OPTIMIZING TOURIST DESTINATIONS THROUGH COMMUNITY POLICING: HOW TO MITIGATING STREET CRIME IN CENTRAL JAKARTA

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ABSTRACT

Community policing in Central Jakarta tourism areas requires more than police activity counts to produce accountable and inclusive safety. This study re-examines secondary police-planning data through a poststructural publics-of-policing framework. The method combines descriptive data validation, a PRISMA-informed structured literature review, theory-guided relational coding, and SWOT-TOWS analysis. The source records a decline in listed conventional-crime categories from 1,471 incidents in 2022 to 1,300 in 2023, while serious assault remained stable. Door-to-door contact reached 76% of target, documented problem solving 24%, investigative staffing 124 of 182 planned personnel, and specialist development covered 18 officers. These figures cannot establish tourism-specific prevalence or program effects because geocoded events, visitor exposure, and reporting denominators are unavailable. The findings reveal fractures between community contact, data, authority, and accountable problem solving. The proposed Urban Tourism Security Publics framework prioritises shared micro-place diagnosis, accessible victim reporting, mixed representation, privacy-conscious data governance, supported place managers, and outcome review to strengthen sustainable tourism security.

Keywords: Community Policing, Poststructural Criminology, Tourism Security, Conventional Crime, Sustainable Tourism

1. INTRODUCTION

Urban tourism depends on ordinary public spaces that serve several populations at once. Streets, transport stops, hotels, commercial corridors, parking areas, event venues, and visitor attractions are workplaces, neighbourhood environments, and destinations. Their safety cannot be produced by police presence alone. It depends on whether public agencies, businesses, residents, workers, informal traders, transport actors, and visitors can recognise problems, report them, preserve evidence, obtain support, and revise practices together. A district may therefore display a large volume of police activity while still lacking a dependable route from local knowledge to collective action.

This question has direct community-development consequences. Extortion, robbery, theft, assault, and vehicle theft can harm individual victims, weaken small-business income, narrow access to public space, and circulate through digital platforms as a destination reputation. Yet security measures can also impose costs. Indiscriminate patrols may displace informal livelihoods; poorly governed reporting systems may expose personal data; and cameras without accountable monitoring may create reassurance without response. Digital innovation and sustainable tourism therefore have to be considered together with legitimacy, accessibility, and livelihood continuity.

The case material is Rango Siregar's 2024 police leadership paper on conventional crime and coercive street activity in tourism areas within the jurisdiction of Central Jakarta Metropolitan Police (Siregar, 2024). The source provides offence categories for 2022–2023, complaint-handling indicators, community-policing outputs, investigative staffing, training figures, and an institutional SWOT. Its managerial recommendations are useful, but the underlying records do not distinguish tourist from resident victims, specify destinations or time windows, or explain how community contact becomes problem solving. One published total is also inconsistent with the listed category rows.

The conventional offences in the source may be loosely described in public discussion as blue-collar crime, largely as a contrast to white-collar offending. The label is not a causal theory or a reliable description of offender class. Sutherland (1940) critique of class-bound criminology remains important: visible street offences cannot justify treating poverty, occupation, youth, residence, or informal work as a proxy for criminality. A poststructural analysis instead asks how institutional categories and security narratives distribute visibility, suspicion, protection, and voice.

This paper asks: how do the organisational gaps recorded in Central Jakarta shape the publics produced through community policing in tourism areas, and what community-development strategy follows from that diagnosis? The contribution is threefold. It replaces the draft's opportunity-centred main theory with a contemporary poststructural account of policing publics; it tests local planning claims against structured international evidence; and it converts SWOT factors into a phased, evaluable program that treats safety as shared civic infrastructure rather than a police product.

Assemblage and nodal security governance

Poststructural criminology does not assume that security originates from a single stable centre. Deleuze and Guattari (1987) use assemblage to describe provisional arrangements of heterogeneous elements whose capacities emerge through connection. Haggerty & Ericson (2000) brought this reasoning into surveillance studies by showing how institutions, technologies, and data flows can be joined into changing systems of visibility. A report form, patrol, business camera, community meeting, or complaint index has no fixed security effect in isolation; its effect depends on the authority, maintenance, interpretation, and response relations attached to it.

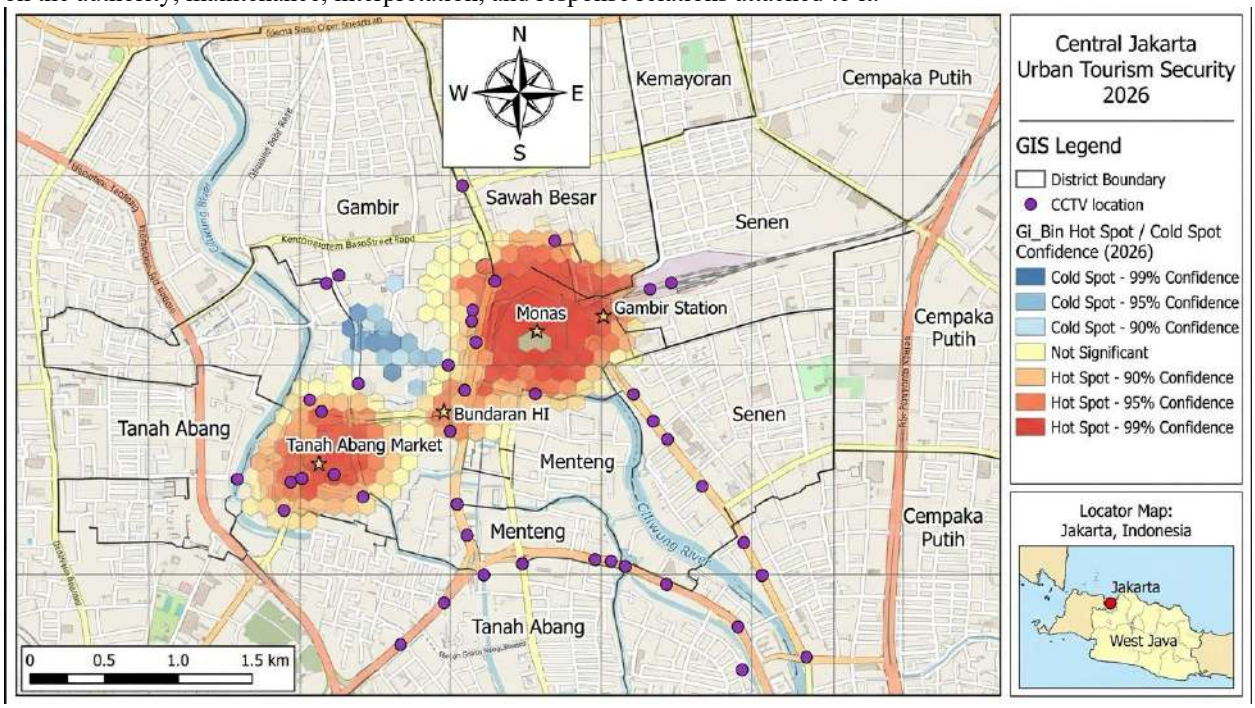

Figure 1. Urban Tourism Security Publics framework

Source: Researchers (2026).

Nodal governance develops the institutional side of this argument. A security node combines a way of thinking, resources, technologies, and capacities to act (Shearing & Wood, 2003). Police possess distinctive legal powers, but local government, businesses, venue managers, transport workers, resident groups, and justice agencies control other resources. Dupont (2004) and (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2009) show that security is increasingly assembled across public and private networks. Valverde (2011) cautions that every security project operates through a particular scale, jurisdiction, logic, and technique; a city-wide offence count cannot automatically explain a problem at a tourism micro-place.

Publics of policing and surveillantization

Cooper-Knock et al. (2024) concept of publics of policing provides the paper's main theoretical lens. Policing does not simply serve a public that already exists. Through consultation, enforcement, classification, exclusion, support, and data collection, policing helps form the groups recognised as protected, participating, visible, or risky. In an urban tourism area, a narrow consumer public may privilege paying visitors while residents and informal workers are mainly managed. A wider civic public recognises that visitors, residents, employees, traders, and small businesses hold legitimate safety claims and situated knowledge, without pretending that every actor has equal authority.

Table 1. Operational dimensions of the Urban Tourism Security Publics framework

Dimension	Empirical content	Analytical question
Security nodes	Police, justice agencies, government, businesses, residents, workers, visitors	Which actors possess authority, resources, local knowledge, and a recognised claim?

Dimension	Empirical content	Analytical question
Data and representations	Offence categories, complaints, targets, maps, images, narratives	What becomes visible, comparable, ignored, or misclassified?
Material and digital systems	Roads, lighting, signage, phones, CCTV, platforms, case systems	How are devices maintained, governed, and connected to response?
Territory and mobility	Tourism micro-places, routes, transport, event times, temporary stays	At what scale and time does a problem appear, move, or disappear?
Policing relations	Coordination, reporting, support, surveillance, enforcement, contestation	How are capacities translated into legitimate collective action?
Publics and outcomes	Protection, participation, datafication, management, trust, livelihoods	Who benefits, who is burdened, and how can the arrangement be revised?

Source: Authors' framework, developed from Deleuze and Guattari (1987), Haggerty and Ericson (2000), Shearing and Wood (2003), Dupont (2004), Valverde (2011), Cooper-Knock et al. (2024), and Haggerty (2025).

Haggerty (2025) notion of surveillantization sharpens the digital dimension. Surveillance is becoming embedded through ordinary organisational and cultural practices rather than only through conspicuous devices. A visitor-reporting link can improve access, yet it also creates data flows, retention decisions, identity categories, and new opportunities for social sorting. The analytic task is therefore to follow what data make visible, who can act on them, how errors are corrected, and which groups bear the costs. The Urban Tourism Security Publics framework in Figure 1 translates these insights into six operational dimensions.

2. METHOD

Case design and data validation

The study uses a theory-guided single-case design based on secondary institutional material. The unit of analysis is the policing arrangement surrounding urban tourism areas in the Central Jakarta police jurisdiction, not individual offenders or victims. The principal source is the paper reproduced on pages 453–520 of the 2024 Sespim Polri Pokjar XIX compilation (Siregar, 2024). No personal case file, suspect record, victim identifier, or geocoded event was available or used. Validation separated category rows from published totals and distinguished city-jurisdiction measures from tourism-specific claims. The listed 2022 offence categories sum to 1,471 recorded incidents. The listed 2023 categories sum to 1,300, although the source's total row reports 1,066 recorded incidents and 1,300 clearances. Because the category-level 2023 clearance figures sum to a different number, no overall clearance rate is calculated. Door-to-door contact and problem-solving figures are reported as aggregate target completion, while the complaint score has no denominator in the source. All comparisons are descriptive and non-causal.

Structured literature review

A PRISMA-informed structured review was completed on 25 August 2026 (Page et al., 2021). Five OpenAlex searches combined tourism crime, tourist victimisation, urban policing, community policing, tourist police, reporting, safety, and governance. The search covered English-language journal articles published between 2000 and 2026. Eligible studies supplied an empirical method and examined conventional victimisation, reporting, policing, perceived safety, or community governance in a tourism setting. Terrorism-only, disaster-only, cybersecurity, wildlife-crime, health-tourism, and non-tourism studies were excluded. Backward checking added five foundational empirical studies. The procedure supports transparent evidence selection but is not presented as a registered systematic review or meta-analysis.

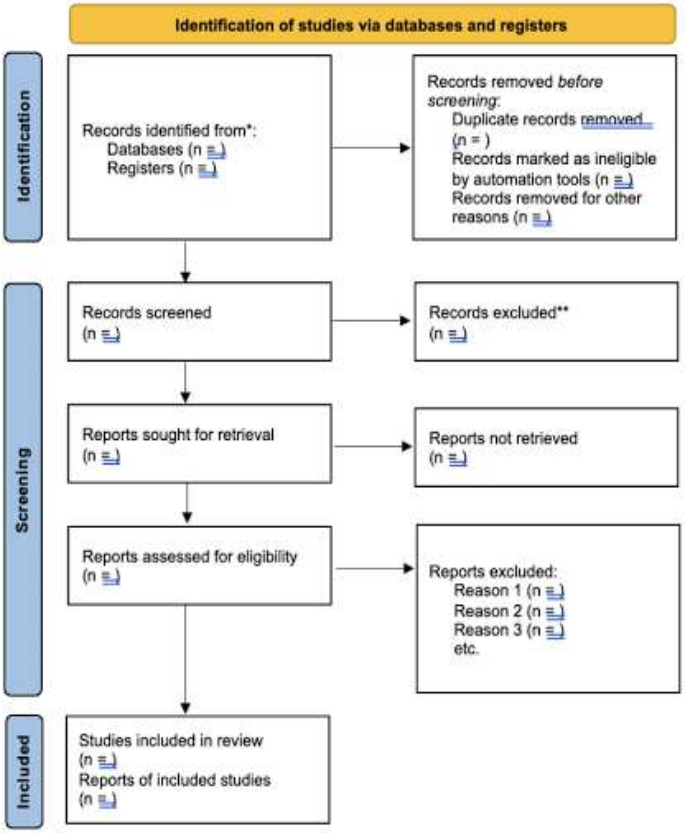

Figure 2. PRISMA-informed literature-review flow
Source: Authors' review. Counts describe the reproducible screening route used for this paper.

Relational coding and SWOT–TOWS
The case and retained studies were coded against the six dimensions in Table 1. Coding focused on missing connections, uneven authority, incompatible measures, public formation, and possible exclusion. The source's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats were then recoded through this relational lens. TOWS matching generated a strategy only where a factor pair could be linked to a responsible node, an implementation mechanism, and observable evidence. The inherited EFAS and IFAS totals are reported as source context, not as inferential statistics, because the judgements and weights cannot be independently reproduced.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Recorded conventional crime and data integrity
Across the five categories most relevant to visible acquisitive, coercive, and violent street offending, the pattern between 2022 and 2023 was mixed. Serious assault remained almost unchanged, rising from 218 to 220 incidents. Aggravated theft fell from 539 to 465, combined street robbery and violent theft from 70 to 58, motor-vehicle theft from 515 to 472, and extortion or threat from 47 to 35. The arithmetic sum of all listed categories, including murder, fire, gambling, and rape, fell by 11.6%, from 1,471 to 1,300. These are jurisdiction-wide police records. They do not identify tourism victims, destination exposure, reporting changes, or displacement between sites.

Table 2. Reconstructed conventional-crime indicators, 2022–2023

Indicator	Unit	2022	2023	Change
Serious assault	incidents	218	220	+0.9%
Aggravated theft	incidents	539	465	−13.7%
Street robbery / violent theft	incidents	70	58	−17.1%
Motor-vehicle theft	incidents	515	472	−8.3%
Extortion / threat	incidents	47	35	−25.5%

Indicator	Unit	2022	2023	Change
All listed offence categories	incidents	1,471	1,300	−11.6%

Source: reconstructed from Siregar (2024).

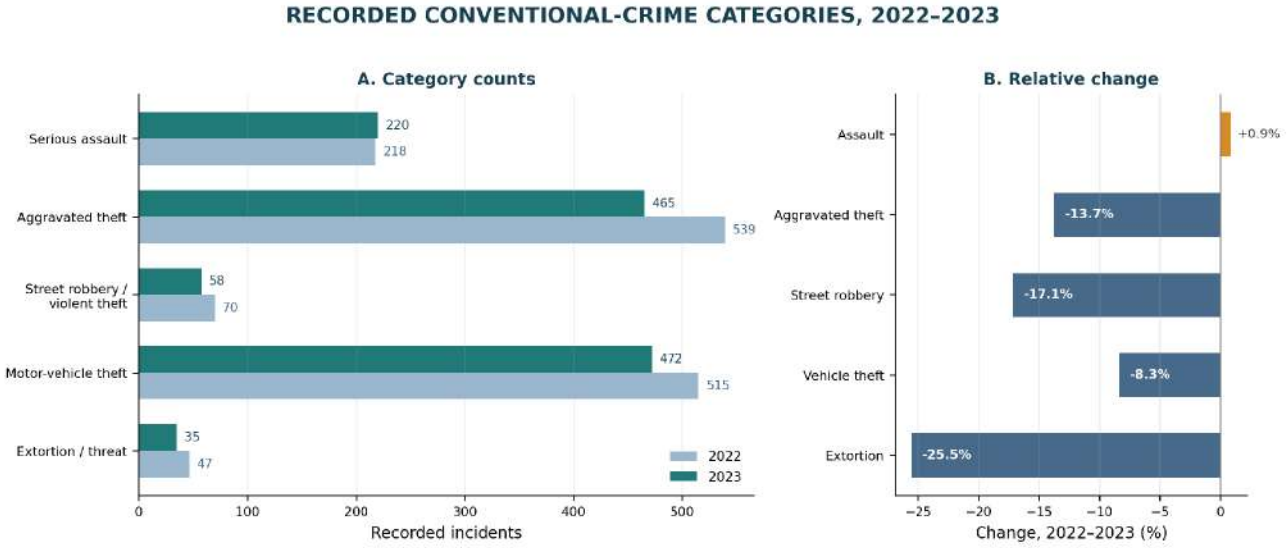

Figure 3. Recorded conventional-crime categories, 2022–2023

Source: Authors' calculation from Siregar (2024). Counts cover the wider police jurisdiction and are not tourism-specific prevalence rates.

Contact was extensive, but problem solving remained thin

The strongest organisational contrast is between contact and problem solving. Door-to-door community contact reached 62,532 of 82,380 planned activities, or 76%. Documented problem solving reached only 384 of 1,584 planned activities, or 24%. Contact may support trust and information exchange, but it does not by itself establish that a recurring problem was defined, analysed, acted upon, and reviewed. Community-oriented policing tends to improve satisfaction and legitimacy more consistently than recorded crime, which makes implementation quality and feedback central to any preventive claim (Gill et al., 2014). Investigative capacity also constrained the arrangement. The criminal-investigation unit operated with 124 personnel against a planned establishment of 182, a shortfall of 31.9%. Only 18 personnel—14.5% of actual strength had the relevant specialist development reported by the source. The complaint-handling indicator rose from 80 in 2021 to 82 in 2023, but its denominator and case mix are not specified. A higher administrative score can coexist with underreporting, unresolved harms, or easier cases. The appropriate question is not whether one metric improved, but whether different nodes could convert reports into timely support, evidence, investigation, and learning.

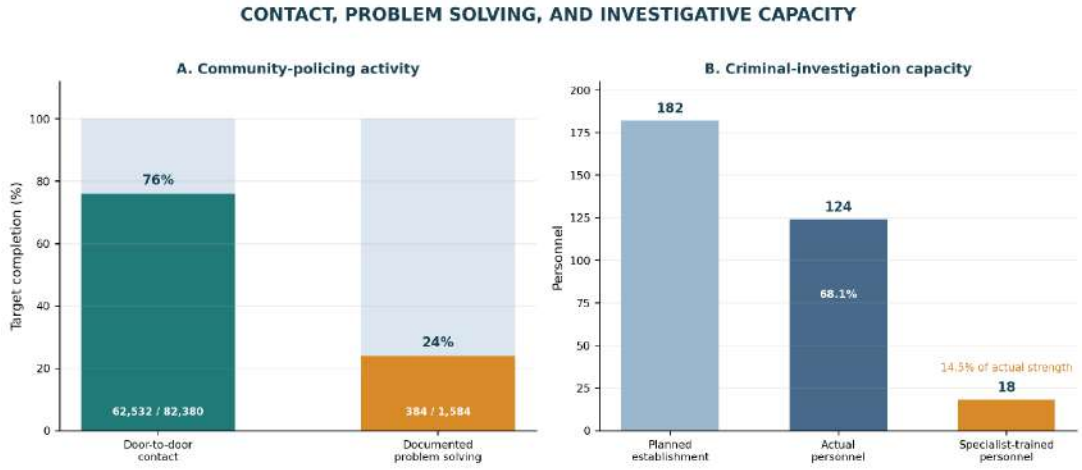

Figure 4. Community-policing activity and investigative capacity

Source: Authors' visualisation from Siregar (2024). Activity targets and staffing measures describe organisational capacity, not program impact.

What The Structured Evidence Changes

The 18 studies show that tourist victimisation and perceived safety are heterogeneous across micro-places, visitor groups, accommodation, transport use, event periods, and reporting practices. Police records are therefore necessary but incomplete. Tourist underreporting can be shaped by unfamiliar procedures and short stays (Buil-Gil & Mawby, 2023), while safety judgements are influenced by information before, during, and after a visit (Zou & Yu, 2022). Studies of Johannesburg and Durban further show that curated tourism spaces, surrounding city reputations, businesses, and improvement partnerships jointly shape security experience (Malleka et al., 2022; Phori & Mbali, 2020).

Table 3. Secondary empirical evidence retained in the structured review

Study and setting	Data or method	Finding relevant to the Central Jakarta case
Brunt et al. (2000), United Kingdom	Postal tourist survey, n=514	Holiday victimisation and fear differed from home routines; visitor surveys complement police data.
Barker et al. (2002), Auckland	Event crime modelling	Victimisation varied across accommodation and visitor characteristics during a major event.
George (2003), Cape Town	Visitor survey, n=438	After-dark movement and transport insecurity required police–tourism coordination.
Boakye (2010), Ghana	Tourist target and activity analysis	Activities and travel practices create differentiated exposure; tourists are not one risk group.
Biagi et al. (2012), Italy	Dynamic panel, 1985–2003	Tourism and crime were associated at area level, but aggregation does not identify micro-place mechanisms.
Harper et al. (2013), New Orleans	Spatial robbery analysis	Robbery clustered inside a tourism district, supporting fine-grained place diagnosis.
Mawby et al. (2016), Braşov	Multi-agency case evidence	Destination security was strengthened when residents joined tourism and justice actors.
Imbeah et al. (2020), Cape Coast	Questionnaire survey of 515 tourists	Safety expectations and satisfaction belong in stakeholder planning and evaluation.
Paliska et al. (2020), Slovenia	Police data, GIS, logistic regression	Theft patterns differed by scene, offence, visitor status, and victim characteristics.
Phori & Mbali (2020), Durban	Stakeholder mixed-method study	Open tourism streets required costly but valued business–police partnership measures.
Terrah et al. (2020), Antalya	Survey of 551 tourists	Expectation–perception gaps appeared across transport, accommodation, public places, and sites.
Khalilzadeh (2021), Orlando	160,947 venue records; tree-based analysis	Tourism-venue incidents had temporal and spatial patterns, but data-led action needs safeguards.
Soares et al. (2021), Santiago route	Online host-community survey	Sustainable tourism requires meaningful resident involvement rather than assumed benefits.
Malleka et al. (2022), Johannesburg	Perceptions across three tourism precincts	Curated precincts and wider city narratives produced contrasting safety judgements.
Buil-Gil & Mawby (2023), Barcelona	Resident and tourist survey comparison	Tourists and residents reported crime differently; police data cannot stand for exposure.
Vakhitova et al. (2023), Australia	Tourist survey, n=1,027; Bayesian selection	Accommodation location, type, and guardianship were associated with burglary variation.
Vakhitova et al. (2024), Bali / British Isles	Tourist survey, n=1,027; profile regression	Holiday preferences and actual routines distinguished theft-victimisation profiles.
Rahaman et al. (2025), Bangladesh	Mixed methods: surveys, interviews, cases	Tourist-police visibility alone was insufficient without interaction and cross-sector coordination.

A publics-of-policing diagnosis

Table 4. Publics-of-policing diagnosis of the Central Jakarta case

Relational fracture	Case evidence	Poststructural implication
Public-definition gap	The source emphasises police, government, leaders, and formal stakeholders; visitors, women, workers, informal traders, transport actors, and SMEs are not consistently represented.	A narrow public can receive protection while other legitimate place users are mainly managed.

Relational fracture	Case evidence	Poststructural implication
Contact–action fracture	Door-to-door activity reached 76% of target, but documented problem solving reached 24%.	Participation risks becoming information extraction without shared diagnosis, authority, or feedback.
Data-integrity fracture	The 2023 total and clearance row conflicts with category sums; tourism location, time, victim, and exposure fields are absent.	The data cannot support a tourism-specific rate, clearance claim, or micro-place mechanism test.
Capacity imbalance	Actual investigative staffing was 124 of 182; 18 personnel had specialist development.	More reporting without supported response capacity may reduce trust rather than strengthen it.
Digital ambivalence	Online platforms are treated as an opportunity, but access, retention, correction, and complaint rules are unspecified.	Digital reporting can create access and new surveillance or social-sorting risks simultaneously.
Classification risk	The terms 'premanisme' and blue-collar crime can attach suspicion to visible poverty, informal work, youth, or place identity.	A prevention program may reproduce exclusion unless conduct, evidence, and proportionality remain central.

The diagnosis changes the meaning of community policing. Residents and workers are not low-cost substitutes for police personnel. They are knowledge holders and rights-bearing participants whose roles must be voluntary, supported, and bounded. Informal traders, parking workers, and transport actors may notice recurring coercion or visitor confusion, but they should not be asked to search, detain, profile, or assume enforcement risk. Police retain lawful authority; community nodes contribute place knowledge, accessible reporting, support, and scrutiny. The same principle applies to technology. A common reporting channel should record the minimum information needed to support a victim and understand an event, with clear access roles, retention periods, correction routes, and complaint mechanisms consistent with Indonesia's Personal Data Protection Law (Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 27 Tahun 2022). The evidence does not justify facial recognition or demographic risk scoring. Even CCTV effects vary by setting and implementation (Piza et al., 2019) ; installation counts should never substitute for uptime, monitoring, response, or fairness review.

SWOT–TOWS as a relational strategy

Table 5. SWOT of community policing in Central Jakarta tourism areas

Factor	Evidence-sensitive formulation
Strengths	Formal investigative authority; community-policing mandate; Bhabinkamtibmas and precinct networks; extensive contact activity; existing city and stakeholder relationships; organisational commitment to public service.
Weaknesses	Problem solving at 24% of target; 31.9% investigative staffing gap; specialist development limited to 18 personnel; inconsistent totals; missing visitor and micro-place fields; fragmented coordination and feedback.
Opportunities	Community-policing framework; mixed resident–business–worker forums; verified multilingual reporting; municipal and SME cooperation; tourism-service training; data-protection safeguards; outcome-based public review.
Threats	Underreporting; coercion and conventional crime; online reputational amplification; unequal surveillance; displacement between micro-places; over-policing of youth or informal livelihoods; declining trust after unsupported reports.

Table 6. TOWS strategies derived from the publics-of-policing analysis

TOWS	Strategy	Evidence of implementation
SO	Use the legal mandate, Bhabinkamtibmas network, and stakeholder relationships to form a mixed Urban Tourism Safety Public at pilot micro-places.	Published membership; representation of residents, women, workers, informal traders, SMEs, transport actors, and visitor services; jointly approved problem register.
WO	Convert contact into documented problem-solving cycles supported by a minimum incident dataset, victim referral, named ownership, training, and feedback.	Case completeness; target-to-problem conversion; supported response time; referral completion; participant feedback.

TOWS	Strategy	Evidence of implementation
ST	Use investigative authority and community knowledge to address extortion and repeat harms through conduct-based evidence, proportionate enforcement, and non-stigmatising communication.	Repeat-location profiles; evidential quality; exclusion complaints; communication review; documented proportionality decisions.
WT	Pilot digital and surveillance measures before scale; independently review privacy, non-reporting, displacement, unequal effects, and capacity pressure; stop measures without a legitimate and workable purpose.	Quarterly harm–benefit review; access and retention audit; complaint resolution; documented adapt, expand, or stop decision.

Community-centred implementation and evaluation

Implementation should begin at three contrasting tourism micro-places rather than through jurisdiction-wide procurement. Each pilot should map movement, operating hours, repeat harms, existing cameras and reporting routes, actor nodes, and responsibilities. Indonesia's community-policing framework provides an institutional basis for shared problem identification without transferring coercive authority to residents (Peraturan Kepolisian Negara Republik Indonesia Nomor 1 Tahun 2021). The pilot public should include people whose daily presence is often overlooked: women, young people, persons with disabilities, hotel and venue workers, transport providers, informal traders, nearby residents, and small businesses. Evaluation must separate outputs from outcomes. Contacts, meetings, officers trained, QR codes, and cameras are outputs. More complete reporting, faster supported response, fewer repeat incidents at the same micro-place, resolved victim referrals, lower equipment downtime, stronger visitor and resident confidence, fewer exclusion complaints, and stable SME participation are outcomes. An early rise in reports may reflect better access rather than worsening crime, while a decline may reflect avoidance. Quantitative trends should be read beside anonymised case review and short visitor, worker, trader, and resident feedback. Problem-oriented policing evidence supports structured analysis and assessment, but effects depend on implementation (Hinkle et al., 2020).

Table 7. Phased roadmap for an Urban Tourism Security Public

Phase	Core actions	Node responsibility	Evaluation evidence
0–3 months: constitute	Validate totals; define the minimum dataset; select three micro-places; map nodes and responsibilities; create the mixed public and complaint channel.	Police and city government convene; community and business representatives approve scope and safeguards.	Baseline site profile; role matrix; data dictionary; representation log; privacy/referral protocol.
4–12 months: connect	Run joint problem-solving cycles; train officers and place managers; launch verified multilingual reporting; test response, victim support, maintenance, and feedback.	Police retain lawful response; operators manage daily systems; community nodes identify access and trust barriers.	Report completeness; response and referral time; repeat-location incidents; user feedback; equipment uptime; exclusion complaints.
12–24 months: learn	Compare pilots; test displacement and non-reporting; audit data access and unequal impacts; finance maintenance; scale only mechanisms with credible benefit.	The mixed public commissions independent review and publishes a non-identifying community summary.	Outcome trend; trust and inclusion indicators; complaint resolution; SME participation; documented decisions to adapt, expand, or stop.

This roadmap connects digital innovation, entrepreneurship, and sustainable tourism through governance rather than novelty. A simple reporting form may outperform a sophisticated system if it reaches a responsible person, supports the victim, preserves necessary evidence, and returns feedback. Small businesses benefit when safer public space supports continuity without shifting security costs onto them. Community participation becomes credible when it includes voice, resources, limits, and review—not merely invitations to provide information.

4. CONCLUSION

Central Jakarta's institutional data describe a genuine planning challenge but not a tourism specific crime rate. The sum of listed conventional-crime categories fell from 1,471 incidents in 2022 to 1,300 in 2023, while serious assault remained stable. More revealing are the organisational gaps: documented problem solving reached only 24% of target, investigative staffing was 124 of 182, specialist development covered 18 personnel, and the published 2023 total row was internally inconsistent. These limitations prevent causal conclusions about community policing or tourism safety.

Publics-of-policing theory provides a stronger main framework than an offender-centred or device-centred account. It shows that community policing constitutes different publics through its classifications, consultations, data systems, support practices, and enforcement. The practical test is therefore not simply how much activity occurs, but who becomes protected, who can participate, who is transformed into data, who is managed as risk, and whether those positions can be challenged and revised. A credible community-development response should convert contact into accountable problem solving. Central Jakarta needs validated micro-place data, accessible victim support, mixed community representation, trained and bounded place-manager roles, privacy-conscious digital reporting, adequate response capacity, and independent review of displacement and unequal effects. These measures do not guarantee lower crime. They create the institutional conditions under which safety claims can be tested while protecting trust, public access, sustainable tourism, and local livelihoods.

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