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Anomalies in the 'dark side' of tourism: Resistance to popular sites in Samarinda, Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

The term 'destination security' is found in the customs and norms applied to prevent conflicts between tourism actors, local communities and the surrounding environment. The emergence of resistance to a destination because of its 'dark side', both those interested or actually visiting, cannot be separated from the fact that tourists are victims of violations of the law. The purpose of this study is to explore the effect of criminal acts on the numbers of tourists in Samarinda. Operationally, the core variables are divided into material effects, non-material effects and tourist volume. The data sample focuses on local, domestic and international tourists visiting popular sites in Samarinda during 2011–2021. The results of the investigation found that both material and non-material effects contributed to reducing the volume of tourists in the short term. In the long term, the presence of extortion, theft, sexual harassment and racism seems likely to reduce the volume of tourists.

KEYWORDS

tourism industry, tourist volume, material effect, non-material effect, Samarinda

1. Introduction

According to Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty (2012) and Radović and Arabska (2016) tourism security is seen as an important attribute, essential when individuals, families or lovers are visiting certain destinations. Attention to the level of security also implies how alert the security forces at a tourist location are and if they can effectively promise to protect tourists (Feng, Hao, 2021; Ghaderi, Saboori, Khoshkam, 2016; Zou, Yu, 2022). The success of tourism is not only measured by financial revenues, but how external and internal impacts on the routine of tourists are dealt with. A large destination does not necessarily reflect a culture that always welcomes visitors, especially foreign tourists. There are different 'paradigms' in thought, religious beliefs, social hierarchies and certain traditions that often intersect. Although luxury destinations are

interpreted as significant for regional and national development, there are risks that have the potential to threaten the safety of tourists (e.g. Anichiti et al., 2021; Korstanje, 2020; Terrah, Wildes, Mistry, 2020).

Indonesia has an abundant cultural heritage derived from its ancient cultures centuries ago that includes ancestral historical relics. Over the past century, it has been known as 'friendly' in the eyes of the world (Putri, 2017), but in line with the transformations of present times and because there is high demographic pressure, that friendliness has begun to fade, including in Samarinda. Recently, Ilmi et al. (2022) have concluded that a series of terrorist and anarchic acts have triggered a reaction shown in the disappointment of tourists. At the same time, this has created both material and non-material effects thereby encouraging 'image pollution' for Samarinda. Unfortunately, the government's spectacular promotion on the national and international tourism market has been tarnished by the extreme behavior of criminal groups.

Table 1 shows the level of development of tourist sites in Samarinda and a survey by Za et al. (2021) has identified the tourism industry there as experiencing a positive surge. In 2020–2021, there were six types of site that were often visited by tourists including artificial tourism (Jungle Water World, Ulin Arya House, Lerong Bay Park and Tjiu Tourism Pool); nature tourism (Green Valley Recreation Park, Tanah Merah Waterfall, Unmul Botanical Gardens and Berambai Waterfall); souvenir tours (Weaving Village); cultural tourism (Pampang Cultural Village); religious tourism (Islamic Center Samarinda); historical tourism (Samarinda Museum); and culinary tourism (Yellow Rice Village, Citra Niaga). Of the 14 sites above, the most favored by national and foreign tourists are the tourist clusters of Pampang Cultural Village, Unmul Botanical Gardens and Citra Niaga which received the highest ratings.

Variations in the level of tourist numbers in Samarinda over the last 11 years are inconsistent with the balance between local, domestic and international visitors as shown in Figure 1. Visitors from international markets have become the most prominent (the average from 2011 to 2021 was 1,118 visitors), in contrast to figures for Indonesia itself (927 domestic and 659 local). The overall average growth of domestic visitors is 26.31% compared to the average growth of local visitors at 1.43% and international visitors at 3.4%. In fact, in certain years there has been a decrease, for example in 2014, the average from local, domestic and international markets decreased dramatically by −22%, −22.27% and −11.09%. When viewed in terms of growth, the highest increase in domestic visitors was in 2017 at 190.8%, the largest for local visitors was 41.67% in 2016 and for international visitors the most striking increase was 49.17% in 2018. In 2019–2021 tourism access was blocked by the pandemic regulations which closed transportation routes, but this data collection format takes into account international tourist visits focused on those with temporary resident status in Samarinda such as workers, students and business employees, as well as from other professions.

Table 1. Ratings of 'popular sites' in Samarinda

Name	Tourism type	Rating
Jungle Water World	artificial	**
Ulin Arya House	artificial	****
Green Valley Recreation Park	natural	***
Weaving Village	souvenir	****
Pampang Cultural Village	culture	*****
Tanah Merah Waterfall	natural	**
Unmul Botanical Gardens	natural	*****
Islamic Center Samarinda	religious	***
Lerong Bay Park	artificial	*
Berambai Waterfall	natural	**
Tjiu Tourism Pool	artificial	*
Samarinda Museum	history	***
Yellow Rice Village	culinary	****
Citra Niaga	souvenir	*****

Note: site rating refers to safety level, comments and visitor interest from each level of lodging/hotel.
Source: Ratnasari et al. (2020).

A tourist is any visitor who stays < 24 hours and/or < 12 months in an area/country with intentions including religion, study, medical examination, conference/academic activity, attending meetings, sports and recreation, or simply visiting family and friends. There are criminal offences that result in material losses such as theft e.g. phones, money and various other items. Extortion is different from theft as the crime forces illegal payment under threat. Fraud can take place in the guise of offering tour guide services, falsifying lodging, visa arrangements through online/internet media scams, and manipulating financial transfers during a tour.

Non-material losses are reflected in sexual harassment, physical abuse and racism. From the example of sites in Samarinda, sexual harassment represents intimidation to tourists that makes them uncomfortable, embarrassed or threatened, while the characteristics of physical abuse result in pain, falling ill or even serious injury. Moreover, acts of racism against tourists are based on the belief that humans can be divided into separate groups based on biological characteristics called 'race'.
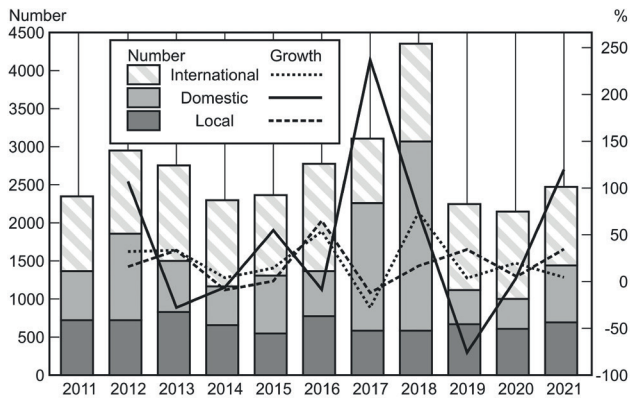
Figure 1. Trends in tourist visits to Samarinda
Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (BPS) Kota Samarinda (2022)

There is a perception of a brutal and irresponsible scandal while other forms of criminal acts prevent the revival of the tourism infrastructure (Mataković, Mataković, 2019; Mawby, 2014). Thus, the urgency of this research is to analyze the factors that influence the volume of tourists visiting Samarinda. Its motivation is concerned with showing how tourists as victims of material and non-material losses, including mugging, extortion, theft, fraud, sexual harassment, physical abuse and racism, has led to resistance to visit the destination.

This article is organized into five sections. Section 1 presents the route to reach its goal; section 2 introduces a literature review related to the 'dark side' of tourism and presents hypotheses; section 3 details the research method while section 4 gives the results and discussion based on the findings. Finally, section 5 is a conclusion summarizing the main results, the practical implications, recommendations for further research and the limitations of the article.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

2.1. THE 'DARK SIDE' OF TOURISM

Altindag (2014) highlights the consequences of international tourists visiting the EU related to the crime at coastal resorts with beach attractions. The growth of tourists visiting the USA is faster than the readiness of law enforcement and although there is a high level of economic tourism in Honolulu, the level of violence correlates significantly with that in Las Vegas (Baker, Stockton, 2014). Amir, Ismail and See (2015) exposed the vulnerability of female tourists, during the day to sexual crimes and pickpocketing as the reason why they are afraid to visit some central sites, whereas as many as 99% stated they felt safe walking around Kuala Lumpur in Malaysia, at night.

Lisowska-Kierepka (2017) instead focuses on a specific view of developing countries and regions that have lost their tourist charm due to the introduction of 'foreigners' into local communities as an excuse for high crime rates.

Mawby (2017) asserts that tourists are victims but, relatively, they also channel crime. Mohammed and Sookram (2015) argue that very rapid tourism growth stimulates the level of business and employment, however, it has also created problems in some parts of the Caribbean. It is undeniable that there is an imbalance between prosperity and tranquility in tourism, with symptoms of complex tensions. In the long term, the expansion of tourism has had a systematic effect on income inequality in Turkey (Uzar, Eyuboglu, 2019) where in fact, tourism services are not registered and are categorized in the 'shadow economy'. Its 'elasticity' makes it difficult for tourists to be accepted (Din et al., 2016). This injustice also disturbs villagers in world heritage sites in China who have altered their interpersonal relationships, traditional values and lifestyle (Zhuang, Yao, Li, 2019).

2.2. TOURIST VISITS

Tourism is changing with dynamic 'tourism capitalization' releasing 'cosmopolitanism', expressive freedoms of lifestyle regardless of age, social status, gender, wealth and power. In Conventional Tourism Theory, Martin and Woodside (2008) mapped the consequences, decisions, motivations and travel plans controlling visitor behavior.

Pahrudin, Chen and Liu (2021) modify the Theory of Planned Behavior where tourists' decisions to visit a destination are determined by awareness and intention (Wiweka, Arcana, 2019). The Theory of Tourism is based on two kinds of sub-system: the first is an internal one that brings closer human interaction during travel to tourism-producing areas thus triggering 'tourism demand'; the second is external bound by geography, demography, politics, economics, technology, sociocultural conditions, climate, safe accommodation and international trade. Franklin and Crang (2001) and Saleh (2021) compare various features explored by Travel Theory in tourist behavior (loyalty, brand satisfaction and attachment), to destination competence.

2.3. HYPOTHESES

Based on the above, the decision hypothesis is divided into two parts: the null hypothesis (H_0) and the alternative hypothesis (H_a) which are as follows:

H_0: There is no relationship between mugging, extortion, theft, fraud, sexual harassment, physical abuse and racism to tourist volume.

Hₐ: There is a relationship between mugging, extortion, theft, fraud, sexual harassment, physical abuse and racism to tourist volume.

3. Methods

3.1. Parameters

The research focuses on 'popular sites' in Samarinda. The database has been collected from government publications and secondary sources, selected for the period 2011–2021. A time series for data has been organized, processed and arranged into one unit using standard algorithms. Data is displayed in Table 2.

The total data sample is 88 ($n = 88$). The dependent variable, TV, is combined from local tourists, national/domestic tourists and foreign/international tourists. The independent variables, material effects (ROB, EXT, THF and FRD) are nominally converted from IDR to USD while non-material effects (SH, PA and RCS) are examined on a case-by-case basis.

3.2. Analysis procedure

The interpretation of the data was analyzed using a comparative regression technique. The principled regression instrument on the variation of a trend from year to year, which adopts the basic econometric equation function reads:

$$\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_t + \dots + \mu$$

Next, a model is built matching the two scenarios in the hypothesis examining the response between material and non-material effects on tourist volume, so that it is articulated as follows:

$$lnTV_{1t} = \beta_0 + \delta_1 + ln\beta_1ROB_t + ln\beta_2EXT_t + ln\beta_3THF_t + \\ + ln\beta_4FRD_t + \mu_{1t}$$

$$lnTV_{2t} = \beta_0 + \delta7 + ln\beta_5SH_t + ln\beta_6PA_t + ln\beta_7RCS_t + \mu_{2t}$$

Symbol notation: $\hat{y}$ (estimated time series); ln (natural logarithm); t (time set); $1, \dots, 2$ (model); β_0 (short-term coefficient); δ (small difference / derivative); $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_7$ (long-term coefficient) and μ (precision).

4. Results and discussion

Table 3 covers the descriptive statistics of the variables. The impressive record for the FRD variable was shown through a standard deviation score (*SD*) of 4,425,141.9 and the highest mean of 4,586,603.36; while TV achieved the greatest skewness and kurtosis scores: 1.999

Table 2. Variable format

Status	Variable	Label	Measurement	Literature
Dependent	tourist volume	TV	traveling for pleasure to a destination	Stephenson (2021)
Independent	mugging	ROB	a criminal act in which the thief takes tourists' property openly through rude and intimidating actions at their lodgings	Moore, Berno (1995), Palanca-Tan et al. (2015)
	extortion	EXT	an act by a particular individual or group for their own benefit, but puts pressure on and harms tourists	Gurtner (2016)
	theft	THF	stealing property from tourists carried out at the destination	Dimanche, Lepetic (1999), Pratt (2022), Vakhitova et al. (2022)
	fraud	FRD	a ruse or a series of lies, so that tourists feel deceived by what seems valid, either directly or indirectly	Jawabreh et al. (2018), Pearce (2011)
	sexual harassment	SH	incidental sexual acts, causing offence, discomfort or physical and mental danger to tourists	Ajagunna (2006), Chiu, Lin (2011), Norio (2021), Wen, Li (2015)
	physical abuse	PA	physical violence against a traveler that results in pain, illness or serious injury	Eger (2021), Devine, Ojeda (2017)
	racism	RCS	doctrine of equality based on skin color, race, ethnicity and biological origins that limit or violate the rights and freedoms of tourists	Li et al. (2020)

Source: authors.

and 4.706. Among other variables, RCS achieved the lowest *SD*, mean, and kurtosis scores: 102.08, 358.54, and −0.543. The lowest skewness figure is for ROB at −0.870.

Table 3. Summary of descriptive statistics

Variables	*SD*	Mean	Skewness	Kurtosis
ROB	152,313.52	375,125.91	−0.870	−0.376
EXT	14,547.41	41,926.45	−0.580	−0.382
THF	5,637.92	7,463	0.770	0.030
FRD	4,425,141.9	4,586,603.36	1.552	2.138
SH	360.02	636.45	0.981	0.383
PA	231.99	216.63	1.181	−0.198
RCS	102.08	358.54	0.930	−0.543
TV	625.81	2,703.81	1.999	4.706

Source: authors.

Table 4 tracks the correlation performance of the material effect variables. In fact, at 1% probability ($p < 0.01$), ROB is negatively significantly correlated with EXT (−0.829) and THF (−0.951). Another negatively significant correlation occurs between EXT (−0.913) and THF (−0.779) on FRD. Even so, there was a positively significant correlation at 5% probability ($p < 0.05$) in the relationship of EXT with THF (0.846).

Table 4. Estimation of correlation (model 1)

Variables	ROB	EXT	THF	FRD	TV
ROB	1	−0.829** (0.002)	−0.951** (0.000)	0.743* (0.009)	0.163 (0.633)
EXT	−0.829** (0.002)	1	0.846** (0.001)	−0.913** (0.000)	0.150 (0.659)
THF	−0.951** (0.000)	0.846** (0.001)	1	−0.779** (0.005)	−0.157 (0.645)
FRD	0.743* (0.009)	−0.913** (0.000)	−0.779** (0.005)	1	−0.063 (0.855)
TV	0.163 (0.633)	0.150 (0.659)	−0.157 (0.645)	−0.063 (0.855)	1

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.
Source: authors.

Table 5 examines the correlation performance for model 2. At its peak, at 1% probability ($p < 0.01$), SH appears to be negatively significantly correlated with RCS (−0.808), but opposite to the positively significant correlation with PA (0.971). In fact, at 5% probability ($p < 0.05$), the relationship between PA and RCS is negatively significant (−0.710).

Table 5. Estimation of correlation (model 2)

Variables	SH	PA	RCS	TV
SH	1	0.971** (0.000)	−0.808** (0.003)	−0.049 (0.887)
PA	0.971** (0.000)	1	−0.710* (0.014)	−0.041 (0.904)
RCS	−0.808** (0.003)	−0.710* (0.014)	1	−0.154 (0.652)
TV	−0.049 (0.887)	−0.041 (0.904)	−0.154 (0.652)	1

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.
Source: authors.

Table 6 shows the relationship between material effects and TV. Consistently, there is a negatively significant indication of all variables in the partial test towards TV ($p = 0.048 < 0.05$). EXT and THF also have a significant negative effect on TV because $p = 0.003 < 0.1$ and $p = 0.045 < 0.05$.

Table 6. Hypothesis test statistic (partial test) in model 1

From	To	β	*t*	*p*
Constant	–	−535.542	−0.152	0.048*
ROB	TV	0.497	0.459	0.662
EXT	TV	−1.455	−1.506	0.003**
THF	TV	−0.550	−0.485	0.045*
FRD	TV	0.469	0.576	0.585

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.
Source: authors.

Table 7 shows the variables with non-material effects and TV, where the constant scores are shown to have a negatively significant effect ($p = 0.007 < 0.1$). There are negatively significant effects of SH ($p = 0.040 < 0.05$) and RCS ($p = 0.028 < 0.05$) on TV. The details of the feasibility test for the model are contained in Figure 2 according to the existing variables. In the interval 0.4–0.59, the coefficients for model 1 and model 2 show a 'moderate' level of determination. The coefficient R^2 suggests that 59.4% of the factors in model 1 lower TV, while in model 2, it is 40.3%.

Table 7. Hypothesis test statistic (partial test) in model 2

From	To	β	*t*	*p*
Constant	–	−5,836.619	−2.139	0.007**
SH	TV	−1.839	−0.897	0.040*
PA	TV	1.169	0.682	0.517

Table 7 (cont.)

From	To	β	t	p
RCS	TV	−0.810	−1.166	0.028[*]

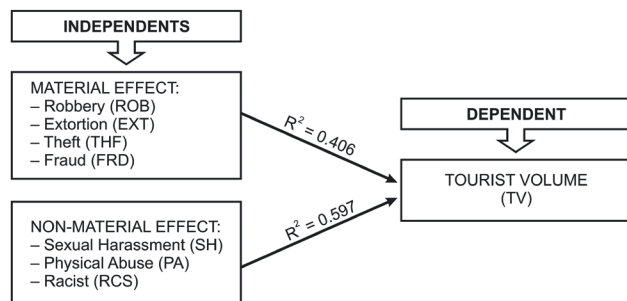Note: [*] $p < 0.05$, [**] $p < 0.01$.
Source: authors.

Figure 2. R^2 between material effects and non-material effects
Source: authors

The literature that highlights and provides critical insight into security aspects concerning tourist volume vulnerability are demonstrated in Fourie, Rosselló-Nadal and Santana-Gallego (2019), Hamarneh and Jeřábek (2018), Kurež and Prevolšek (2015), Mawby et al. (2016) and Qeidari et al. (2021). These show that international tourists can distinguish security threats such as corruption, terrorism and criminality from instability in the host country. The failure or success of a tourist destination depends on its flexibility to provide a secure environment, for example in the countries of the former Yugoslavia. Contemporary politics and modern security also have implications for elements of tourism destinations. In the context of law and order in Brașov, Romania, tourism is often called a 'crime generator' and this continues to be a dilemma. In the case of Torqabeh and Shandiz County (Iran), the role of security has boosted the development of tourist villages.

Allen (1999) devises a hierarchy of specific criminal offences that are often directed at tourists and which gain media attention. In the New South Wales, Australia, example this is linked to murder, serious assault and rape. Glensor and Peak (2004) argue that crimes against tourists in the USA are responded to by tourism law guidelines addressing the problems of terrorism, vacation home robbery, the sale of stolen property, pickpocketing and prostitution. Although many events are resolved immediately, the end result is a significant lack of trust from visitors in some destinations. The literature on crime in tourism continues (e.g. Biagi, Brandano, Detotto, 2012; Corona, 2018; Hua, Li, Zhang, 2020; Ke, O'Brien, Heydari, 2021) and there is a long-running debate about how to monitor and eliminate its opportunities. Crime totals have been affected by the arrival of tourist groups in areas of Italy. Findings from 31 states in Mexico show that international tourists are intimidated by death threats.

5. Conclusion, suggestions and future research directions

The priority of this research has been to investigate the impact of material and non-material losses on tourists who want to or who are visiting 'popular sites' in Samarinda. These include mugging, extortion, theft, fraud, sexual harassment, physical abuse and racism and they are divided into two models. As a result, it is known that the non-material effect is more dominant in harming the volume of tourists. The following are the main conclusions:

1. Material effects reduce the volume of tourists. From the 'partial' test, the more extortion, theft, sexual harassment and racist behavior increase, the more the volume of tourists decreases.
2. During the observation period, despite the increase in mugging, fraud and physical abuse, tourist volume actually increased.
3. The fear and anxiety of tourists must be reduced through 'optimal control'. We recommend suggestions to stakeholders in the tourism industry to channel more ideal, innovative and cooperative access to facilities related to health, security and information.
4. To restore the 'destination image' of Samarinda and provide human help for tourists as victims who have suffered violence, the firmness of law enforcement management should be tested through intervention, intensive coordination, regulation tightening and anticipating crimes that will hinder tourism sustainability.
5. The research results have pioneered an academic idea different to previous publications. The key is that the success of a destination is not only focused on its sustainability, but also the preventive response to reduce and combat the potential for all criminal acts. The conclusions of this article are valuable initiatives for other locations with high crime rates.

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