandria's waterfront revitalization efforts (US), particularly with respect to the underlying planning principles that were used to structure the redevelopment process, taking into account both economic and environmental aspects of development. These principles included: 1) waterfront redevelopment must be based on realistic economic potentials; 2) protecting the waterfront's historic values and enhancing the waterfront experience for local residents and visitors is important for successful redevelopment; 3) water-related commercial activities can play an important role in preserving and increasing waterfront vitality; 4) there is a need to achieve a balanced use of scarce land resources along the waterfront for both public and private purposes. One of the planning strategies underlying the waterfront plan is that rather than create linear continuity along the waterfront, land use continuity is achieved by linking waterfront development with adjacent inland uses (Fuller, 1995 in Craig p. 47). Therefore, successful waterfront development, as a part of tourism planning, must take into account more than the waterfront itself and should occur within the context of regional planning. The aim should be to bring together stakeholders (private sector, local authorities, NGOs, community members and government) to work collaboratively to encourage good practices and put in place development procedures within a system to minimize negative impacts of development and improve environmental management practices. It is also recommended to protect key areas, generate positive contributions to conservation efforts from tourism activities and support the well-being of local people.

Research Methods

This research involved desktop research, fieldwork comprising questionnaire surveys with 100 respondents and on-site observations. It 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. Observational data from field works were recorded for this research and

was used to document the physical setting and the developments that had occurred up to the time that the study was undertaken. It was done by walking systematically in the study area while observing and taking photographs. This information is used to describe and illustrate the current situation in the planning areas of the Manado waterfront. A questionnaire survey was used to collect both descriptive and analytical information. Closed Ended Question (CEQ) was used to give a number of answers from which the respondents must choose. In-depth interviews were conducted with 15 individuals who were key actors in MWD. They came from a variety of different groups and they were recruited using the snowball technique. Interview information was gathered from interviewees who had participated directly in the MWD project team. They were selected because they had first-hand experience in the planning and development process of the Manado waterfront project.

Study Site

Indonesia is a very large country that is rich in natural resources and throughout history it has been a meeting place of many cultures and religions, giving it a very rich cultural and archaeological inheritance. Indonesia is one of the largest countries in the world and is a place of great biological and cultural diversity which create both challenges and opportunities for Indonesia as a country and as a tourist destination (Wall, 2006). By the year 2006, the Ministry of Culture and Tourism has announced 5 main tourist destinations such as North Sulawesi (Manado), South Sulawesi, West Nusa Tenggara, East Nusa Tenggara, and South Sumatera. At the national level, the tourism development campaign has been focused on pro growth, pro job and pro poor.



Figure 2: Indonesia Archipelago

Manado as a dynamic city in Indonesia (Figure 2) has led to an increase in its tourism profile through a review of trends in urban tourism such as product development based on tourist demand. This is seen as a significant sector by local authorities to generate economic growth. It has also led to an increase in planning for tourism in the city based on existing resources and re-creating new products. In addition, it provides a challenge to the application of the concept of urban tourism in a sustainable manner. Regarding this, tourism in Manado is generally in an expansion phase and tourism is used as a catalyst for its development. At the same time, there is a need to invest in tourism resources such as heritage and/or historical attractions and infrastructure in order to enhance and strengthen the tourism image leading to a competitive advantage for the city. Manado, the capital city of North Sulawesi, has taken seriously its tourism development opportunity with its natural, historical, archaeological, socio-cultural and tourism values as well as marine tourism and water-based sports tourism potentials. Combining these different types of tourism and providing cooperation between regions has created a synergy in the tourism sector in less developed areas. As the country is very large, the attractive points with a high tourism potential such as cities and their tourism facilities should be determined. Besides spatial distribution points of tourism should be established in an effort to increase the productivity. The urban tourism that is able to attract tourists has a very widespread potential in Indonesia and specifically in North Sulawesi. Thus, there is potential to make tourism investments in various types of tourism, including urban tourism and marine tourism. Given Manado as has high potential for coastal-based resources, marine tourism is viewed by the governmental authorities as a sector with significant potential to generate economic growth. It is a fact that urban tourism development in Manado emerges as a result of intensive development of tourism infrastructure and product that allows a process of tourism planning. Therefore, forms of urban-based tourism require further studies related to the concept of urban tourism that should be addressed in order to understand the phenomenon and the complexity of urban function which allow tourism to be developed. Manado waterfront 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 a mid-sized city in a developing country. For development purposes, Manado waterfront has been divided into three clusters that are to be developed consecutively: clusters A, cluster B and cluster C (Figure 3). However, for the study purposes, cluster A was selected as the study area. This site was selected due to the high level of use by the local community as described in the Manado Tourism Plan Document (2007). 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.

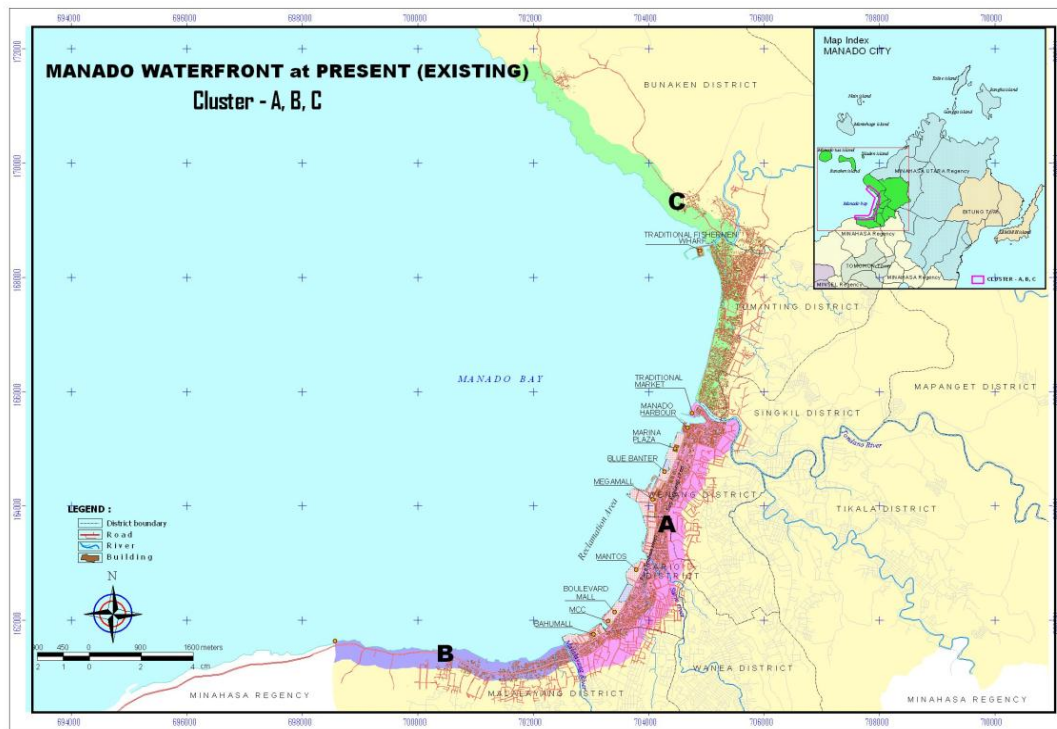


Figure 3: Cluster A, B and C of Manado waterfront

(Modified from Spatial Plan for Manado, 2010)

Results and Discussion

Tourism has been taken seriously by the Manado City authorities and this can be seen in the initiative to promote Manado as a World Tourism City. This effort has provided significant momentum for further development of the waterfront as a part of urban tourism. The local authority has invested heavily to provide infrastructure for tourism, in an attempt to place Manado as a waterfront tourism city. The findings of this research are a blend of the results from the desktop research, survey and field observation. The results of the research will now be described as follow:

Result from desktop research

City Planning for Manado Tourism (2005) recorded that the creation of Manado as a tourism city should involve the following strategies: 1) Implementing an efficient and effective government system and public services; 2) Designing tourism-based spatial distributions; 3) Developing international scale infrastructure; 4) Creating a pleasant and environmentally friendly city. Manado Tourism Harbour (MTH) is a part of the waterfront development that has been developed since 2007. It is located in the city of Manado and is designed to enhance the city's potential with its various kinds of tourist attractions. It needs to be developed further to strengthen Manado city as a tourist destination. It is one of the investment opportunities proposed to support the development of marine tourism in North Sulawesi in general and Manado City in particular. The development opportunities of MTH initially underwent a pre-feasibility study in 2006. From planning document of MTH, it recommended that Manado Harbour be developed into Manado Tourism Harbour as a means of strengthening the development of the city as a whole, thereby contributing to the formation of a waterfront city (Figure 4). In addition, waterfront development is considered to have the potential to strengthen existing tourism attractions, such as Bunaken National Park, historical buildings, and *Ban Hin Kiong* temple in Chinatown as a part of the cultural wealth of Manado City.

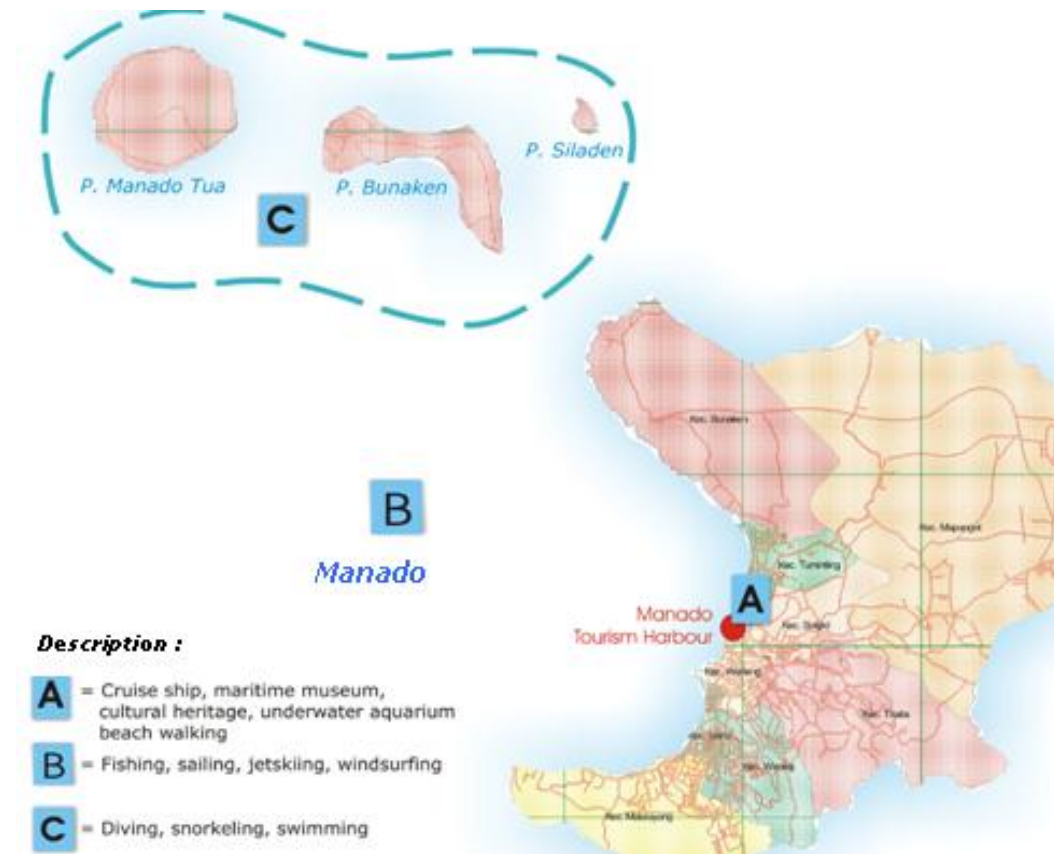


Figure 4: Site planning of MTH (Pre-feasibility study document of MTH, 2006)

Shopping tourism, with a variety of shopping facilities in the waterfront area called ‘Boulevard on Business’ (B on B) and culinary tourism at various locations along the coastline of Manado Bay are also being pursued. The city of Manado is engaged in branding itself based on the local natural and cultural attractions, so that coastal areas, urban heritage and cultural traditions will gain greater importance as economic assets for future urban and regional economic development (Figure 5). The waterfront developments, including the tourism harbour development, have multiple uses and are therefore likely to involve and be of interest to a variety of stakeholders. If the interests of various groups are to be incorporated into development plans leading to greater support, then stakeholder involvement should occur and, ideally, partnerships among stakeholders should be established. A multi-stakeholder approach to waterfront development could make a substantial contribution to user-centered design and demonstrate the advantages of MSA in a context in which such an approach has not previously been adopted. In addition, waterfront development is considered to have the potential to offer and strengthen the existing tourism attractions such as Bunaken National Park, historical buildings, and Ban Hin Kiong temple in Chinatown as a part of the cultural wealth of Manado City. Shopping tourism with a variety of shopping facilities in the waterfront area called ‘Boulevard on Business’ (B on B) and culinary tourism at various locations along the coastline of Manado Bay are also being pursued.

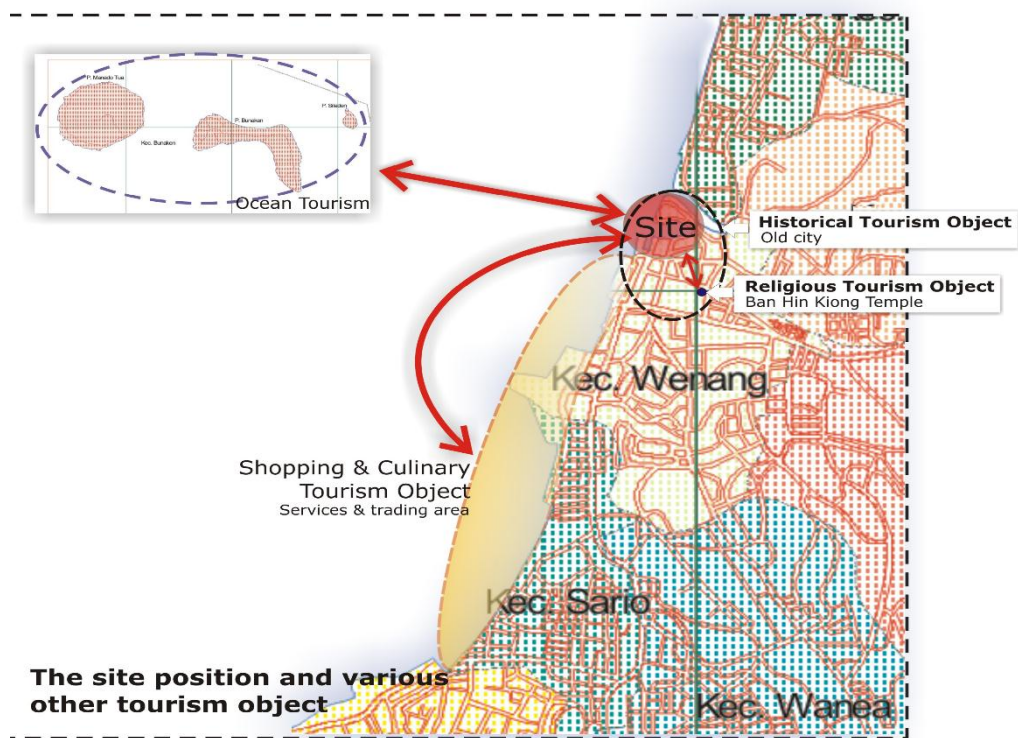


Figure 5: MTH and supported tourist attractions (Pre-feasibility study of MTH, 2006)

Result from on-site observation

Manado waterfront development has extensively and urgently expanded to boost the city government program to establish Manado as a tourism city. Waterfront development occurs along the coastline of the city to serve the communities with their various needs and interests. Manado waterfront with its various kinds of tourist attractions is being developed to strengthen the opportunity both for business purposes and as a tourist destination. The efforts made for implementing these programs have become very obvious in the overall city development especially focused on the waterfront. The waterfront area is designated as a centre for business, leisure, lifestyle and various tourism needs and activities. The plan is to equip the city with various tourism facilities as a part of the development and as an integrated part of the city development planning that is extensively and currently being implemented. Waterfront development as a part of urban tourism has been adopted to support the growth of the city. Heavy investment by the local authority in providing infrastructure for tourism facilities, including through the development and redevelopment of the waterfront, requires integrated planning for the overall urban tourism development in the area. The development and redevelopment trend of Manado City is currently along the coastline of Manado Bay. This can be seen

in the development activities in the reclaimed areas with efforts to create new lands. A variety of service and trading facilities are now spreading along the Boulevard, Jl. Piere Tendean. However, the waterfront development has raised growing criticism and high concern from various parties such as environmentalists, NGOs, and academics regarding shoreline revitalization, particularly the creation of new land for waterfront development. Given this critical issue, it is important to critically review what has been done in terms of protection, enhancement and improvement of the environment leading to sustainable development. On the one hand, waterfront development and the considerable tourism attraction potential attached to it have created good opportunities to gain economic benefits through regional and community development. On the other hand, environmental degradation has gradually increased within and surrounding the area. In such a case, there is a need to reconsider the balance between these two important aspects of development to make sure that as many stakeholders as possible share in the benefits. Therefore, in the process of planning and development, it is essential to have active participation from different types of groups and institutions to seek their insights and to incorporate them into the development program.



Figure 6: Harbour on Manado waterfront (Photo taken by Tambajong, 2015)

For future trends, the city of Manado has engaged in branding tourist attraction locations based on local cultural, social and economic potential. In such a context, coastal areas, urban heritage and cultural traditions will gain greater importance as economic assets for future urban and regional economic development. Regarding

the fact that waterfront development including tourism harbor development in Manado have multiple uses (Figure 6). and therefore are likely to involve and be of interest to a variety of stakeholders. If the interests of various groups are to be incorporated into development plans leading to greater support, then the stakeholder involvement should occur and ideally partnerships among stakeholders should be established. In addition, a multi-stakeholder approach for waterfront development could make a substantial contribution not only to the concepts and theory of user-centered designs but also to its practice including methods and strategies.

Result from the questionnaire survey

100 respondents filled in the questionnaire and returned it either directly or by mail using an attached envelope. The questions are on the involvement of multi stakeholders in planning the Manado Waterfront. Data management and analysis were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The characteristics of the respondents were categorized on the basis of their place of residence. Approximately two thirds (64%) lived at or in the surroundings of MWD and (36%) lived outside of MWD and its surroundings. Figure 7 shows respondents' characteristics based upon their employment: the majority were industry personal (65%) and the remainder were academics (17%), government officials (11%), NGO personnel (4%) and others (3%). Thus, the majority of responses came from employees in industry and business operators at and surrounding the Manado waterfront for they were mostly available during the times the survey was undertaken.

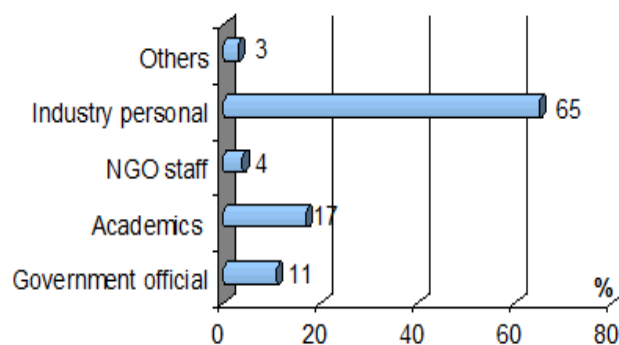


Figure 7: Respondents' professional characteristics

(Survey 2014)

Collaboration, partnership, integration and decision making

During the planning stage of Manado waterfront, respondents were asked on collaboration, partnership and decision making process. When asked about a Multi Stakeholder Approach (MSA) to decision making; partnership (81%), community involvement (72%), integration (69%) and collaboration (65%) all received widespread support (Table 2).

Table 2: Support for main aspects of MSA

Elements of MSA	Not	Somewhat	Very	Total
	Important	Important	Important	
	%	%	%	
Collaboration	8	27	65	100
Partnership	0	19	81	100
Integration	10	21	69	100
Community involvement in dec.making	4	24	72	100

Source: Survey, 2014

Partnership was viewed as the most important element and implied that all parties should meet, discuss and work together. This supports the importance of community access to the decision-making process through which the interests and concerns of different stakeholders could be more widely appreciated. Partnership also suggests that stakeholders with compatible interests should collaborate and share responsibility and benefits. This might require the establishment of formal rules and agreements, such as a memorandum of understanding among the parties involved. Community involvement in the decision making process was also considered to be important as a means for them to play a greater role in MWD, including the broader distribution of benefits.

Stakeholders' engagement in Planning MWD

To gauge stakeholders' ideas of the importance of both direct and indirect participation in the MWD project, a question was asked concerning the importance of issues as reasons for participating. Table 3 shows that the most important issue

was the quality of tourism planning for Manado city (89%). Concerns about branding (81%) and cost of MWD (81%) were also of considerable importance, as was the related topics of Manado's reputation as a tourist (78%) and waterfront (71%) city. Table 3 again provides strong evidence that MWD and its role in tourism was widely perceived as an essential part of the city's tourism planning and development.

Table 3: Importance of issues as reasons to participate

Importance of issues as reasons to participate	Not Important %	Somewhat important %	Very important %	Total %
Image for brand building	1	18	81	100
Reputation as a tourist city	0	22	78	100
Quality of tourism planning for Manado	0	11	89	100
Prestige of Manado as waterfront city	1	28	71	100
Cost of MWD	2	17	81	100
Accessibility to MWD plan & development	2	24	74	100
Others	0	0	9	9

Source: Survey 2014

Developing an image for branding and marketing purposes through MWD was regarded as important because Manado does not have a strong image as a tourism destination, with the possible exception of the niche dive market. The high cost of MWD, because of the large area of land reclamation, was acknowledged, especially the environmental cost that was being accrued in the search for economic benefits. Increasing the reputation and prestige of Manado as a tourist city and waterfront city were also seen as being important reasons to get involved in MWD. Waterfront development and tourism development were viewed as being highly interrelated and, thus, required to be integrated. A small number of other concerns emerged, including greater awareness on the part of both community and government, community involvement and preparation, executive participation, implementation of the plans, specific aspects of tourism development and parking.

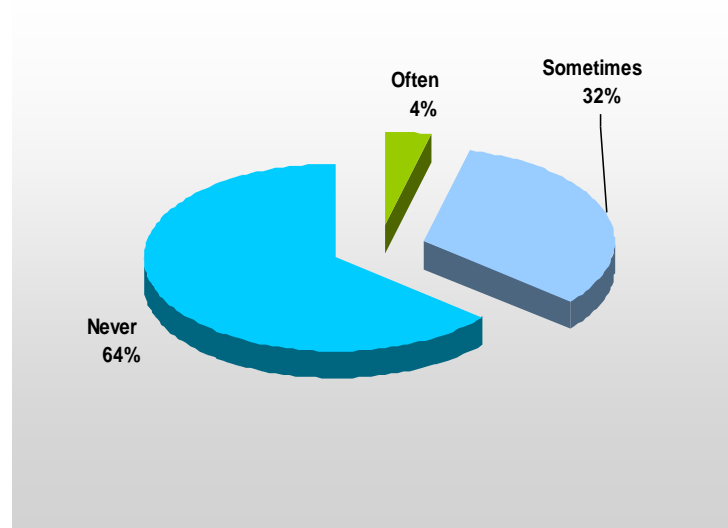


Figure 8: Level of direct participation in MWD, Survey 2014

Although the survey results indicate that the respondents expected to play wider roles in decision making and were very enthusiastic about the potential of Manado as a waterfront city, there was limited direct participation in the project: 64% never got involved, 30 % were sometimes involved and only 4 % were often involved (Figure 8). Perhaps this result is not surprising, for it is unlikely that the majority of community members would be involved in a major development project, even though they may be affected by it. The majority (64%) of respondents had never attended a meeting concerning MWD but 36% had had this opportunity. This is consistent with the responses presented in Figure 7 (direct participation in MWD) and the 36% who had the chance to attend an MWD meeting as identified through the questionnaire (Table 4).

Table 4: Participants who had chance to attend MWD meeting

Direct participation through attending a MWD meeting	Responses (n)
Industry personal	19
Academics	6
Private individual	5
Government official	4
NGO member	2
Total (n)	36

Source: Survey, 2014

Most of these people were industry personnel, including people involved in businesses around Manado waterfront. Small numbers of academics, private individuals, government officials and NGO staff were also involved, although they constituted a higher proportion of the smaller numbers of these groups that were interviewed (with the exception of private individuals). The data suggest that many industry people were highly concerned about MWD and were more likely to get access to MWD information sessions to provide their inputs and ideas. Thus, the opportunity existed and was taken by these people, enabling them potentially to contribute in terms of making suggestions and recommendations. In order to follow up on this issue, the 36 respondents who indicated direct involvement in MWD meetings were asked supplementary questions concerning frequency of attendance and the nature of their involvement in MWD meetings. These topics are discussed in the next section. Types of involvement and nature of contribution of stakeholders in decision-making process

Table 5: Kinds of involvement and nature of contribution

Kinds of meeting and nature of contribution	Not Significant	Somewhat Significant	Very Significant	Total (n = 36)
Informal meeting	7	5	21	33
Multi stakeholders meeting	8	6	22	36
Public consultation	7	5	17	29
Consultant meeting	8	4	17	29
Workshop	9	7	16	32
Others	0	2	0	2

Source: Survey, 2014

Although direct participation of the respondents in the MWD project was restricted to about a third of informants, the data show that a substantial minority of members of the public had participated in meetings of stakeholders and informal meetings, as well as public consultations, meetings with consultants, workshops and discussions. Respondents may have been involved in more than one way. Thus, the data in Table 5 include multiple responses. In fact, those who were involved tended to be involved in multiple ways and usually judged their involvement to be very significant. All forms of meeting were identified as being very significant. Multi-

stakeholder meetings, followed by informal meetings, were mentioned most frequently. The information suggests the importance of multi-stakeholder meetings, particularly as they were often linked to informal discussions. Together, they enabled people of a variety of backgrounds to share their ideas in both formal and informal situations. The data also show that a significant numbers of the respondents, both as city residents and the users of the Manado waterfront, were interested in the future of MWD, were willing and able to discuss it and, thus, were able to provide inputs into the decision-making process. This suggests that most participants had a high level of self confidence and belief in the value of their inputs.

Conclusions

Manado waterfront has been developed by applying planning approach especially in developing tourism in Manado. Urban tourism in Manado has the potential to attract. This has led to an increase in its tourism profile through product development based on tourists' demands. Tourism is seen by local authorities as a significant sector to generate economic growth. This has led to an increase in planning for tourism in the city based on existing resources and the creation of new products. Tourism in Manado is in an expansion phase and tourism is being used as a development catalyst. At the same time, there is a need to invest in other tourism resources, such as heritage and/or historical attractions and infrastructure, in order to enhance the tourism image leading to competitive advantages for the city. However, urban tourism development provides many challenges for Manado City if urban tourism is to be planned and developed in a sustainable manner. Urban tourism in Manado has emerged as a result of intensive development of tourism infrastructure and product development that has required a process of tourism planning. However, the forms of urban-based tourism require further studies in order to understand the phenomenon and the complexity of urban functions which will influence tourism development in the area. Waterfront development, as a part of urban tourism, has been adopted to support the growth of the city. Heavy investment by the local authority in providing infrastructure for tourism facilities, including through the development and redevelopment of the waterfront, requires integrated planning for the overall urban tourism development in the area and integration with broader urban development concerns. Waterfronts have multiple uses and, therefore, are likely to be of interest to and involve a variety of stakeholders. If the interests of various groups are to be incorporated into development plans leading to greater support, then stakeholder involvement should occur and, ideally, partnerships among stakeholders should be established. A multi-stakeholder approach for waterfront development could make a substantial contribution not only to the concepts and theory of user-centered designs but also to its practice, including appropriate strategies and methods.

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