MAPPING OF TOURIST DESTINATIONS SECURITY INCIDENTS IN TULUNGAGUNG

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ABSTRACT

Tourism security is often described as an equipment or staffing problem, although safety at a destination is actually produced through relationships among police, local government, site operators, residents, small businesses, visitors, technologies, information, and space. This study re-examines secondary planning data on tourism-site security in Tulungagung, Indonesia, for 2021–2023 through poststructural security-assemblage criminology. The method combines descriptive data validation, a PRISMA-informed structured literature review, theory-guided coding, and SWOT–TOWS analysis. Five OpenAlex searches produced 194 records; 177 remained after deduplication, and 16 empirical studies were retained after screening and citation checking. The institutional source reports that tourism-site security incidents rose from 25 to 32, while CCTV coverage increased from 10% to 14%, alarm coverage from 8% to 11%, specialist training from 40% to 48%, and police operator coordination from 50% to 54%. These measures cannot establish causality because the incident data lack offence, place, victim, and denominator detail. They nevertheless reveal an assemblage problem: capabilities were added, but the relations needed to translate equipment, knowledge, authority, and community participation into consistent security remained incomplete. The resulting Community Tourism Security Assemblage framework identifies six interacting dimensions actor nodes, materialities, knowledge and data, spatial mobility, relational practices, and public outcomes. It also shows why visible theft and robbery should not be reduced to a blue-collar offender identity: crime categories and security narratives can themselves direct suspicion toward particular groups. The proposed strategy prioritizes joint site audits, interoperable incident records, monitored and privacy-conscious technology, trained place managers, accessible reporting, community representation, and outcome-based review. Security is treated as community infrastructure for sustainable tourism rather than a stand-alone police product.

Keywords: Assemblage Criminology, Community Development, Conventional Crime, Nodal Governance, Sustainable Tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

A tourism destination is not secured by police presence alone. Safety is assembled each day through roads, parking areas, ticket gates, lighting, mobile phones, visitor routines, informal traders, local knowledge, maintenance, complaint channels, and the capacity of different organizations to act together. When one connection fails, the visible weakness may appear somewhere else: a camera records an event but nobody monitors it; an operator receives a complaint but uses a category that cannot be compared with police data; residents know a recurring risk but have no recognized place in the response; or a visitor avoids reporting because the procedure is unclear. These are relational failures rather than isolated shortages.

This matters for community development. Tourism can support local employment, micro-enterprises, mobility infrastructure, and place-based investment, but insecurity can redistribute those benefits. Traders may lose customers, residents may experience heavier control without receiving protection, and visitors may avoid a destination after incidents circulate through digital platforms. A security program therefore has to protect people and livelihoods while preserving accessibility, trust, and fair participation. The conference theme of digital innovation, entrepreneurship, and sustainable tourism is especially relevant because the same technologies that promise reassurance can also produce exclusion, privacy loss, and unfounded confidence.

The institutional case used here is Anita Kurdi's 2024 police leadership paper on the optimization of tourism-destination security in the jurisdiction of Tulungagung Police. It reports rising jurisdiction-wide recorded crime between 2021 and 2023, including robbery with violence, motor-vehicle theft, and aggravated theft, together with a separate rise in security incidents reported at tourism sites (Kurdi, 2024).

It also records modest gains in CCTV, alarms, specialist training, and police operator coordination. These indicators are useful, but they cannot reveal which destination, route, hour, victim group, or operating practice generated risk. The source is therefore treated as a planning case, not a local crime census.

The conventional offences in the source are sometimes grouped in public discussion under the loose label blue-collar crime, chiefly as a contrast to white-collar offending. That usage is analytically risky. Sutherland's (1940) intervention showed why criminology should not equate criminality with disadvantaged social status. A poststructural approach goes further by asking how categories, data systems, security talk, and institutional routines make some people more visible as suspects than others. In this paper, blue-collar crime is mentioned only as a contested descriptive label for visible street and property offences; it is not an offender profile, causal theory, or basis for targeting workers, residents, or informal traders.

The research question is: how can the security gaps recorded at Tulungagung tourism sites be reinterpreted as fractures in a community tourism security assemblage, and what development strategy follows from that reinterpretation? The paper contributes by applying an explicitly poststructural criminological framework to a modest Indonesian secondary dataset, comparing the case with a structured review of tourism-security research, and translating the analysis into a community-centred SWOT–TOWS roadmap. The aim is not to claim that one intervention will reduce crime. It is to specify which relations must become observable, accountable, and testable before a preventive claim is credible.

Assemblage, security, and becoming

Assemblage thinking rejects the idea that social order is produced by a single stable centre. Deleuze and Guattari (1987) use assemblage to describe provisional arrangements of heterogeneous elements whose capacities emerge through connection. In criminology and surveillance studies, Haggerty and Ericson (2000) developed the surveillant assemblage to explain how previously separate practices and technologies combine, disassemble people into data flows, and reassemble those flows for governance. The point is not simply that surveillance devices multiply. It is that the meaning and effect of a device depend on the other elements to which it is connected.

Haggerty's (2025) recent reformulation as surveillantization sharpens the processual character of this argument. Surveillance is better understood as something becoming embedded across ordinary institutions and cultural practices than as a fixed machine. For a tourism site, a camera may be connected to a live monitor, a maintenance contract, a trained operator, a lawful retention policy, a police response protocol, and an accessible complaint process. The same camera may also be disconnected from all of them. Counting installed units cannot distinguish these conditions. An assemblage analysis therefore follows relations, translations, and breakdowns.

Nodal governance and publics of policing

Security is also produced across nodes. Shearing and Wood (2003) define nodes as organizational sites with mentalities, technologies, resources, and institutional capacities. Dupont (2004) similarly describes security as a networked accomplishment involving public, private, and civic actors, while Abrahamsen and Williams (2009) show how public and private capacities become embedded in wider security assemblages. These approaches do not imply that every node is equal. Police retain distinctive legal powers; operators control access and maintenance; local government allocates resources; residents possess situated knowledge; businesses experience commercial effects; and tourists bring expectations, vulnerabilities, and mobile reporting practices. Valverde (2011) accordingly argues that security projects must be examined through their scale, jurisdiction, logic, and techniques rather than assumed to pursue a universal good.

More recent work warns that plural policing also creates particular publics. Cooper-Knock, Berg, and Diphoorn (2024) show that policing does not simply serve a pre-existing public; it helps constitute the groups whose safety, voice, and presence are recognized. This insight is central to community tourism. A program can form an inclusive public that treats residents, informal traders, workers, and visitors as legitimate participants, or it can create a narrow consumer public in which only paying tourists are protected

and local groups are managed as risk. Community participation is therefore not decorative consultation. It is part of the governance architecture and an accountability mechanism.

Table 1. Operational dimensions of the assemblage framework

Dimension	Empirical content	Analytical question
Actor nodes	Police, government, operators, communities, SMEs, workers, visitors	Who has authority, resources, knowledge, and a recognized voice?
Materialities	Lighting, gates, roads, CCTV, alarms, phones, signs, vehicles	How is equipment maintained, monitored, and connected to response?
Knowledge and data	Incident records, complaints, risk maps, visitor and resident accounts	Which events become visible, comparable, and actionable?
Space and mobility	Sites, paths, parking, edges, queues, seasons, online platforms	Where and when do risks, controls, and reputations move?
Relational practices	Coordination, reporting, training, classification, maintenance, contestation	How are different capacities translated into collective action?
Public outcomes	Safety, trust, access, livelihoods, legitimacy, learning	Who benefits, who bears costs, and how is the assemblage revised?

2. METHOD

Case design and secondary data validation

The study uses a theory-guided single-case design based on secondary institutional material. The case unit is the security arrangement surrounding tourism sites in the jurisdiction of Tulungagung Police. The principal source is the individual paper reproduced on pages 64–115 of the 2024 Sespim Polri Pokjar XV compilation (Kurdi, 2024). No victim file, suspect record, geocoded event, or personal identifier was available or used. Data validation separated jurisdiction-wide crime counts from tourism-site indicators. The values for total crime, robbery with violence, motor-vehicle theft, and aggravated theft describe the wider police jurisdiction. Only the security-incident count and the personnel, equipment, training, and coordination indicators are presented by the source as tourism-site measures. Percentage values are reproduced as reported because the numbers of tourism sites and relevant personnel were not supplied. Percentage-point change is distinguished from percentage change, and all comparisons remain descriptive.

Structured literature review

A PRISMA-informed structured review was completed on 25 August 2026 (Page et al., 2021). Five OpenAlex searches combined terms for tourism crime, tourist attractions, environmental design, tourist police, victimization, destination security, community, and surveillance. The search covered English-language journal articles published between 2000 and 2026. Studies were eligible when they supplied an empirical method and addressed conventional crime, reporting, perceived safety, policing, design, surveillance, or community governance in a tourism setting. Terrorism-only, disaster-only, cybersecurity, wildlife-crime, health-tourism, and non-tourism studies were excluded. Reference and forward-citation checking added two recent studies that directly strengthened the governance and perception synthesis. Bibliometric mapping also confirms the recent growth and fragmentation of tourism safety research (Toker & Emir, 2023).

Theory coding and SWOT–TOWS synthesis

The case source and included studies were coded against the six dimensions in Table 1. The analysis looked for connections, disconnections, uneven authority, missing data, and unintended effects rather than scoring the existence of individual devices. The source's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats were then recoded through this relational lens. TOWS matching generated strategies only when an internal and external factor could be connected to a concrete mechanism, responsible node, and evaluable outcome. The EFAS and IFAS totals reported in the source were not treated as inferential statistics because the underlying judgments and weighting procedure could not be independently reproduced.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Recorded trends and the limits of the institutional picture

The source records a rise in total jurisdiction-wide crime from 657 cases in 2021 to 820 in 2023, an increase of 24.8%. Motor-vehicle theft rose from 31 to 75 cases over the same period, aggravated theft from 55 to 70, and robbery with violence from five to six. Tourism-site security incidents increased from 25 to 32, or 28.0%. The closer 2022–2023 comparison used in the source is 6.9% for all crime and 14.3% for tourism-site incidents. These movements justify closer inquiry, but they do not demonstrate that tourism caused the wider crime increase or that any security input caused or prevented a particular incident.

Table 2. Selected institutional indicators, 2021–2023

Indicator	Unit	2021	2022	2023	2022–2023
All recorded crime (jurisdiction)	cases	657	767	820	+6.9%
Robbery with violence	cases	5	5	6	+20.0%
Motor-vehicle theft	cases	31	69	75	+8.7%
Aggravated theft	cases	55	66	70	+6.1%
Tourism-site security incidents	incidents	25	28	32	+14.3%
Reported personnel shortfall	persons	15	18	20	+11.1%
Tourism sites with CCTV	%	10	12	14	+2 pp
Tourism sites with alarms	%	8	10	11	+1 pp
Personnel with specialist training	%	40	45	48	+3 pp
Police–operator coordination	%	50	52	54	+2 pp

Source: reconstructed from Kurdi (2024).

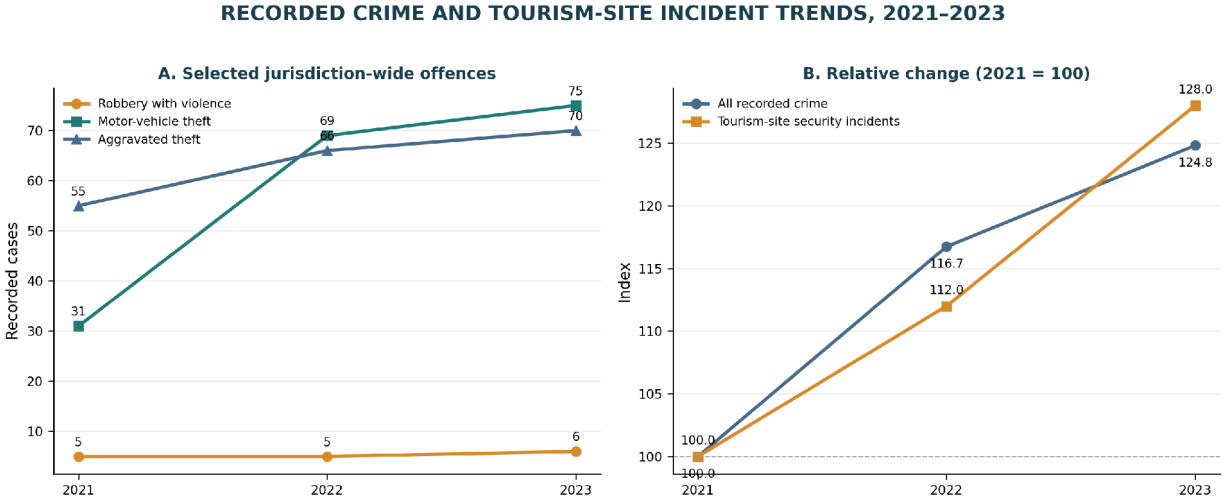

Figure 3. Recorded crime and tourism-site incident trends

Source: Authors' calculation from Kurdi (2024). The indexed panel compares relative change and does not imply a common causal process.

Capabilities increased, but connections remained thin

The capability indicators moved upward, yet from limited baselines. Reported CCTV coverage rose by four percentage points over three years, alarms by three points, specialist training by eight points, and police–operator coordination by four points. At the same time, the reported personnel shortfall and tourism-site incident count also increased. An input-centred reading might respond with more equipment and personnel. The broader CCTV evidence, however, shows that average effects depend on setting and implementation (Piza et al., 2019). The assemblage reading therefore asks what those inputs were connected to: who watched the camera feed, how faults were repaired, which events triggered escalation, whether residents could report without cost, how a tourism operator transferred evidence, and whether a visitor received support after reporting.

The denominator problem is especially important. Fourteen per cent CCTV coverage can mean very different things depending on the number, size, visitor volume, and risk profile of sites. A single percentage also says nothing about uptime, field of view, lighting compatibility, storage, access rights, privacy notices, or response time. Haggerty's (2025) concept of surveillantization helps avoid the assumption that a rising percentage necessarily represents a

coherent security system. Surveillance becomes consequential through institutionalization, connection, and cultural normalization, not installation alone.

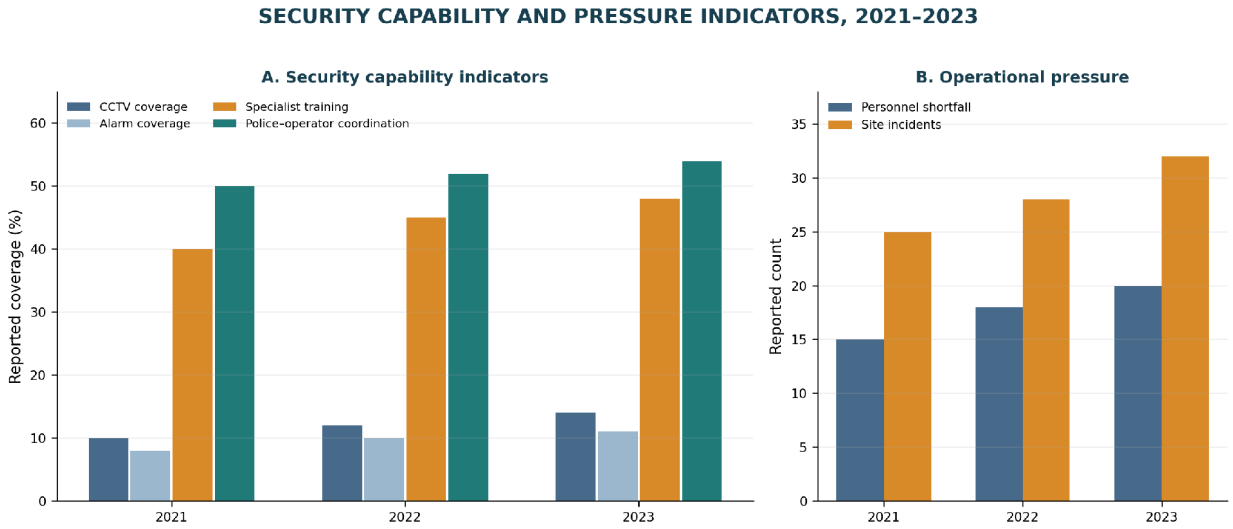

Figure 4. Security capability and operational-pressure indicators

Source: Authors' visualization from Kurdi (2024). Coverage percentages are reproduced without site or personnel denominators.

What the structured literature review adds

The 16 included studies do not support a single universal package. They consistently show that tourist risk and safety are heterogeneous across places, visitor groups, travel stages, accommodation types, transport systems, and reporting practices. The findings also challenge reliance on police records alone. Buil-Gil and Mawby (2023), for example, show that tourists and residents have different reporting propensities, while Paliska et al. (2020) demonstrate the importance of distinguishing tourist areas and victim profiles in official data. Perceived safety is likewise constructed through information before, during, and after a trip (Zou & Yu, 2022), so reputation and digital narratives form part of the assemblage.

Table 3. Secondary empirical evidence retained in the structured review

Study and setting	Data or method	Finding relevant to the assemblage
Brunt & Hooton (2010), United Kingdom	Community and business case evidence	Crime is experienced through local economic and social relations; responses need residents and traders.
Seabra et al. (2013), international tourists	Tourist survey and segmentation	Risk and safety perceptions vary across tourist segments; an 'average visitor' is a weak planning unit.
Bhati & Pearce (2016), international literature	Integrative review of vandalism	Damage emerges from interacting setting, management, visitor, and social conditions.
Bhati & Pearce (2017), Bangkok and Singapore	Systematic site observation and cluster analysis	Maintenance and setting characteristics distinguish higher- and lower-damage attractions.
Mawby et al. (2016), Brașov	Local multi-agency case using primary and secondary evidence	Partnerships work more credibly when residents are included alongside justice and tourism agencies.
Imbeah et al. (2020), Cape Coast	Questionnaire survey of 515 tourists	Safety expectations and satisfaction should be incorporated into stakeholder planning.
Terrah et al. (2020), Antalya	Survey of 551 tourists from 34 countries	Expectation–perception gaps occur across transport, accommodation, public places, and tourism sites.
Paliska et al. (2020), Slovenia	Police data, geotagging, and logistic regression	Theft patterns differ by place, accommodation, visitor status, and victim characteristics.
Badiora et al. (2021), Nigerian attraction	Site audit and longitudinal incident appraisal	Environmental design has to be assessed as a maintained site system, not a checklist of devices.

Study and setting	Data or method	Finding relevant to the assemblage
Chen et al. (2021), Shilin Geopark	Questionnaire, fuzzy evaluation, and importance–performance analysis	Monitoring, lighting, management, roads, and sanitation jointly shape perceived safety.
Badiora et al. (2022), Nigerian geopark	Expert observation and management interviews	A good past record can create complacency when current safety architecture is incomplete.
Buil-Gil & Mawby (2023), Barcelona	Resident and tourist survey comparison	Tourist reporting differs from resident reporting; police records cannot be assumed to represent exposure.
Vakhitova et al. (2023), Australia	Tourist survey (n=1,027) and Bayesian variable selection	Accommodation location, type, and guardianship help explain burglary variation.
Malleka et al. (2022), Johannesburg	Visitor perceptions across three tourism precincts	Curated tourism spaces and wider city reputations can produce contrasting safety judgments.
Soares et al. (2021), Santiago route	Online host-community survey	Sustainable tourism planning requires meaningful resident involvement, not benefit assumptions.
Rahaman et al. (2025), Bangladesh	Mixed methods: surveys, interviews, and cases	Tourist police visibility alone is insufficient; interaction, awareness, and cross-sector coordination matter.

Assemblage diagnosis of the Tulungagung case

Table 4. Relational diagnosis of the tourism security assemblage

Fracture	Case evidence	Criminological implication
Actor-node imbalance	Coordination reached 54%; the source identifies police and operators more clearly than residents, workers, SMEs, transport actors, and visitors.	Security risks becoming an inter-organizational arrangement without an inclusive public.
Material disconnection	CCTV and alarms increased, but monitoring, uptime, maintenance, access, and response protocols were not reported.	Installed technology may create symbolic reassurance without operational capacity.
Data fragmentation	Jurisdiction crime, site incidents, coverage percentages, and strategic scores use different units and missing denominators.	No defensible site-level comparison or mechanism test can be made.
Spatial blindness	No destination, route, parking area, time window, or seasonal exposure is identified.	Resources cannot be calibrated to mobility, crowding, or recurring local conditions.
Classification risk	Visible theft and robbery can be narrated as blue-collar crime without evidence about offender class or occupation.	Security practice may drift toward social sorting and undermine community trust.
Weak feedback	The source recommends inputs and coordination but provides no shared outcome dashboard or complaint pathway.	The assemblage cannot learn whether incidents moved, reporting changed, or harms became less visible.

The diagnosis changes the meaning of the problem. Personnel shortages remain real, but they are not merely vacancies to be filled. A place manager, community representative, transport worker, or trained trader may hold knowledge and response capacity that formal staffing figures cannot see. Conversely, plural participation cannot be used to transfer police risk or unpaid surveillance labour to residents. The appropriate question is which function requires legal authority, which can be shared, what support accompanies participation, and who is accountable when action produces harm. The same caution applies to data. More complete records may improve prevention, but they can also expand surveillance and social sorting. Any common incident system should therefore use the minimum necessary data, clear access roles, retention limits, transparent purposes, and complaint mechanisms consistent with Indonesia's Personal Data Protection Law (Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 27 Tahun 2022). Facial recognition or predictive profiling is neither supported by the case data nor required by the proposed model. The priority is reliable event, place, time, response, and outcome information—not the speculative classification of people.

SWOT recoded as a relational strategy

Table 5. SWOT of the Tulungagung tourism security assemblage

Factor	Evidence-sensitive formulation
Strengths	Leadership commitment; established police mandate; improving training; initial CCTV and alarm infrastructure; practical crime-handling experience; existing community relations.
Weaknesses	Personnel shortage; low technology coverage; missing denominators and site-level incident detail; uneven procedures; incomplete coordination; no reported uptime, privacy, complaint, or outcome measures.
Opportunities	Growth of community-based and sustainable tourism; digital reporting; public–private co-financing; local SMEs and transport networks; community policing framework; national personal-data safeguards.
Threats	Rising conventional crime and site incidents; reputational amplification through online platforms; displacement between sites; unequal surveillance of workers or residents; disaster and economic volatility.

Table 6. TOWS strategies derived from the assemblage analysis

TOWS	Strategy	Evidence of implementation
SO	Use leadership and community relations to establish a Tourism Security Forum with police, government, operators, SMEs, residents, transport actors, and visitor-service representatives.	Published membership, meeting record, and jointly approved site-risk register.
WO	Link technology expansion to a minimum incident dataset, named monitoring responsibility, maintenance budget, privacy notice, and response protocol; train operators and community liaisons together.	Data completeness, equipment uptime, trained role coverage, and tested escalation time.
ST	Use crime-handling experience and local knowledge to identify seasonal routes, parking areas, and reporting barriers while communicating risk without stigmatizing neighbourhoods or occupations.	Site and time-specific problem profiles, communication review, and trust feedback.
WT	Pilot before scaling; independently review complaints, non-reporting, displacement, and unequal impacts; discontinue devices or practices that cannot demonstrate a legitimate and proportionate purpose.	Quarterly harm-and-benefit review with corrective decisions and public summary.

Community-centred implementation and evaluation

Implementation should begin with a small number of contrasting destinations rather than a jurisdiction-wide procurement program. Indonesia's community-policing framework provides an institutional basis for locally shared problem identification without transferring coercive authority to residents (Peraturan Kepolisian Negara Republik Indonesia Nomor 1 Tahun 2021). One coastal site, one cultural or urban attraction, and one high-mobility site would allow the partnership to observe different visitors, routes, operators, and local economies. Each pilot should start with a walk-through audit conducted at more than one time, a map of actor nodes and responsibilities, an incident taxonomy, and a record of existing reporting and maintenance practices. The process should include women, young people, persons with disabilities, informal workers, nearby residents, and small businesses because accessibility and perceived safety are unevenly distributed. Evaluation must distinguish activity from outcome. Cameras installed, personnel trained, and meetings held are outputs. More complete reporting, reduced repeat incidents at the same micro-location, faster supported response, lower equipment downtime, improved visitor and resident confidence, fewer exclusion complaints, and stable participation by local businesses are outcomes. An early rise in reports may reflect better access rather than worsening crime. Conversely, falling reports may reflect avoidance or distrust. Quantitative trends should therefore be read with anonymized case reviews and short visitor, worker, and resident feedback.

Table 7. Phased roadmap for community tourism security

Phase	Core actions	Node responsibility	Evaluation evidence
0–3 months: assemble	Map nodes and responsibilities; audit three pilot sites; define incident, response, privacy, and referral rules; establish the forum.	Police and local government convene; operators and community representatives co-design.	Baseline site profiles; denominator register; signed role matrix; accessible complaint channel.

Phase	Core actions	Node responsibility	Evaluation evidence
4–12 months: connect	Pilot monitored technology, multilingual reporting, place-manager training, community liaison shifts, and problem-specific response protocols.	Site operators manage daily practice; police provide lawful escalation; community nodes review access and trust.	Uptime; report completeness; response and referral time; repeat-location incidents; user feedback.
12–24 months: learn	Compare sites, test displacement and non-reporting, revise protocols, finance maintenance, and scale only mechanisms with credible benefit.	Forum commissions independent review and publishes a non-identifying community summary.	Outcome trend; complaint resolution; inclusion indicators; SME participation; documented decisions to adapt, expand, or stop.

This roadmap treats digital innovation as a governed relationship. A low-cost reporting form may be more valuable than a sophisticated camera if it reaches the responsible person, preserves evidence, provides feedback, and is trusted by users. Likewise, a community liaison can improve situated awareness only if participation is voluntary, trained, supported, and protected from retaliation. Entrepreneurship enters the framework through continuity of local livelihoods and shared investment in safe public space, not through the privatization of coercive authority.

4. CONCLUSION

The Tulungagung data describe a real planning concern: tourism-site security incidents increased from 25 in 2021 to 32 in 2023 while the reported expansion of CCTV, alarms, specialist training, and police–operator coordination remained limited. The figures do not identify a causal mechanism, because offence types, places, time patterns, exposure denominators, reporting behaviour, and equipment performance are absent. Their strongest contribution is therefore diagnostic. They show that the existing security arrangement is only partially connected. Poststructural security-assemblage criminology offers a more appropriate main theory than a device-centred or offender-centred explanation. It reveals security as a provisional effect of actor nodes, material objects, data, spatial mobility, everyday practices, and contested public outcomes. The framework also disciplines the use of the blue-collar crime label: theft and robbery can be analysed as conventional offences without turning class, occupation, or residence into a proxy for suspicion. A credible community-development response should make relations visible before promising impact. Tulungagung needs site-level denominators, interoperable incident and response records, monitored and maintained technology, joint training, accessible reporting, meaningful representation, privacy safeguards, and independent review of displacement and unequal effects. Such measures do not guarantee lower crime. They create the institutional conditions under which safety claims can be tested, corrected, and connected to sustainable tourism, community trust, and local livelihoods.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors acknowledge the institutional material compiled by the Indonesian National Police Staff and Command College and the original individual paper by Anita Kurdi, which provided the secondary case data. No endorsement by the source institution is implied. The interpretation, limitations, and proposed framework are the responsibility of the authors.

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