ABSTRACT: Most of the literature on the urban tourism phenomenon is based on the experience of cities in developed countries (e.g. United Kingdom, Western Europe and Northern America), while the study of urban tourism in developing countries has received little academic attention. This gap requires more exploration due to the unique characteristics and development of cities in developing countries. Melaka City demonstrates the increasing profile of tourism as a key urban function and portrays the strong interest of government in using tourism as a development tool. In this context, a case study methodology has been employed and a qualitative method was chosen in which interviews were conducted for the research. Thus, this paper attempts to provide a better understanding of the phenomenon and the complexity of urban tourism based on qualitative approach. The key information sources are based on the perspectives or views of those responsible for tourism planning in the city.

Keywords: Urban tourism, developing countries, qualitative approach, Malaysia

Introduction

Context of the study

This paper is expected to discuss the existing knowledge in the urban tourism field particularly in the context of developing countries. Existing literature indicate that less literature review has been done from the view of those responsible in developing countries and on how the views is captured using qualitative method. The understanding by using such approach may highlight different perspective on the concept of urban tourism in developing countries. Next section will discusses the sources of evidence that are used in the qualitative approach especially the role of in-depth interviews as a technique for data collection that is appropriate for this research. This is followed by discussion of the application of these techniques and the issues faced in the actual fieldwork.

Qualitative Approach to the Study

The significance of qualitative approach

The significance of qualitative approach lies in the advantages that it is exploratory and is useful when the researcher does not know the important variables to examine (Creswell, 1998, 2003). According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000:10) a qualitative approach is ‘concerned in capturing the individual’s point of view’ and in the need for ‘securing rich descriptions’. In comparison, they argue that ‘quantitative researchers are deliberately unconcerned with rich descriptions because such detail interrupts the
process of developing generalization’. Nevertheless, qualitative and quantitative approaches seek to achieve different emphases. In this context, Patton (2002:14) notes that:

‘Qualitative methods facilitate study of issues in depth and detail. Approaching fieldwork without being constrained by predetermined categories of analysis contributes to the depth, openness and detail of qualitative inquiry. Quantitative methods, on the other hand, require the use of standardized measures so that the varying perspectives and experiences of people can be fit into a limited number of predetermined response categories to which numbers are assigned.’

The advantages of the qualitative compared to the quantitative approach was highlighted as it is seen to be preferable with the aims of this research. Creswell (1998:74) notes that there are five philosophical assumptions that guide the design and are central to all good qualitative studies. These assumptions relate to the nature of reality (the ontology issue), the relationship of the researcher to that being researched (the epistemological issue), the role of values in a study (the axiological issue), and the process of research (the methodological issue)(Table 1). These philosophical perspectives provide guidance to the researcher to consider similar issues underpinning the whole process of the research as discussed in this paper.

**Table 1**: Dimensions for comparing five research traditions in qualitative research (Creswell, 1998:65)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Biography</th>
<th>Phenomenology</th>
<th>Grounded Theory</th>
<th>Ethnography</th>
<th>Case Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>Exploring the essence of experiences about a phenomenon</td>
<td>Developing a theory grounded in data from the field</td>
<td>Describing and interpreting a cultural and social group</td>
<td>Developing an in-dept analysis of a single case or multiple cases</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discipline of origin</td>
<td>Anthropology, sociology, psychology</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>Cultural anthropology, Sociology</td>
<td>Political science, Sociology, evaluation, urban studies, other social sciences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data collection</td>
<td>Primarily interviews and documents</td>
<td>Long interviews with up to 10 individuals to ‘saturate’ categories and details a theory</td>
<td>Primarily observations and interviews with additional artifacts during extended time in the field (e.g. 6 months to a year)</td>
<td>Multiples sources – documents, archival records, interviews, observations, physical artifacts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data analysis</td>
<td>-Stories -Epiphanies -Historical content</td>
<td>-Open coding -Axial coding -Selective</td>
<td>-Description -Analysis -Interpretation</td>
<td>-Description -Themes -Assertions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hairul Nizam Ismail

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Narrative form</th>
<th>Detailed picture of an individual’s life</th>
<th>Description of the ‘essence’ of the experience</th>
<th>Theory or theoretical model</th>
<th>Description of the cultural behaviour of a group or an individual</th>
<th>In-dept study of a ‘case’ or ‘cases’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**A Case Study Research and Qualitative Approach**

It is a traditional belief that case studies research (e.g. a case-based within one city of Malaysia such as Melaka City) incline to the use of qualitative methods (Yin, 2003; Hartley, 1994; Stake, 1995, 2000; Gillham, 2000a; Scholz & Tietje, 2002). As noted by Stake (2000:435), ‘case studies have become one of the most common ways to do qualitative inquiry, but they are neither new nor essentially qualitative’. Similarly, Brotherton (1999:124) notes that ‘it is reasonable to suggest that the selection of case study research, as a preferred method, is far more likely in research studies having a qualitative orientation’. He notes that this is because a qualitative orientation is concerned with the uniqueness of that particular case rather than universality of the general. In addition, the strength of qualitative orientation is based on confidence that the data are collected in close proximity to a specific situation. In this context, Miles and Huberman (1994) highlight that qualitative data are able to give emphasis ‘on a specific case, a focused and bounded phenomenon embedded in its context’ and therefore, ‘the influences of the local context are not stripped away, but taken into account’, so that ‘the possibility for understanding latent, underlying, or non-obvious issues is strong’.

Thus, the data collection for this research employs a qualitative approach. With specific reference to the case study, Yin (2003) and Gillham (2000a) list six sources of evidence that are commonly used in the case study, where each has its strengths and weaknesses. These involve documentation, archival records, interviews, direct/‘detached’ observations, participant observation, and physical artefacts. According to Yin (2003:89), for most of the time, interviews are ‘essential sources of case study information’.

In addition, other studies that are concerned with the nature of tourism development in the city have also applied a similar methodological approach and techniques (Barke & Newton, 1995; Hinch, 1998; Long, 2000). For example, based on interviews with key actors, Long (2000) contributes better understanding to the roles of inter-collaboration organisations (or partnerships) for tourism development in the city by using the case of Discover Islington in London. Several other studies attempt to examine the adoption of sustainable tourism development in order to promote a better economy, health and life for the city (Barke & Newton, 1995; Hinch, 1998). These researchers use the case study as a strategy that includes a qualitative approach with a focus on interviews.
In-depth Interviews as a Technique for Data Collection

Research interviews are conducted when the objective is 'to obtain information and understanding of issues relevant to the general aims and specific questions of a research project' (Gillham, 2000b). The purpose of interviewing, according to Patton (1980, 2002), is to allow us to enter into the other person’s perspective. Furthermore, Patton (2002:341) notes that:

‘Qualitative interviewing begins with the assumption that the perspective of others is meaningful, knowable, and able to made explicit. We interview to find out what is in and on someone else’s mine, to gather their stories’

Generally, there are two forms of interviews, which are exploratory interviews and standardized interviews (Oppenheim, 1992). Exploratory interviews include in-depth interviews, or free style interviews (including group interviews). The second, standardized interviews, are used, for example, in public opinion polls, market research and government surveys. According to Warren (2002), the in-depth interview is often an appropriate method to use in qualitative research, and also applies in this research. In this context, Johnson (2002:104) notes that ‘a researcher who uses in-depth interviewing commonly seeks “deep” information and knowledge – usually deeper information and knowledge than is sought in surveys, informal interviews, or focus groups’, in which the information ‘usually concerns very personal matters, such as an individual’s self, lived experience, values and decision, occupational ideology, cultural knowledge, or perspective’. Similarly, Oppenheim (1992:67) points out that the in-depth interview, or exploratory interview ‘is essentially heuristic’ and ‘is concerned with trying to understand how ordinary people think and feel about topics of concern to the research’. Oppenheim also suggests that the in-depth interview is able to let the respondent or interviewee ‘talk freely and with some degree of insight about their thoughts, feelings and formative experiences’. Therefore, in-depth interviews allow free conversation with less constraints than a rigid questionnaire, thus encouraging interviewees to expand, in their owns terms, experiences and attitudes in relation to the research topic.

The in-depth interview is likely to be the best approach in this form of qualitative research because it provides ‘deep’ understanding in several contexts. These are (Johnson, 2002:106-107)

i. Deep understandings are held by the real-life members of or participants in everyday activities, events or places, in which the researcher is able to achieve the same deep level of knowledge and understanding as the members or participants.

ii. Deep understandings go beyond commonsense explanations for and other understanding of some cultural form, activity, event, place, or artefact, in order to uncover what is usually hidden from ordinary view or reflection or to penetrate understanding about the nature that has been studied.

iii. Deep understandings can reveal how our commonsense assumptions, practices, and ways of talking, partly constitute our interests and how we understand them.
Deep understandings allow us to grasp and articulate multiple views of, perspectives on, and meanings of some activity, event, place, or cultural object.

In addition, the in-depth interview includes a broad range of types of interview that also can be referred to as unstructured and semi structured interviews, which both are likely to be open-ended (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991, 2002). Similarly, Yin (2003) refers to this type of interview as open-ended in nature and a focused interview (where the focus of the interview remains open-ended, but is more likely to follow a certain set of questions). According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2002:87), this type of interview is appropriate in five conditions, which also apply to this research:

i. When the purpose is to seek understanding of the constructs that the interviewee uses as a basis for her opinions and beliefs about a particular matter or situation.

ii. When the aim of the interview is to develop an understanding of the respondent’s world.

iii. When the step-by-step logic of a situation is not clear.

iv. When the subject matter is highly confidential or commercially sensitive.

v. When the interviewee may be reluctant to be truthful other than in a one-to-one situation.

Patton (2002:342-347) suggests three basic alternative approaches to open-ended interviews:

i. The informal conversational interview – this relies entirely on the spontaneous generation of questions in the natural flow of an interaction, often as part of ongoing participant observation fieldwork.

ii. The general interview guide approach – involves outlining a set of issues that are to be explored with each respondent before interviewing begins, and serves as a basic checklist during the interview to make sure that all relevant topics are covered.

iii. The standardized open-ended interview – consists of a set of questions carefully worded and arranged with the intention of taking each respondent through the same sequence and asking each respondent the same questions with essentially the same words.

The next section discusses further the application of these interview approaches during fieldwork, by using a combination of the informal conversational interview and the general interview guide.

**Interview method for the study**

For the purpose of this research, the researcher combined a general interview guide approach with a standardized open-ended approach. In this case, the contrasting interviews alternatives, or strategies are ‘by no means mutually exclusive’ (Patton, 2002, 347), as these interviewing approaches ‘share the commitment to ask genuinely open-ended questions that offer the persons being interviewed the opportunity to respond in their own words and to express their own personal perspectives’ (Patton, 2002, 348). Thus, a number of basic questions for this
research are designed and worded to guide the dialogue, or conversation, without interfering with the spontaneous flow of the interview. These questions were selected based on the research questions, as well as key points in understanding urban tourism development as addressed and identified in the literature review. According to Bryman (2001, 316), this set of basic questions also provides and can be employed ‘to refer to the brief list of memory prompts of areas to be covered’. The interview guide questions were designed following the criteria that they should avoid leading and complex or multipart questions, in order to make it easy to modify them during interviews (Bryman, 2001). It is also important for the researcher to appear naïve during the interview about the topic as outlined in the guided questions. This, according to Yin (2003, 91), allows the respondent ‘to provide a fresh commentary about the topic, otherwise, the “corroboratory purpose” of the interview will not be served’. Where appropriate, new questions raised from previous interviews are also repeated to other respondents, in order for the researcher to determine understanding of certain aspects or issues that exist. Therefore, the set of basic questions develops from one interview to another, depending on whether the question is appropriate to that particular respondent.

In this context, the position and responsibility of the respondent in that particular organisation influenced how far the scope of the basic questions were discussed or answered. Therefore, the dialogue that refers to that particular question took longer or was in more depth than with other respondents, where the respondent thought it was more relevant to their knowledge and involvement. According to Yin (2003), it is important for the questions to follow the sequence of the interview, or conservation in order to know ‘why’ a particular process (subject that has been studied) occurred as it did. Thus, further questions or follow-up questions developed during the interviews. This sustained the dialogue, which is interesting for understanding of the whole topic that is discussed, and provoked further answers to any relevant issues.

As addressed by several authors, this approach is important for the researcher for two reasons. The first is to give more ‘flexibility’ in probing and to explore certain subjects in greater depth, and thus, allow inclusion of new areas or dimensions of inquiry that were not originally included or established by the researcher (Patton, 1980, 2002). According to Miles & Huberman (1994), this ‘flexibility’ gives further confidence that we really understand what has been going on, with attempts to ask more. The second is to allow the researcher to test the sequence of events by deliberately checking with persons known to hold different perspective or information (Yin, 2003). Both of these views are considered as strengths and advantages for qualitative approaches by using the interview method. In contrast to quantitative approach, the qualitative approach (e.g. interviews) ‘are fundamentally well suited for locating the meaning’ (Miles & Huberman, 1994, 10). Similarly, Easterby-Smith et al. (2002, 86) also point out that the advantage of qualitative approaches such as in-depth interviews is the ability ‘to understand the meanings interviewees attach to issues and situations in contexts that are not structured in advance by the researcher’. In this context, interviews, as conducted in this research, allowed the respondents to express as precisely as possible their understanding in their own terms and words. There is less possibility for the researcher/interviewer to force respondents to fit their knowledge into categories. Thus, the richness of the data can
be preserved and the meanings provide understanding for the whole context of the topic or issue.

Nevertheless, there were several concerns before the fieldwork began in relation to factors of time constraint and confidentiality. However, as the researcher had the advantage of being introduced by other respondents, most of the respondents did not set any time frame, or even require an appointment for most of the interviews. This allowed friendly conversation, which reduced the risks that the interviewee might give only what the interviewer wants to hear, or try to be a good subject by only giving good stories from their side. In terms of data confidentiality, the researcher had to assure respondents that information would be used for academic purposes only. This was important to establish, as the researcher attempted to record the interviews in the knowledge that recording might affect their answers. Thus, the researcher asked permission to tape the interview, in order to build this trust. As a result, the respondent responded very well to sensitive topics or issues during interviews. In many cases, the respondents appeared to forget that they were being recorded because of friendly interaction, although they were assured that the tape would be switched off at their request at any point in the interview if required.

Snowball Sampling and the selection of respondents/interviewee

The process of using ‘snowball’ sampling was applied, where each interviewee helped to determine other personnel, who were eligible and qualified as possible respondents. As noted by Yin (2003, 90), ‘such persons not only provide the case study investigator with insights into a matter but also can suggest sources of corroboratory or contrary evidence – and also initiate the access to such sources’. The snowball process continued to address the name/person and organisation as suggested by previous interviewees, until those interviewed covered almost all organisations within the structure that is relevant in tourism and planning for Melaka City. According to Bryman (2001, 324), the application of ‘snowball’ sampling is a practical method to be used ‘to contact groups of people for whom there is no sampling frame’. In this context, there was no definitive target number that had to be achieved when the fieldwork began, but the aim was that the total number of the respondents should represent most of the organisations involved in tourism and planning in Melaka City.

The actual fieldwork in Melaka City was conducted from April 8th to June 20th, 2004 (approximately 3 months). The classification of interviews, according to categories, is illustrated in Table 2.
Table 2: List of respondents/interviewees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Government</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1. Melaka State department/agencies and Melaka City local authority</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2. Federal - Planning organisation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3. Federal - Tourism organisation</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Tourism Associations (Private sector and NGOs)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Tourism/Planning consultant</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 21 in-depth interviews were conducted, and the respondents were selected on the basis of a combination of criteria. The criteria of selection for respondents was based on their position and experience (Table 3). Their knowledge are important to provide good understanding on how the concept of urban tourism was adopted in Melaka City development.

As noted by Oppenheim (1992, 68), ‘there can be no definitive answer’ to how many in-depth interviews should be conducted, ‘but quality, rather than quantity, should be the essential determinant of numbers’. In addition, the effort to cover as many organisations as possible is also intended to reduce the issue of bias for the research by taking views from only one particular group of organisations that are involved in decisions about tourism development.

Table 3: List of respondent based on position and organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent (R)</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Government</td>
<td>Melaka State and Melaka City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R1</td>
<td>Director of Planning and Development Control Division, Melaka Historical City Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>Melaka State Director of Town and Country Planning Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R5</td>
<td>Officer at Melaka Economic Action Council/Tourism Promotion Unit, Melaka Chief Minister Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R6</td>
<td>Deputy Director of Planning and Development Control Division, Melaka Historical City Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R8</td>
<td>General Manager of Melaka Museums Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R9</td>
<td>Tourism Officer at State Economic Planning Unit, Chief Minister Department</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 1. Federal planning organization

- **R3** Director of Melaka Project Office, Federal Department of Town and Country Planning
- **R4** Project Manager at Melaka Project Office, Federal Department of Town and Country Planning
- **R20** Acting Director of Research and Development Division, Federal Department of Town and Country Planning

### 2. Federal tourism organization

- **R11** General Manager of Melaka State Tourism Action Council
- **R21** Principal Assistant Secretary, Ministry of Tourism Malaysia

### 2. Tourism Association (Private sector and NGO)

- **R7** General Manager of Equatorial Hotel Melaka/Former President of Melaka Hotel Association
- **R12** Chairman of Melaka Historic City Tourist Guides Association
- **R15** Chairman of MATTA Melaka Chapter
- **R16** Portuguese Village Melaka Representative and Vice President of Malacca Heritage Trust

### 3. Tourism/planning consultant

- **R10** Officer at principal Town Planning Consultant for Melaka Structure Plan and Melaka Tengah (Middle) Action Plan
- **R13** Town Planner - academician and consultant for urban conservation sector in Melaka Structure Plan
- **R14** Architect and Town Planner - academician and consultant in preparing dossier for Melaka City World Heritage Site
- **R19** Tourism Planner - academician and consultant for tourism sector in Melaka Structure Plan and Melaka Tengah (Middle) Action Plan

It is important to note that the researcher has a good relationship with one of the respondent (Respondent 19), who is involved in a significant number of tourism and planning research or development plans commissioned by Melaka State government (e.g. Melaka Melaka Structure Plan 2000-2010, Middle Melaka District Action Plan – in preparation). Good ‘networking’ exists between Respondent 19 and other candidates that are eligible and qualified to be respondents within the structure of planning and tourism organisations in Melaka City. As noted by Gillham (2000b, 11), interviews are appropriate when ‘people are accessible’, with a clear indication of who should be interviewed. Thus, the ability to name reliable sources by this respondent (Respondent 19) was an important step for the researcher at the start of the interviews. This advantage was used to help the researcher to gains access to respondents, with full cooperation for the interviews. Otherwise, there was a chance...
that the process of data collection could have taken longer because of the need to seek appointments, or may even have been refused because of time constraints and work load of the respondents in that particular position.

**Structure of the Findings**

As a result, themes or sub themes that are able to provide understanding for the aspect that becomes a major concern to the aim of the research are identified. In this research, these emerging themes were clustered or categorized into ten main headings. These ten main headings were further grouped into three different core headings based on the platform of argument or discussion, which are:

i. Priorities and approaches in planning for tourism.
ii. The mechanism in planning and management of tourism development.
iii. Tourism activities and urban development.

The development of these themes can be simplified in Figure 1, 2 and 3, which also enables us to illustrate casual relationship between themes through a logical chain of evidence. According to Miles & Huberman (1994), the need to building ‘a logical chain of evidence’ is important in order to make good sense in drawing conclusions and to show that the data is carefully examined.
Theme 1
- Competitiveness and resources available
- The existing assets in the city and national interests
- The priorities compared to others sectors
- Improving and diversifying the economy

Theme 2
- The issue of Rent Control Act 1966 and migration from the city
- Tourism as part of why and how Melaka City achieved growth

Theme 3
- Policy and strategy as a means of planning for tourism
- Awareness of urban conservation and appreciation of services sector
- Reflection of the planning approach for tourism activities
- Issue in planning for tourism
- The concern of systematic planning approach for tourism

Figure 1.
Mechanisms for Planning and Management of Tourism Development

Theme 4
Leadership
- Leadership vision and interest in tourism
- Concerns raised regarding excessive emphasis on tourism

Theme 5
The Role of Government Departments and Agencies
- The efforts and responsibilities of government
- The structure of the state government in tourism development
- Implementation of tourism development on site
- Limitations of departments and agencies in planning

Theme 6
The Involvement of Private Sectors and Non-Government Organizations (NGOs)
- The role of private sector in influencing the government
- Criticism of existing relationships with government
- Involvement of NGOs and conflicts with government
- Differences between government professionals, political leaders and NGOs

Theme 7
The Involvement of Local Communities
- The attention given to local culture for tourism
- The structure for communication
- Acceptance of tourism by local communities
- Political argument and local communities-government relationship

Figure 2.
Tourism Activities and Urban Development

**Theme**

Melaka City as Tourism Destination

- Heritage Tourism as an entity for Melaka City
- The position of Melaka City that is easy to promote
- Melaka City representing Melaka State

- The urbanization process caused by tourism activities
- Meeting the needs of visitors or tourists

**Theme**

Melaka City Compared to Other Cities

- Limitation in terms of image, infrastructure and urban scale
- Dependency of Melaka City on the tourism economy

- Melaka City as an example of urban tourism in developing countries

**Theme 10**

Tourist Product Development

- Introduction of various tourism themes
- The issue of definition and future of tourism themes
- Tourist arrivals and segmentation of tourists

- Choices of product and tourist spending
- Domestic tourism issues relating to seasonality and tourist arrivals

Figure 3.
In Figure 1, the themes interpret the phenomenon of urban tourism in Melaka City based on the context of priorities and approaches in planning for tourism. The pattern that appears in these themes is systematically discussed in terms of logical understanding of the situation where tourism has been adopted as an important urban function. In Figure 2, the themes further discuss the situation in a different context, which describes the phenomenon in terms of the mechanisms in the planning and management of tourism development. Finally, in Figure 3, the themes systematically discuss the situation in a context that can provide understanding of elements that build up the urban tourism concept in Melaka City.

Discussion of Findings and Research Implication

The findings of this study guide us to certain conclusions, which have implications in understanding the scenario of how tourism emerges in the cities of developing countries. With specific reference to the context of Southeast Asia and cities in Malaysia, the need for economic growth has put pressure on the city in developing country to consider tourism as a development option. From this point of view, tourism not only provides opportunity as a catalyst to expand the growth of the city, but also to the whole state or the regional economic context. For cities in developing countries that mostly achieved independence after the Second World War (1950’s), such as Malaysia, the tourism economy is easily perceived as a reliable sector and thus, as a point of growth.

In Melaka City, the unknown direction for the state to achieve economic growth after independence has made tourism been seen as a central solution, supported by the recognition of tourism in the world economy in the late 1980’s. In this context, cities (e.g. Melaka City) that are not conducive to fit traditional economic development model based on manufacturing and agriculture, and were left behind in terms of economic growth in the region, began to pursue tourism development as a primary goal. This involves the use of urban conservation or urban historic areas as a core product, which then helped to expand various themes related to the service sector prior to 2002 (e.g. education, medicine and culture).

As indicated in the findings, each of the cities in Malaysia has developed differently and has their own place in history. One similarity that can be concluded from this case study is that, tourism plays an important role in the process of urbanization and shapes the economy and physical expansion of cities. In many ways, these cities (e.g. Melaka City and Kuala Lumpur) are able to perform with different entities or advantages, but at the same time complement each other in providing a complete experience of urban tourism activities.

From the case study, it is clear that the role of leadership is vital in making tourism development possible. The role of political leadership and the interest of leaders, in many ways, can be seen as the start of the efforts for tourism development. In this case, the mechanism of decision-making process in planning for tourism development was very much influenced by the political leadership. There was also involvement of the private sectors, NGOs and local community representatives in this decision-making. However, these organisations’ roles were limited in terms of what
actually they were able to voice, as well as the existence of certain tourism organizations that were not consulted and had different interests compared to those invited by the government. In addition, although the case study indicates that the intervention of political leadership is important and seen as a positive action to stimulate the economy of the city and the state, there are concerns about too much emphasis placed by the leadership on matters that lead to inappropriate development of tourism (e.g. the issue of authenticity of historical assets). In this sense, the findings reveal that there are limitations in terms of what federal and city government departments and agencies can do in planning compared to the top levels of state government. Appreciation of cultural aspects, as a unique asset for tourism activities, has increased the relationship between the government and the urban communities compared to the past. This allows the promotion of tourism as a ‘win-win situation’ for government and the local communities, although at this stage, communication is inclined to be represented by the leader of the community, or business groups within the community.

To recapitulate the scenario of discussion above, the general description of findings in Melaka City can be simplified (Figure 4). This chart, in general, describes the conceptual process of tourism development from year to year and identifies key events such as the role of government leadership and key efforts such as attempts to declare Melaka City as a Historical City.

Figure 4: General description of findings
In relation to this, the need to expand in terms of economic and physical growth, and the competition edge between cities has forced Melaka to create its own economic identity by strengthening the specific image of Melaka City for tourism. This is also identified as a significant reason that leads to the prioritization of tourism that influences approaches to planning. Although, there was no standard planning definition and policy application to encompass the direction for tourism in Melaka City, especially at early stages (late 1980’s and early 1990’s), the findings indicate the range of perception of planning that appear in terms of urban conservation. As the importance of tourism increased in the 1990’s, a clear focus of state government policy and strategy to promote tourism began to be seen. This was followed by attempts of planning departments and the local authority to translate and manipulate planning of physical aspects for tourism in order to create the environment that appeals to tourism activities.

Nevertheless, the ability of planning departments to provide a conducive environment for tourism was limited by the level of understanding of those responsible in urban development. The findings also indicate the confusion in the case study relating to planning for tourism as a multidisciplinary sector. In this context, tourism has difficulties in being perceived by planners other than in its physical aspects. Nonetheless, in the late 1990’s, several improvements to accommodate tourism development were undertaken through amendments to the Planning Act.

Concern continues to raised about the need to integrate planning for tourism within the wider planning process. The concern also indicates further issues, that question the capability of planning documents such as Structure and Local Plans to guide tourism development, and the challenge to convince the political leadership to proceed with what has been suggested in the plans. These issues accompany the lack of proper plans dedicated specifically to planning for tourism and coordination between agencies in implementation. Only recently (after 2000), have the concerns led to more systematic planning approaches that recognise specific concern for tourism as an independent dimension in any development plans. The question remains as to what extent the content of such plans really understands the tourism system in an urban context, and whether the implementation process is able to maximize appropriate results from tourism development expectations.

Conclusion

To sum up this overview, it can be concluded that this study has identified several common and several different processes as to how tourism operates in developing countries and the developed world. These are based on and reflect political, cultural and social factors within that particular country, or region. In the context of cities in Malaysia, with specific reference to Melaka City, this factors was clearly identified in the findings. The leadership of the public sector or government has significant power to bring tourism development into reality with strong control over the private sector and various non-government agencies. They can also use any means in the resource-base of the city to encourage tourism activities once tourism is seen as a significant driving force that is able to fulfill the ambitions and needs for economic expansion in the city.
References


