Recreational Drug Use Being Normalised Amongst the

Young People of Ireland

Muireann McCarthy

University College Cork

Supervisor: Niamh Hourigan

Table of Contents:

Abstract

This dissertation examines the extent to which recreational drug use has become normalised among students at universities across Ireland. This exposition provides an insight into the neglected topic of such Normalisation in a contemporary setting. It asserts the extent of Normalisation through the research method of self- completed questionnaires. Drug Trying Rates (DTR), the availability of illicit drugs, rates of recent and regular use and the levels of social and cultural accommodation were investigated. The research revealed that (82.72%) of respondents have tried an illicit substance. This statistic illustrates that there is a compelling minority of students in universities who have never consumed an illicit substance. Overall, the research found that participants from the online questionnaire establish the recreational use of cannabis as normalised. Ecstasy and amphetamines were the next most commonly used substances. Ketamine and Hallucinogens were rarely used. The primary research has found that recreational drug use has become further normalised and has moved away from its traditional association with deviancy.

Keywords: Recreational Drug Use, Normalisation, Illicit Drugs, Youth, Drug Trying Rates

Introduction

Illicit Drugs can be defined as substances produced, trafficked and/or consumed illicitly. Once taken, these drugs alters a subject's mind in a way that modifies perceptions, emotions, and feelings for recreational purposes. When a substance enters the user's body, it brings on an intoxicating effect, referred to as a "*high*" (Commonwealth Department of Human Services and Health, 1994). Recreational drug use can be typically defined as '*the use for pleasure or leisure*' (DrugScope, 2014).

Throughout history, people have used different drugs to impair their senses. Different cultures have developed social rules around drug use to control their impact on society (BBC, 2011). Over time, research indicated changes in the use of drugs, as well as the dramatic shift in attitudes towards them. Globally, and in Ireland, a drug culture emerged in the 1960's (Corrigan and Butler, 1991). It has been documented that recreational drug use has been associated with young people and there have been significant movements of drug consumption within youth culture (Blackman, 2007). This Includes; amphetamines being consumed by '*speeding mods*' in the 1960's (Hebdige, 2006). A systematic sociology of drug use began to emerge in the 1960s under the '*new*' deviancy theories (Becker, 1963& Young, 1971). The timing of the development of these theories was significant, as it was during this decade that young people started to use illicit drugs in significant numbers, with some commentators suggesting that it was then that society's defences against drugs were '*decisively breached*' (Marwick, 1998: p. 4). The link with the '*new*' deviancy theories was no less significant and reflected an underlying compatibility. '*New*' deviancy theorists frequently expressed unease about the extension of social control into

morally ambiguous areas and, as a *"victimless crime"*, *drug use'* was ideally suited to this broader purpose (Cohen, 1971). The relevance of early developments in the sociology of drug use has not been considered explicitly within the Normalisation debate, but has been alluded to in a number of ways and has clear implications for the claims that have been made about continuity and change.

All controlled drugs in Ireland were classified under the *Misuses of Drug Act 1977*, according to the danger they caused to society. Nevertheless, drug use continued and increased over the years. With continuation into the 1980's, there was a significant surge in the number of people recorded using heroin in Dublin. (Kalunta- Crumpton, 2006). During this time in Ireland, many places became known as *"drug areas"*, which were a part of subcultural drug scenes (Parker et al, 1998). Ironically, Butler (1991:220) noted that an unpublished (but leaked) report by the *Special Government Task Force on Drug Abuse* (1983) had acknowledged that '*drug problems in Dublin were largely explicable in terms of the poverty and powerlessness of a small number of working class neighborhoods*.' Consequently, this Task Force had proposed using a number of indicators (drug prevalence, high crime and unemployment rates, poor and overcrowded housing, low levels of educational attainment, lack of social and recreational amenities, etc.) to identify Community Priority Areas. These areas were to be targeted with additional financial resources to tackle disadvantage, for example for the establishment of youth and community projects.

During the 1990's in Ireland, there was an unprecedented increase in the *'widespread of drug use amongst very large numbers of ordinary young people'* (Parker, Aldridge and

Measham, 2011). Drug use had become increasingly common amongst many young people in society. This increase in the 1990's was largely due to the emergent of "*rave culture*" (Smith and Flatley, eds., 2011). Drug use became popular within the mainstream youth culture, with attitudes towards this use becoming widely accepted. Parker (1988) developed a Drug Normalisation Theory as a way of explaining these changes by investigating the behavioural and drug attitude change, while also considering socio- economic factors and cultural background (Mesham, 2004). The report of the *Ministerial Task Force on Measures to Reduce the Demand for Drugs* (1996) provided scope for optimism with the official recognition that the drug problem has been in Ireland at this time:

> *Concentrated communities that are characterised by large-scale social and economic deprivation and marginalisation. The physical/environmental conditions in these neighborhoods are poor, as are the social and recreational infrastructures. Abuse and addiction are associated with crime-There are problems of related disease. Life in these estates for many has become 'nasty, brutish and short'.* (Rabbitte, 1996:5).

For that reason, evidence in Ireland has found that problematic drug users are disproportionately concentrated in Dublin city areas marked by poverty, multi-generational unemployment, high crime rates, high population density (particularly of young adults), local authority housing (often of poor quality) with a high turnover of tenancies; and poor social and recreational facilities (Stimson, 1995:18).

Normalisation refers to *"human behaviour which exhibits some degree of regularity"* (Blackman, 2004:138). Research has shown that drugs have integrated into people's lives and

that they have become much more convenient in the last 30 years (United Nations, 2008.). It is therefore safe to conclude that drug use has been socially accommodated amongst young people. Recreational drug use is a curious inherent into our existence. McKenna explained that (1999: xiii); "*the self- administration of psychoactive substances, legal & illegal will be an increasingly part of the future unfolding a global culture*". It is also true that many social researchers and sociological studies assessing different aspects of drug use have been undertaken, often recommending a policy change regarding drug penalties in Ireland (Shane Butler, 1991).

The primary aim of this dissertation is to re-investigate the extent of recreational drug use becoming normalised amongst young adults in a contemporary society. Can it be said that forty years of "*the war on drugs*" has been useful for something? Young (1971: 128) discussed how "*Individuals within society must constantly consume in order to keep a pace within the productive capacity of the economy*". Young adults are usually at the stage where responsibilities of the adult world have still not been set. This is known as the '*transition into adulthood*' (Henig,2010). It is therefore both understandable and worrying that young people experiment with drugs during this point of their life. Substance use has a negative impact on public health and human development. Socio-economic status (SES) is associated with substance use, yet there is little consensus on how the two are related (e.g., Hanson and Chen, 2007; Huckle et al., 2010). For a complete understanding of crime and deviance, it is necessary not just to look at the interpretive meanings that socially attach to crime, but also look at the social structures that impact on an individual's behaviour. According to sub-cultural theorists (Young, 2010A) within the radical criminology perspective, law-breaking, law-making and law enforcement are based on the premise that the law expands as the class gaps widen, and both crime and crime control

divert attention from real economic problems (Bilton et al. 1997, p.392).With the drug market in Ireland marked over 600 million in 2013 (Garda seizure figures for 2013 and the UNODC), the government still decides to put a punitive attitude towards drug use disregarding scientific evidence. With financing dropping by (16%) in recent years due to the recession in 2006, only (0.12%) of the minister of finances planned budget is being spent on drug related expenditure in Ireland, (United Nations Classification of the Functions of Government (COFOG)).

This study attempts to assess the validity of Parker et al's (2002) Normalisation theory, whether the notion that recreational drug use is very common amongst young adults and also if it should be regarded as '*normal*' rather than an activity confined to minority subcultures (Manning, 2007: 49).

Overall, research and evidence suggests an overwhelming increase in drug use and involvement as well as a change attitudes amongst young people in society. Evidence shows that drug use has become a '*normal'* part of life supporting the Normalisation concept originated by Howard Parker and colleagues in 1998 (DrugScope, 2011). The research identifies that this is the case in the student population attending universities. Although critics raise issues into the Normalisation theory, the theory has remained dormant for the last ten years and as a result, there is little evidence known on the Normalisation of drug use in a contemporary setting today. The topic on drugs is suspended mainly due to lack on general knowledge on the topic or lack of knowledge in society. This shows a widespread ignorance towards a reality that ideally, should be acknowledged by everyone. So the question is to what extent has recreational drugs been normalised amongst students in universities? Many researchers have contributed to give a clearer

understanding of the Normalisation theory, the aim for this dissertation is to add knowledge by conducting a qualitative survey of 862 young people. The methods adopted to investigate this notion will be shown and discussed in detail in the methodology chapter with the experiment exposed.

Literature Review

The term '*Normalisation*' is of one of the most influential recent developments in the sociology of drug use and has become something of a prevailing attitude Measham and Shiner, 2008). Parker, Measham and Aldridge (1998) illustrate Normalisation of drug use as:

> *'The concept of recreational drug use cannot be reduced to the intuitive phrase. 'It is normal for young people to take drugs': That is both to oversimplify and overstate the case. We are concerned only with the spread of deviant activity and associated attitudes from the margins towards the centre of youth culture where it joins many other accommodated 'deviant' activities such as excessive drinking, casual sexual encounters and daily cigarette smoking'* (Parker, 1998:152).

What is normal and what is the norm accepted in our society? The principle of being and acting normal comes with factors that one has to act, dress and speak a certain way and as well as employing experiences to name a few. A society context shows us the definition of *'normal'* according to Webster (1891) is "*conforming to a type, standard, or regular pattern*", or "*occurring naturally to others*". The term '*Normal*' varies in different societies as of cultures. In our society, this potentially damaging term contradicts with implications on our society, students and children. We strive as individuals to become different, and to achieve the best potential we can for ourselves. With society and the school system teaching our children that everyone is normal with the main focus on standardised tests, how are they going to develop individual

capability? (Cole, 1991). Although normal varies from society to society, how is mind altering substances altering peoples norms and behaviours? As humans, we are known to have a deeply curious nature (Stafford, 2012). Our curiosity shows us we love knowing the answers to things and experiencing a new high, even if there's no obvious benefit like being curious about mind altering substances with many health risks attached (BBC, 2013).

Whereas illicit drug use was once widely attributed to individual or social pathology, it has increasingly come to be seen as an unremarkable feature of young people's lives; part of the broader search for pleasure, excitement and enjoyment framed within consumption-oriented leisure lifestyles (Parker, Aldridge, & Measham, 1998). Applying the theory of Normalisation to recreational drug use amongst the youth began during the 1990's was first documented by Parker, Aldridge and Measham (2002). The most comprehensive statement of the Normalisation thesis was provided in the monograph Illegal Leisure: The Normalisation of Adolescent Recreational Drug Use (Parker et al., 1998). Preceding articles have reported more recent findings from the study, but the conceptual framework has remained largely unchanged since then (Parker et al., 2002; Williams & Parker, 2001). In this more comprehensive statement of the thesis, six dimensions of Normalisation were identified: drug availability or offers; drug trying or lifetime prevalence; current usage; intended future use; being '*drug wise*' regardless of individual experiences with drugs; and evidence of a cultural accommodation in a wider society.

Becker's (1963) work on the labelling theory can be shown in this context of recreational drug use through Normalisation. The labelling theory highlights the social minority standing out from the social majority by deviating from social norms. As this new introduction of

Normalisation of Drug Use Amongst Young People of Ireland

Normalisation for many was introduced by peers, drug users were now coming from all social backgrounds and were now likely to be female, as well as male. Social structure and human agency has been developed by Messerschmidt, 1993; Messerschmidt, 1995; Messerschmidt, 1997. By focusing on specific criminal or '*deviant*' practices and their social settings, such as street gangs and other forms of violence, Messerschmidt examines how social structures and circumstances – such as gender, ethnicity and poverty – constrain and channel behaviour. They were now no longer to be labelled as '*delinquent's street corner*' or '*no hopers*' (Parker, Aldridge & Measham, 1988:2).

Mainstream recreational drug use emerged globally in 1990 as it moved away from the minority groups to mainstream groups (Seddon, 2006). This increasingly recreational drug taking became popular due to the emergence of this new night time club scene economically propelled by our post-industrial society. As the increase in the interest in drugs grew, research was conducted that showed considerable changes in the behavioural attitudes of young recreational users (Shiner, 1998). Therefore this recreational use is now a familiar occurrence that should be regarded as "*normal*" instead of an action taken by minority subcultures (Manning, 2007). Sub-cultural theorists, would argue that human behaviour is accorded meaningfulness, and the differences displayed through behaviour reflect on the different problems and solutions, to these problems which have been developed over time by each individual subculture (Young 2010b, p.2). Theorists thought to understand crime as "*a product of the imbalance between societies culturally ascribed goals and its opportunity to achieve them*" (Bilton et al 2002, p.386) The acceptance of recreational drug use occurs when social groups act in linked situations (Becker, 1963; Measham and Shiner, 2009: 504). Measham and Newburn (1999) pinioned that Parker's

(1998) Normalisation theory was inaccurate due to the overlooking of structural influence focusing on a rational action model of recreational drug use. Nowhere is this more evident than in relation to claims that recent developments represent a radical break from the past. Such claims were challenged by Shiner and Newburn (1999, p. 149) on the grounds that recent increases in drug use form part of a much longer historical process, '*one of evolution over an extended period rather than of a sharp, fundamental structural shift'.* In exploring issues of continuity and change, we concentrate on two related matters: first, the role that early developments in the sociology of drug use have played in the Normalisation debate; and second, the way that structure and agency should be conceptualised in relation to contemporary drug use. It could also be argued that illicit drug use only appears to have become normalised due to a moral panic, a term that is commonly used to describe media stimulated over-reaction to subcultures, such as youth groups and issues within society. Cohen (1972) coined the term *'moral panic'* in the 1960s, he illustrated that moral panics tend to focus on topics concerning the actions of young people. Other sociologist such as Goode and Ben-Yehuda (1994) suggest that moral panics occur when a proportion of society feel that the folk devils (suggested by the media) have become a threat to society and social order. For example, when the rave scene occurred, there was a new folk devil associated with the acid house dance culture and ecstasy that became normalised among the youth culture.

The '*ultimate entertainment experience',* a party drug known as ecstasy has always been known to associate itself with the youth culture (Collins & Godfrey, 1997:90). The love, fun, party drug is hugely associated with "*rave culture*" to this day (Shapiro, 1999:17-35). With the economic decline that occurred in Ireland during the 1980's, individuals were searching for a

sense of belonging and community (Reid, 1980). These factors, along with the surge of "*Rave Culture"* and ecstasy in the UK lead to the widespread use of ecstasy amongst the youth of Ireland (Shapiro, 1999). While Ireland being a small country with a short history of serious drug problems, it is now one of the most globalised and economically successful countries in the world and a notable exemplar of the many problems that afflict wealthy developed nations, including drug use (Kearney, 2006). The government's position at this point was that drug abusers were victims of their own choices, rather than their socio-economic circumstances (Butler, 1991). With the vast expanding culture exploding, dealers in the trade sought more business with organised raves in abandoned ware houses playing aggressive music under the influence of drugs (Redhead, 1993). This created a moral panic for the government as the media had huge speculation of how the government was handling the *'alarming drug behaviour of young people'* (Coffield & Godrey, 1994:4). This was not the only drug mostly used in young people during this era heroin also became well known with the young people. The *1983 Bradshaw Report* found that in North central Dublin, (10%) of 15- to 24-year-olds had used heroin. In April 1983, the government created a Special Governmental Task Force on Drug Abuse in Ireland. As this section has highlighted, the drug culture of 1980s-1990s views young people moving rapidly from subcultures into mainstream youth culture. This shows a significant aspect of Normalisation. One who is detached from their society's values than are most other members of society. The government has increasingly become more punitive to fight recreational drug use in today's modern society (Government strategy to prevent drug misuse, 1991). In 2016, we saw the use of cannabis in medicine becoming decriminalised in Ireland. With more politicians becoming in favour of backing the decriminalisation of possession of small amounts of drugs following research and public submissions, will this be decriminalised in the future?

Normalisation of Drug Use Amongst Young People of Ireland

Will we follow Portugal's decimalisation of drugs in the foreseen future? Or will the legalisation of this '*gateway*' drug cause too many problems in the future. A recent survey Published by cross-border government agency NACDA, (2017) showed the increase in drugs use in Ireland increasing. The Minister for Communities and the National Drugs Strategy, Catherine Byrne said that '*the figures strengthened the evidence used to form the new National Drugs Strategy, which she hopes to bring to government by the end of March 2017'*.

A criminologist in the Alcohol and Drugs Research Unit of the Health Research Board in Ireland, Johnny Connelly (2011) has researched and written on community policing, drugs and crime and alternatives to imprisonment. Coming from a criminal perspective talking about what is the drug market in Ireland. The dark figure in crime statistics today according to Connelly is Law enforcements in Ireland exacerbating problems that increases conflict with complexity approach of surveys which results in an absence of stigma towards drugs. Questions raised during his 2011 National Drug Conference is in the 1997 Garda Síochána study, a shocking statistic showed that people were introduced to drugs by family members as well as friends. The enforcement of drug laws increased in 1996 after the death of Veronica Gearin and with this the consequences of drug use increased especially with the '*simple possession*' of marijuana. It is obvious drug and criminal use is caused by other factors due to social context, poverty or early school leaving etc. Drug strategy in Ireland is not going to reduce the drug crime problem. It is a much more complex problem involving education, health and prevention. Research shows a clear connection that people start offending before using drugs (Ramsay et al. (2001). This shows the drug is not the cause of the original offence. The rate of offending increased with dependency but decreases with proper resource treatment.

Parker et al. (2002) acknowledged that drug use has gained positively with the youth culture through a result of social change mixing with the journey into adulthood (Measham, 2000). In Parker et al's work, he suggests changes in the economy which has a huge increase in people attending universities. With this, the lack of responsibilities at this time triggered their own independence. The decision of using drugs is based on the concept of '*situated choice'*, i.e. it is not determined by social setting nor the persons choice, but by the interaction of both. Therefore, the increase rates of recreational drug use being taken reflects on the concept of a "*break*" from the pressure of growing up which is increasingly becoming normal giving them time to engage in deviant acts. This point in a student's life can be a divergent point of growing out of drug use or a drug- using career. Even the minority of students who haven't taken drugs, still shows a clear extent that drug use is accepted and normalised within society. (Measham et al, 2001). Therefore, Normalisation was reinforced as it created an aim to correct our stigmatised perception of society towards sensible drug use in young people.

Parker and colleagues (1998) gathered information from research and began in 1991 from the North West Longitudinal study (Measham et al, 1994). The study examined 776 ordinary young people ages 14-15 which assessed their developments of behaviours and attitudes in relation to drugs and drug use. Through an anonymous survey, Parker, Measham and Aldridge were able to provide some insightful conclusions regarding why recreational drug use was moving away from subcultures and into the centre of the majority of the youth. Parker et al's (2002) research found a significant increase from those offered an illicit drug from (60%) to (91%). With this, drugs were becoming widely available at schools, colleges, clubs and pubs.

The study also showed between five to six in ten teens trying illicit drugs, (31%) of participants trying drugs in the last month, and (20%) of participants in the last year (ISDD, 1994). Parkers study found that virtually the entire participants believed that recreational drug use was becoming widely accepted and culturally accommodated resulting in young people growing up in late modernity. Parker and colleagues (1998) believed that drug use in young people was the result of an escape of the stress and strains of everyday life of their unforeseen futures during their "*break*" before adulthood. In conclusion to these findings Parker and colleagues (1998:1045-1050) identified five dimensions that measured a scale of limits of drug Normalisation. These include:

'The level of recent and regular drug use, drug trying rates, the access and availability of drugs, level of social accommodation and, the level of cultural accommodation'.

Despite Normalisation becoming a popular topic, it has faced heavy criticism which has believed to be the Normalisation debate. South (1999:7) argues that '*whether or not as an individual we actually use drugs, we now live in a cultural, media and consumption environment saturated with references to the images of drug, as well as explicit and implicit connections between drugs and various other consumption items.*' The Normalisation theory helps many prohibition societies who believe hard drug addicts do more harm than good demonstrates people who take drugs are not generally stigmatised by society even though these substances are illegal.

It is clear after parkers experiment many researchers examined various aspects of the Normalisation concept. Since the Normalisation theory was created, a '*Normalisation debate*' formed with the aim of assessing the general attitude of the population of students towards recreational drug use. Many researchers deployed it, facing heavy criticism (Manning, 2007).

Normalisation of Drug Use Amongst Young People of Ireland

The finding from the continuous research in the Normalisation debate shows results that are consistent towards the debate within society that started in the1990s. Researches Loughery and McCormick (2000) concluded from their research that the youth of today report the wide availability of drugs, taking drugs, seeing drugs, all in their *'normal'* social environment. However, Aldridge (1999:1), opposes to this suggesting that Normalisation does not exist without criticism from other researchers who disagree with no explanation of drug use amongst young people. Shiner and Newburn (1997) both criticise the Normalisation thesis as they consider the results doesn't imply the minorities informing Parkers survey of soft drug use is large enough for the term *'Normalisation'* to be used. They believe the majority of young people abstain from using drugs regularly but instead in a social environment. Further researchers also criticise the Normalisation theory on drugs and the methods of the concept. Studies adopt qualitative research methods that assess statistical results on variety of components in their view of Normalisation debate (Henderson, 1999 cited in South, 1999). Shildrick (2002) also criticises the Normalisation theory stating that it's an *"over simplified"* explanation of young people's drug use containing theoretical weaknesses. Shildrick (2002:47) states that the theory *'does not allow for some groups of young people'*. In conclusion, drug use amongst the youthful population is not normal, including methods implemented to generate this conclusion.

Consequently, they believed that *'failed to pay sufficient attention to the normative context in which youthful drug use occurs'* (Shiner & Nuburn, 1999:155). In their research they found that 16-19 year olds, in fact had a negative attitude towards drugs. With this they in fact saw that (54%) of all participants had never used or taken drugs before. Additionally, their research was carried out on school students. The research questions validity as answers given

could be socially desirable and may not represent the truth. With this, Shiner and Newbury concluded the research as Normalisation to be a minor activity.

Despite most of the research surrounding the Normalisation of drugs looks at varying ages of teens to young adults, this research analyses young adults attending universities roughly ranging from ages 18-25. Previous research focused on university students was Parker as he used university students as they '*provided one of the few areas for the easy capture of young adults*' (Parker et al, 2002:945). Webb (1996) and Makhoul et al (1998) both conveyed research specialising in drug use amongst students. They found that (20-25%) of participants were regular users of ecstasy and marijuana. From their research they found students who take drugs regularly choose to do so for their enjoyment and also, they didn't see themselves any different from the normal population of students who choose not to take drugs (Makhoul, 1998). Measham et al (2001) also found the link between club culture and student drug taking. Research on drug use amongst universities suggest up to (60%) of students have an involvement with drugs, doubling over 15 years (Parker et al, 2002). For one who has tried '*soft*' drugs like cannabis it is not very likely to be addicted but for one who has tried 'hard' drugs has very high risks of psychopharmacological addiction, therefore trends are differing for both drugs (Bartilow and Eom, 2009:100).

Methodology

This dissertation explores both primary and secondary research data methods. Exploring both these research methods will be met in order to accomplish the research objectives. One data method was used as secondary data while the other was primary data collected by the research team. Therefore, this chapter will outline the primary and secondary research methods in a methodological approach. It will explore the advantages and disadvantages of ethical consideration as well as adding knowledge to current research regarding the Normalisation theory. The reinvestigation into this research of Normalisation in a contemporary setting shows the difference in what has changed since Parkers Normalisation theory. Therefore, in order to achieve the aims for this dissertation, a comparison and analysis of the primary data collected, to, secondary data collected by Parker and colleagues. Qualitative research is subjective, it is personalistic and contributes towards future studies (Silverman, 2000). The most important methodological differences between qualitative and quantitative are; aiming for different explanations and understanding which could be personal or interpersonal from the researcher. Qualitative research aims at researchers involved in major social policies. It has also moved social research away from an emphasis on cause and effect explanation but, towards personal interpretation (Silverman, 2000).

The primary data was collected using an online self- completion anonymous survey sent to all faculties in University College Cork. There was no discrimination in choosing certain faculties. Out of the faculties, 862 students replied to the survey which utilized a quantitative approach through the use of nine questions. Conducting the primary research is likely to

overcome problems faced in secondary data, improve accuracy as well as authenticity (Bryman, 2004). Therefore, a considerable amount of time was taken to render and add to the information to make it appropriate for new aims being tested (Allan & Skinner, 1991). Given the nature of this research method, the aim focusing on illicit drug use, if this online questionnaire was not anonymous, the participants may give social desired responses to avoid criticism. Thus, the best option for the primary data was a non-interactive self – completion questionnaire. This research also provides a '*personal and intimate encounter in which open, direct, verbal questions are used to elicit detailed narratives'* (DiCicco Bloom & Crabtree:317).

Secondary data allowed access to information already available on the topic area. The secondary data used in this dissertation was a combination of journal articles and key texts in relation to the topic and the researchers (Parker et al. 2002, Measham, 2001, Shiner, 1998). All of these texts are critical in this dissertation as they offer an explanation for past research with relevant arguments. Existing research allows for the examination of previous research, which allows for the development of new aims for the project. The qualitative research of the questionnaire was completed through the website www.surveymonkey.ie. The self- completion questionnaire took an average of 5 minutes to complete. The questionnaire was developed as a direct web base and was the most efficient way to carry out the questionnaire.

Statistical and theoretical analysis was used to interpret the results. Graphs were generated using Microsoft Office Excel. Different trends and distributions were observed from the graphs and conclusions drawn from this. Descriptive statistics such as percentages were calculated using Microsoft Excel also.

Research design was constructed around the aims and objectives for the purpose of Normalisation through this dissertation. Keeping the structure of the survey to a minimum enhances the opportunity which reveals the perspectives of the participants more clearly (Foster, 1995).

This type of research focuses on the objective knowledge and variables that can be answered. The empirical -analytic group deducts reasoning that can be used in existing theory today, as a formation of building hypotheses that are needed to be tested. The position that adopted the research is an important imitation of the natural sciences combined with an epistemological position known as positivism as it studies the social reality and beyond. It outlines the precise manner and is extremely difficult to pin down. The purpose of the positivism theory is to generate a hypotheses that can be tested allowing explanations. In this case an online questionnaire to test the hypotheses. The distinction between theory and research is testing previous theories, in this case the secondary research Parker et al. (1995). It is possible to collect observations with the primary research that won't affect pre-existing theories. All hypotheses to date are partly tested, largely untested, or have not been adequately explored (Farrell et al, 2010). By testing the hypotheses, Hypothetico- Deductive Method was used. This covers the law model of explanation that describes human behaviour when the inquirer discovers the relevant generalizations covering the case of explanation. Forming the hypotheses, deducting implications and test those hypotheses against the experience of participant's interaction with recreational drugs being normalised must be used. The ideal method involves the theory of definitions; Normalisation theory, assumptions; most young people use or will try illicit drugs and

hypotheses about human behaviour; the results of the primary research will explain the theory of behaviour in the next chapter, Data analysis. If the theory is in consisted with the facts, no future work is needed (Hollis, 1994).

With ethics being defining as ideas of being '*good*' or '*bad*' as they apply to human affairs. There are absolute and fundamental ethical standard means that there is no clear consensus on a complete set of ethical rules to be followed when conducting research involving human subjects but rather guide-lines protecting individual's autonomy and freedom (Oxford Dictionary of Sociology, 2009). Before carrying out research, the ethical guidelines of Sociological Associations of Ireland were obtained. Participants taking the survey were given the option to quit the survey if they felt anyway uncomfortable. As the questionnaire was completed anonymously, the names or personal details of the participants were not asked, so they could remain anonymous. Survey Monkey masked student's identity and IP addresses through its SSL encryption feature (Survey Monkey, 2013). This was a voluntary questionnaire ensuring all answers were honest. The participants were all informed that this online questionnaire was part of this dissertation, therefore giving full consent to take part providing data to this undergrad dissertation. All respondents were fully aware of the nature of the study and were given a contact email address if they had any queries or concerns about the survey. All information was accurate in the aim of the research aims of the Sociological Association of Ireland.

Quantitative analysis provides a basis for generalization following adequate statistical procedures ensuring there representativeness. The main aim in qualitative research is exploring diversity and to test the hypotheses. Diversity can be accurately described on the basic of information obtained even from one single participant using a non-probability sampling method.

Participants were selected in a non-probability sample. Consideration was made in order to discover what kind of access was available to the student faculties for the purpose of the study. The least time consuming approach was to generate an automatic email sent to all students throughout the university. This sampling method generated 862 participants. With this number of students, the diversity could provide large trends on the views of recreational drug use being normalised amongst young people in the contemporized society of Ireland. This sample would also give every student at university an equal chance of being included reducing sampling error (Bryman, 2004). One main disadvantage of this self-completion questionnaire was, as it was anonymous, there was a *'lack of knowledge'* of who is completing the survey and a '*lack of control'* over the environment (Russell and Purcell, 2009:233). Despite the survey being anonymous, this had to be in place for secure confidentiality. It eradicated the problem of disclosing information on personal drug use. Surveymonkey.ie also had the setting that a participant could only respond once in the survey. Although there was clear disadvantages, the online self-questionnaire was the best way to conduct the research as it gave access to a diverse sample of participants anonymously without any negative effects directly to the participants.

Alternative methods for primary research were also considered in this Dara Analysis. Interviewing students were contemplated as they would provide in depth information on complex issues, beliefs, attitudes, facts and expectations on certain issues (Cargan, 2007). However, it was felt that this method would be time consuming and '*interviewing is less convenient than other methods, such as questionnaires'* (Sarantakos, 2005:186). In researching an area such as illicit drugs, participants may have also been reluctant to tell in an interview situation. The online questionnaire provided no time frame so the participant could complete it in their own time

(Gray, 2004). Overall triangulation *'the use of different types of data to uncover, explore and report'* was used throughout primary and secondary sources (Denzin, 1970 cited in Jupp, 1989:34). Secondary and primary both had beneficial constantly utalising the advantages in this research project besides having their limitations and advantages. The online questionnaire gathered for the Primary research as it provided the research aims and objectives I was hoping for. Online self - questionnaire provided to be quick, feasible and beneficial to the research area.

Data Analysis

The questionnaire was carefully conducted based on the research aims and objectives in order to collect as much knowledge on recreational drug use amongst young people. Conducted carefully thought out the questions and made sure they were not long winded to keep the participant interested. This chapter analyses the respondents of 862 participants, comprised of 409 females and 453 males who have all conducted and completed this online questionnaire. To explore the main research aim, this study looked to examine whether the situation had changed from Parker et al.'s study (1998). This was conducted through young people which assessed their developments of behaviours and attitudes in relation to drugs and drug use. It is important to emphasise again that all participants knew before agreeing to the survey that it was anonymous. This chapter will show relevant results from the primary research that was conducted. Seven questions will be discussed as the first question only distinguished male to female.

On average, how often do you take recreational drugs?		
Answer Options	**Response Percent**	**Response Count**
5 or more times a week	20.77%	179
Once or twice a week	23.09%	199
Once a month	21.69%	187
Rarely	17.17%	148
Never tried	17.28%	149
	answered question	862
	skipped question	0

The results for the "*On average, how often do you take recreational drugs?*"question was coherent with Parker et al's study. As it became apparent in the 1990's that drug trying rates generally increased, Parker's study found that (64.3%) of the participants had tried at least one illicit drug. As Parker et al (2002 p. 945-946) stats suggest that among ' *the majority of university students, 60%, has some drug experience, which has doubled in the last 15 years'*. This reflects on the figures of drug trying rates with (82.72%) of participants in this study trying at least one illicit drug in their lifetime.

These results indicate Normalisation of DTR. It demonstrates that over (65.55%) of students take drugs on a monthly basis, although it is uncertain what drugs are referred to. Results from Q 3 would suggest that cannibas and party drugs are the most popular drugs of choice. The results from this survey, in comparison to the study of Parker et al. (2002), imply a further gradual increase in DTR among the youth in the UK and Ireland. Data from European Schools Survey Project on Alcohol and other Drugs (ESPAD, 2016) has indicated that the purity

or potency of most illicit substances is increasing and that the market for substances is becoming more varied and accessible. Therefore, it predicts that the results of drug use will decline. The figures for DTR collected from this survey are reinforced by the National Student Drug Survey (2015), which found that (82%) of students have tried illegal drugs.This illustrates that it is common for some students to try illegal drugs at least once in their lifetime; however, recurring drug use is lower for illegal drugs compared to alcohol.

Q3 If you answered "never tried" to the question above, what are your reasons for never taking drugs?
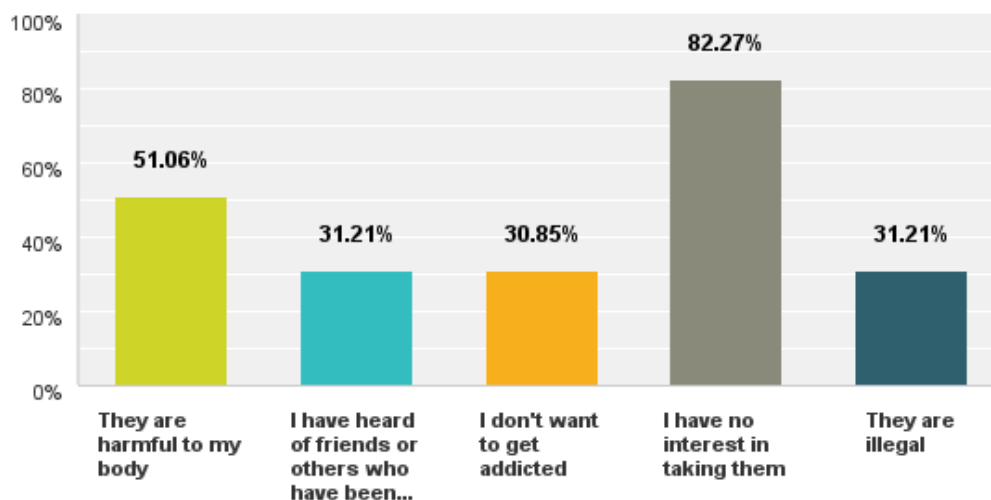
These findings in question three above shows us that the (51.06%) of students are more concerned about their body appearance and health than, drugs being illegal by the law. These

findings are morally challenging for our young generation as Body Dysmorphia Disorder (BDD) is a mental disorder characterized by an obsessive preoccupation that some aspect of one's appearance is flawed and will go to exceptional measures to fix it (Bjornson, 2010).

Furthermore, (31.21%) of participants cited that their main reason for never trying drugs was because they have heard of friends or others who have been hurt by drugs. This demonstrates that more people are now realising that illicit drugs are not (100%) pure and other forms of substances such as rat poison, paracetamol and caffeine are used to "bulk up" drugs. Also, one can mix two or more substances together, known as Poly Drug Use. This could be a mixture of psychoactive drugs in combination to achieve a particular effect or illicit drugs with alcohol. Both having a serious dangerous effect (SAMHSA, 1998). Drug testing kits are now widely available but why isn't Student Unions (SU) across the country providing them for students? The funding from the government or College SU's simply isn't there. The new National Drugs Strategy states '*the provision of these testing kits does not necessarily mean illegal activity is being condoned, it is more of an effort to reduce fatalities from toxic substances while a number of legal issues will also have to be resolved.*' Recreational drug users want to know how to minimize risks as much as possible and non-recreational drug users want to know what they can do to keep their friends safe. While critics say the move will risk Normalising drug taking and say no drugs are truly safe (Hulm, 2017).

The (30.85%) who '*don't want to get addicted to drugs,* shows that they have an interest in taking them, mostly taken at a reduced rate. Those who take drugs on a regular basis will also be less inclined to take care of themselves when all that matters is getting the next high. The

highest percentage of (82.27%) shows us that with the people who are not taking drugs, there is still those who act morally right to not take illegal drugs. More importantly, they do not listen to others who take them or give into peer pressure .With a small percentage of people who are not curious about drugs believe they are acting morally correct with many reasons against drug use. While the majority of early adolescence teenagers are anti – drugs, Parker et al. (2002:948) describes the transition from abstainers to acceptors *"while abstentious early teenagers often display strong anti-drugs attitudes, these attitudes 'mellow' with age and life experience amongst the majority"*.

Q4 **If any, what recreational drugs do you like to use?**
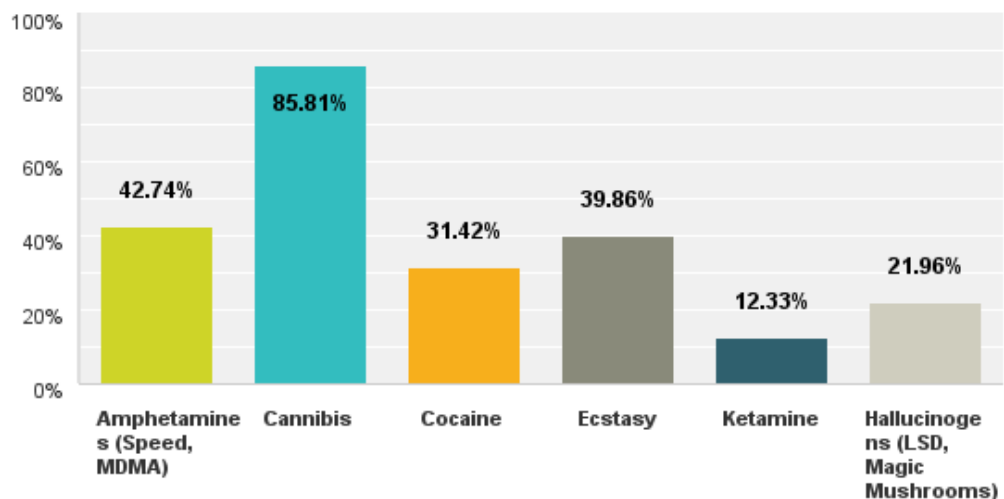
Question Four shows by a huge margin that Cannabis (85.81%) was the most commonly used drug followed by Amphetamines (42.74%), Ecstasy (39.86%) The question has been raised many times, is Cannabis the gateway drug? National Student Drug Survey (2015) established Cannabis as the most common illicit drug tried by students. Conjointly, Parker (2002) found that (69.9%) of respondents have tried Cannabis and showed a further increase in Cannabis becoming normalised in recent years in Ireland as well as the first drug to become normalised (National Advisory Committee on Drugs, 2014). Surprisingly, Amphetamines was ranked second. This was contradictory to the studies of European Schools Survey Project on Alcohol and other Drugs (ESPAD) (2015) of (23%) which placed Cocaine or Ecstasy as more popular drug. Ecstasy and Cocaine increased from Parkers et al study (2002) of (28.5%) and (24.6%) to (39.86%) and (31.42%). It could be said that Recession era is no longer at its peak, Class A drugs are coming back into fashion as a Recreational use. Both party drugs/ pills being used associated with students on the party scene in pubs and nightclubs. Ketamine at (12.33%) is becoming the new and upcoming drug that is newly established taking it recreationally. The 'club drug' Ketamine is also being taken in the fight against depression. Ketamine is approved by the Food and Drug Administration (1995) as an aesthetic and for treating certain types of pain. In just the right doses, however, it can trigger hallucinatory and out-of-body experiences, which also makes it a popular club drug. People are beginning to experiment. Experiment curiosity is the driver of using drugs. Many factors also affect the rates of buying illicit drugs like Money/ Income, what they can get access to etc. Although, this survey cannot be represented for the entire population of university students, Shiner and Newburn (1997) stats that *"cannabis is, by some way, the most widely and frequently used drug by young people and, although the use of dance drugs has increased significantly in recent years, it still appears to be limited to a relatively small minority*

of young people". Therefore, the criticism of the extent of Recreational Drug Use among young people oversimplifies how drug use is perceived under their perceptions.

Q5 Roughly, what percentage of your friends have tried drugs?
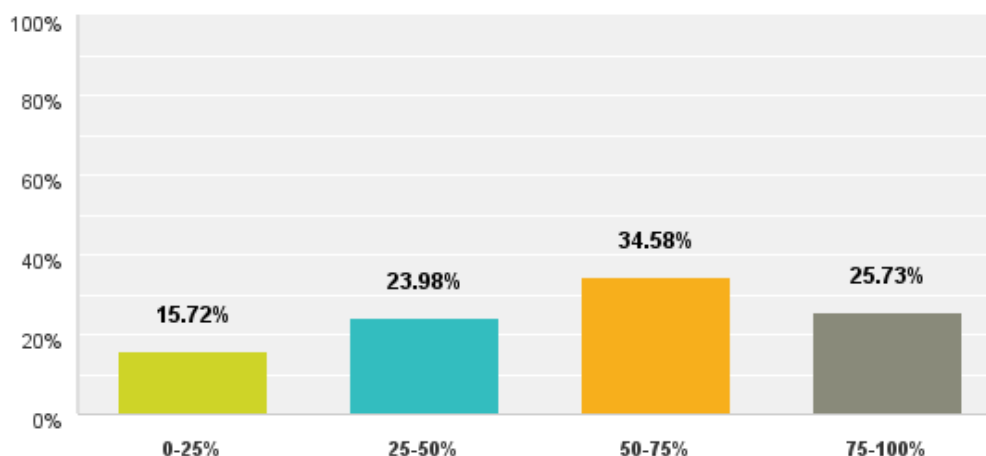
Question 5 relating to the '*percentage of friends trying drugs'* (displayed above), shows that (24.73%) of (75-100%) of their friends who have tried drugs in their lifetime. The higest category (34.58%) of (50-75%) of friends who have tried drugs expresses how normalised DTR's across the student population is. Parker et al's results (2002) indications that since 1991 – 2000, young people had tried atleast one drug from (36.3%) to (75.8%). Consequently, these figures suggest that *" the majority of university students, of 60% has some drug experience*". These figures above were similar to Price's (2011) report of (60 – 90%) have tried drugs. Webb et al (1996:926) found in his research that "*drugs were mainly taken for pleasure and were perceived as a normal part of everyday life for many students*". These results are conclusive with

Makhoul's et al (1998) findings that *"those who choose to take drugs did so because of enjoyment and were no different to normal students who didn't"*.

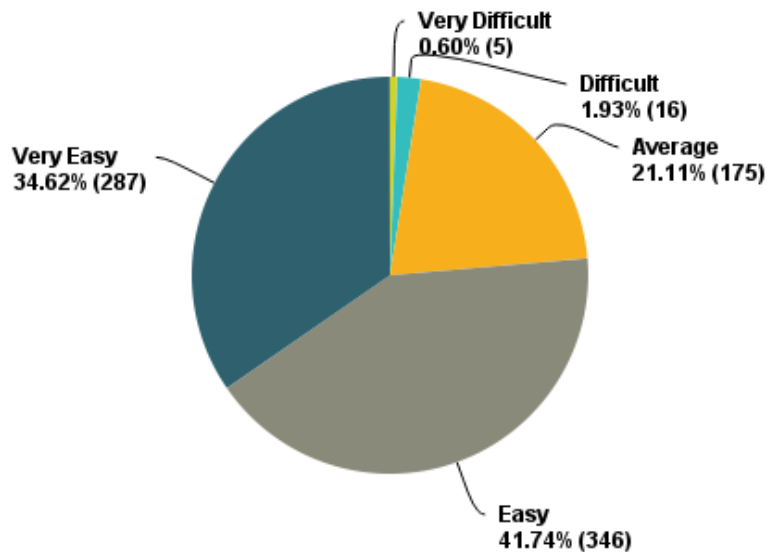| Q6 - Do you feel intimidated by friends or others when they are using party drugs? (Cocaine, Ecstasy)		
Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
Always	4.6%	39
Often	6.6%	56
Sometimes	25.1%	214
Rarely	29.0%	248
Never	34.8%	297
answered question		854
skipped question		8

The figure (34.8%) of respondents feel they are '*never intimidated with friends using party drugs'* is an alarming figure. With many side effects and not knowing what the drug is made up of, there can be horrifying results even resulting in death. This figure proves that the respondents prove the Normalisation theory. The (65.2%) does feel intimidated by others, resulting in a labelling effect. While Becker helps us to understand why we label individuals as deviant, Goffman (1968) focuses on the subjective interpretations of the criminal actor and how they cope with the consequences of labelling; stigmatisation. Goffman (1968, pp.15-16) highlights how members of society apply stereotypes to stigmatised groups of individuals. This tends to facilitate a sense of separation between *"us"* and *them,"* implying that the labelled group (them) are inferior to law abiding citizens (us). Very few offenders labelled as drug dealers manage to reintegrate back into conventional society because the label is strongly stigmatised

and the offender may not have any other option but to become part of the sub-culture of drug crime (Becker 1966; Macionis and Plummer 2005, p.446). Negative reaction from the sense of community is derived from the negative meanings. We attach to the particular stigma, which may result in the drug dealer being barred from popular and respectable bars, nightclubs etc. The more harm drug dealers cause in society the bigger the public disapproval and stigmatisation of the individual (Goffman 1963).

Q7 On a scale of 1-5, how easy is it buy cannabis?

Answered: 829   Skipped: 33

Very Difficult
0.60% (5)

Difficult
1.93% (16)

Average
21.11% (175)

Very Easy
34.62% (287)

Easy
41.74% (346)

Without access to illicit drugs, the young population cannot become involved in illicit drugs. Cannabis over the last few decades has increasingly become widely acceptable and shown attitudes towards its use becomingly accommodated into the lives of many participants in this
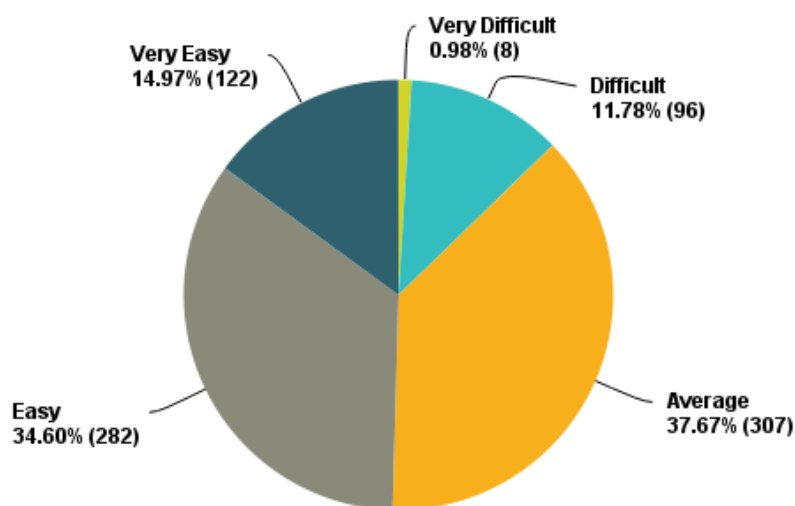
survey. It has been found by many researchers and indeed in this dissertation, that it has been the first drug to be normalised. Parker (2002:961) suggests it as *"with the recreational use of Cannabis that the Normalisation criteria has been adequately satisfied"*. With (76.36%) of respondents indicating it would be *'easy'*/ *'very easy'* reflects Parker's findings where (86.3%) of respondents indicated it would be easy. The social conditions surrounding cannabis have changed considerably since the time Outsiders was first published. So striking have these been changes that cannabis was said to be in the position of having already met the 'Normalisation' criteria of drug availability, DTR, regular use and cultural accommodation in the 1990s, while there was little prospect of other drugs being viewed similarly (Parker et al., 2002). Given such marked changes, we might consider Outsiders to offer little more than an historical reminder of how things used to be. For all that has changed, however, Hallstone's (2002) recent update of Becker's theory highlights some *'significant areas of continuity'*. Although historical changes in the position of cannabis have created some discrepancies, Becker's theory of using cannabis for pleasure is considered to have *'survived the test of time remarkably well'* (Hallstone, 2002, p. 840). While the dominating drug, remains as being the most predominately used drug. In a sociological perspective, Change is happening in our society. We see change in Gay marriage, Repeal the 8th, Social movements are talked about more and Medical cannabis has been passed by Irish law. The very controversial topic in the media currently is Medical Cannabis. Vera Twomey met with Health Minister Simon Harris to discuss access to medicinal cannabis for her daughter Ava, who suffers from a severe form of epilepsy called Dravet syndrome. The condition can cause up to 20 seizures a day, and her mother has been campaigning for a change in the law to allow her daughter access Medicinal Cannabis. As the law for Medical Cannabis was passed in December 2016, Simon Harris states "until such time as the necessary legislative amendments

has been made to facilitate the implementation of the Cannabis Access Programme, it remains open to the Minister to consider granting a license to an Irish registered doctor for access to medicinal cannabis for named patients" (HPRA Report, 2017).

Q8 On a scale of 1-5, how easy is it to buy 'party drugs'?

Answered: 815   Skipped: 47

- Very Difficult 0.98% (8)
- Difficult 11.78% (96)
- Average 37.67% (307)
- Easy 34.60% (282)
- Very Easy 14.97% (122)

It does suggest that the popularity of 'party drugs' has increased as it is shown by participants (39.86%) in question 4. This is a prime reason why drug education should be kept in mind. Both these dance drugs; Ecstasy and Cocaine have been increasingly been popular and available, associated with bars and night clubs. While the '*very easy*' and '*easy*' made up of (49.57%), this could be conclusive of the student sample who commonly partake in clubbing. Therefore, this would be a higher comparison to the overall population. In the 1990's, there was an enormous growth in access and availability of illicit drugs with almost all research studies documenting drug offers by all respondents (Goddard and Higgins, 1999). The norm to get drugs is through a friend or an acquaintance. An essential part of drug Normalisation is friends are

evidently the main method to acquiring drugs, as opposed to being dealt drugs from an unknown dealer. '*Sorting*' drugs acts as a social device such as a phone, '*to allow young people obtaining drugs without venturing into the dodgy world of dealers*' (Parker, Williams and Aldridge, 2002: 944). This enables illicit drugs to shift from the traditional association with deviancy. *"The routinization of breaching the law in respect of Recreation Drug Use is a robust measure of Normalisation"* (Parker et al, 2002:945). Peer clusters can transmit either prosocial or deviant norms, but the major source of deviant norms is usually peer clusters. Purchasing drugs from the dark net from the crypto currency and purchase on network of thousands of websites is impossible to sensor and access with a tor browser allows the use to mask the IP address (Barrlett, 2014) Competitive market which hasn't happened before where you can send feedback competing for the buyer's patronage. Overall, the access to '*dance drugs*' shows respondents are increasingly in more drug offer situations with an increase of access to stimulant dance drugs.

Conclusion

The aim of this dissertation was to examine the extent of Recreational drug use becoming normalised amongst young people. It involved a survey with the aim to assess the legitimacy of Parker et al's., (2002) Normalisation thesis. The primary data that was used, in the form of an online questionnaire explored in relation to drug availability, DTR, rates of regular use and drug of choice. The method that was used to send the online questionnaire to the student population had a snowball effect. These questions allowed to draw conclusions and determine the extent to of Normalisation. The Literature review served as Secondary research. This was used in relation with primary research. As indicated, this dissertation found a further increase that Recreational drug use '*is continuing to be gradually further accommodated into their lifestyles of young people within society*' (Parker et al., 2002:959) Ireland is a country that is heavily invested in criminal investigation. While other countries like Portugal are helping to tackle drug safety, Ireland is not (Ó Ríordáin, 2015). Overall the attitudes of students towards drug use in this research project has showing again, the extent to which Normalisation is present in this project.

The literature review defensively validated the research findings in this study and Parker's theory that sought Normalisation of Recreational drug use. The theory has been criticised by Shiner (1996) who discussed with Measham (2009) (a team member of the Normalisation theory) to find matching conclusions regarding the function of Normalisation

experiences drawing on *'new'* deviancy theories (Becker, 1963; Young 1971). In evaluating the perspectives ability to explain the current prevalence of drug crime in Ireland, it is necessary to focus on the strengths and weaknesses of each perspective. Firstly, the micro-sociological lens used by theorists within the labelling perspective succeeds in humanising the deviant. Becker (1966, p.33) reinforces this understanding of the consequences experienced by the offender who has been labelled a deviant and how society is very slow to give them another chance to redeem themselves, thus treating the offender as a social outcast. Therefore it can be concluded that it is necessary to use a contemporary theoretical perspective on recreational drug use and crime, which has a Marxist foundation, in order to properly address the political and economic implications of the crime situation in Ireland. In Conclusion to Normalisation, normalisation represents the negotiated accomplishment of distinct social groups operating in bounded situations. Recent increases in drug use have been facilitated by the growing economic significance of leisure fuelled by the changing political economy of post-industrial societies and marked by the growth of a massively expanding, consumption-oriented night-time economy. This widespread drug use has been encouraged by the emergence of increasingly protracted transitions into adulthood; and that many young people continue to '*grow out*' of drug use, albeit in ways that reflect the changing nature of adolescence and adulthood. We are also agreed on the importance of recognising the way that gender, ethnicity, age and socio-economic background continue to shape these transitions and of the need for further research in this area (Measham and Shiner, 2008).

Contributing to the Normalisation of recreational drugs, Cannabis remains widely accepted and accessible to the youth of the population. However, there has been a significant rise

in '*dance drugs*' and are becoming more easily available. DTR's among the student population in this dissertation are continuing to rise. Parker et al. (2002) noted that '*drugs such as these are becoming more accepted as they are socially energised with short term after effect that are less likely to affect university*'. While '*dance drugs*' are becoming increasingly focused, ketamine and hallucinogens are being forgotten about. Williams and Parker, (2001) suggest that DTR's suggests that it's coherent with recreational use for time out, taking risky journeys into adulthood. It was also found that the majority of respondents had a friend who had tried drugs.

Clearly criminal law is not deterring people using drugs, it is deterring safety use it is deterring treatment and is deterring people coming forward and telling friends and family and people who matter to them that one has a drug problem, or consume too much. They're afraid they can't talk about it to they're parents or friends what drugs they consume cause they're terrified it's a criminal sanction. It also comes to attention that if this survey was not anonymous, would there be same statistics? There is a difference in what is said between peers and friends in comparison to parents. If drug use is use all the time it could be argued that it should be treated primarily as a public health issue not a criminal justice issue. Spitzer (1980 cited in Macionis and Plummer 2005, p.452) allows us to contemplate how our drug laws serve to intensify the drug crime in Ireland. The focus of the criminal justice system is firmly on equality before the law, but according to Taylor et al. (1973, p.281);

> *while there may exist equality within our court systems it certainly does not exist in other sectors of industrialised society as evidenced lately by our tolerance of white collar crime within the banking institutions*'.

Drugs are a complex global issue and as a society as a whole, Ireland is becoming a more global community (Bowling & Sheptycki, 2012). Historically, Ireland as a society was associated with alcohol and nowadays it is becoming more associated with illicit drugs and how they are perceived (YAP, 1991). This is seen in such work as Stivers (1976) who uses sociological labelling theory to provide verification of a deviant Irish status, biologically, socially and culturally predisposed to alcohol. Is alcohol or drugs a more serious issue in contemporary Ireland today? In a cultural perspective, does Ireland possess the attribute of a sense of culture control? With this, global paradigm shifts can be identified through understanding relationships between culture and course of action (Pakes, 2010). In terms of the evolution of drugs taken in Ireland and the UK, these countries have gone from a very simplistic, monoculture of Alcohol, Tea, and Tobacco to a chemical chaos where there are now hundreds of chemical substances that can be used.

Addressing the overall question, '*Has recreational drugs become normalised amongst the young people of Ireland?*' it can be concluded that Normalisation of overall drug taking is present. However, it is not clear what drugs have exactly become normalised within society. Concluding the Normalisation theory, there is a great deal of stigma attached to illicit drugs. The results in this dissertation are in line with the majority of research concluding that Normalisation, of some drugs has occurred. This dissertation undoubtedly highlights the increase in Recreational drug use amongst the student population. It should not be forgotten that all substances included in this dissertation are currently illegal under Misuse of Drugs Act, 1977. This is one of the main factors that motivated the undertaking of such investigation. With the rise of drugs such as ecstasy and amphetamines, it places the Irish government in a difficult position to '*challenge the*

war on drugs which links drug use with crime, deviance, personal tragedy and utilises the discourse as a reason for not calling truce' (Manning, 2007:92). Therefore, primary data shows that young people today are continuing to use drugs recreationally, emphasising the need for the government to tackle the problem of *'non deviant'* drug users, something which is more than likely going to continue.

References:

Polydrug Use Amoung Treatment Admissions:" (1998). OAS Home: Alcohol, Tobacco & Drug Abuse and Mental Health Data from SAMHSA, Office of Applied Studies. (2006), Ireland is the 4th most globalised country after Singapore, Switzerland and the U.S.

Aldridge, J., Parker, H. and Measham, F. (1999) *Drug Trying and Drug Use across Adolescence.* DPAS Paper 1, London: Home Office.

Allan, G.A & Skinner, C (1991) *Handbook for research Students in the Social Sciences.* London: Falmer Press.

Bartilow, H. A. and Eom, K. (2009*) Bursting Drugs While Paying With Crime*: The Collateral Damage of U.S Drug Enforcement in Foreign Countries, Foreign Policy Analysis, vol. 5(2) pp. 93-116.

Bartlett, J., (2014). "*Dark net markets: the eBay of drug dealing*". Retrieved 3rd April 2017.

BBC (2011) *'Drug Abuse'* (Online. Accessed on 20th April, 2017). Available at: http://www.bbc.co.uk/health/emotional_health/mental_health/drugs_use.shtml

Becker, H. (1966) Outsiders: Studies in the Sociology of Deviance, 2nd ed.,

Becker, H. S. (1963) *Outsiders: Studies in the Sociology of Deviance,* London: Macmillan.

Becker, Howard S. (1963). *Outsiders: Studies in the Sociology of Deviance*. New York: Macmillan.

Bilton, T., Bonnet, K., Jones, P., Lawson, T., Skinner, D., Stanworth, M. and Bjornsson AS; Didie ER; Phillips KA (2010). "*Body dysmorphic disorder*". Dialogues Clin Neurosci.

Blackman, S. (2007) "*See Emily Play*": Youth Culture, Recreational Drug Use and Normalisation', in Simpson, M., Shildrick, D. and MacDonald, R. (ed.) Supply, Consumption and Control. Basigstoke: PALGRAVE MACMILLAN, pg. 39-59.

Bowling, B. & Sheptycki, J. (2013) *Global Policing*. Br J Criminol. A.T Kearney/Foreign Policy Globalisation Index

Bradshaw J, Dean G. Drug misuse in Ireland, 1982–1983: investigation in a north central Dublin area, and in Galway, Sligo, and Cork. The Medico-Social Research Board; 1983.

Bryman, A. (2004) *Social research methods,* 2nd Edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Butler, S,. (1991) *Drug Problems and Drug Policies in Ireland:* A Quarter of a Century Reviewed; Department of Social Studies, Trinity College Dublin.

Butler, S. (1991) *Drug Problems and drug politics in Ireland*: A quarter of a century reviewed. Administration 39(3): 210-233.

Cargan, L., (2007) *'Doing Social Research'*. Rowman & Littlefield, 2007 - Social Science.

Coffield, F. and Goften, L. (1994) *Drugs and Young People*. London: Institute for Public Policy Research.

Cohen, S. (1971) *Images of deviance*. Penguin, Harmondsworth.

Cohen, S. (1972) *Folk devil and moral panics:* Creation of mods and rockers.

Cole, R. W., (1991) *Educating Everybody's Children*: Diverse Teaching Strategies for Diverse Learners, Revised and Expanded 2nd Edition. ed., London: Pearson.

Collins, M. and Godfrey, J. (1997*) Altered State: The Story of Ecstasy Culture and Acid House.* London: Serpent's Tail.

Commonwealth Department of Human Services and Health (1994:7). Dublin: Penguin.

Connelly, J (2011) National Drug Conference. Available at:

http://www.drugs.ie/multimedia/video/national_drug_conference_2011_johnny_connolly

Corrigan, E. M., & Butler, S. (199JL). Irish alcoholic women in treatment: Early findings. International Journal of the Addictions, 26(3), 281-292.

Denzin N. (1997). Interpretive ethnography: Ethnographic practices for the 21st century. London: Sage.

DiCicco Bloom, D. and Crabtree, B. (2006) '*The Qualitative Research Interview'* Medical Education, Volume 40, Issue 4, pg. 314-321.

DrugScope (2014) Recreational Drug Use. Available at:

http://drugscope.org.uk/resources/drugsearch/drugsearchpages/recreationaluse

European Schools Survey Project on Alcohol and other Drugs (ESPAD) Report 2015

http://www.espad.org/report/situation/illicit-drug-use

Farrell, G., Tilley, N., Tseloni, A. & Mailley, J. (2010) '*Explaining and sustaining the crime drop: Clarifying the role of opportunity – related theories'*, Crime Prevention and Community Safety, 12: pp. 24 – 41.

Food and Drug Administration (FDA) (1995)

https://www.fda.gov/AnimalVeterinary/Products/ApprovedAnimalDrugProducts/FOIADrugSummaries/ucm118102.htm

Foster, J. (1995), '*Informed Social Control and Community Crime Prevention'*. British Journal of Criminology, 35: 563-83.

Garda seizure figures (2013) *Drug market figures are calculated using and the UNODC multiplier method for interception rates.*

Goffman, E. (1968) *Stigma: Notes on the Management of Spoiled Identity*, New

Grey, D. E., (2004) *'Doing Research in the Real World'* SAGE Publications, 25 May 2004 - Social Science.

Goode, E., and Ben-Yehuda, N, (1994) Moral Panics: The Social Construction of Deviance.

Hallstone, M. (2002) *Updating Howard Becker's theory of using marijuana for pleasure.* Contemporary Drug Problems, 29 (4) (2002), pp. 821–846.

Hanson MD, Chen E. *Socioeconomic status and health behaviours in adolescence*: A review of the literature. Journal of Behavioural Medicine. 2007; 30:263–285.

Health Products Regulatory Authority (HPRA) 2017 Report. Accessed on April 3rd 2017: http://health.gov.ie/wp-content/uploads/2017/02/HPRA-Report-FINAL.pdf

Hebdige, D. (2006) '*The Meaning of Mod*', in Hall, S. and Jefferson, T. (ed.) *Resistance through rituals: Youth Subcultures in Post-War Britain.* 2nd edition. Abingdon: Routledge, pg. 71-87.

Henderson, S (1999) '*Drugs and Culture: the Question of Gender'* in B. South (ed) Drugs: Cultures, Controls and Everyday Life. London: Sage Publications.

Henig, R. M., (2010). "*What Is It About 20☐Somethings*?" The New York Times.

Hollis, M., (1994) *The Philosophy of Social Science.* Cambridge, U.K: Cambridge University Press, 1994.

http://nacda.ie/images/stories/docs/publicationa/nacda-bulleti-2-prevalence-drugusegambling-rdatfhsct.pdf

Huckle T, You RQ, Casswell S. *Socio-economic status predicts drinking patterns but not alcohol-related consequences independently*. Addiction. 2010; 105:1192–1202.

Hulm, E. (2017) Dublin College University (DCU) student and chairperson of the university's '*Students for Sensible Drug Policy (SSDP)*', SeshSafe

ISDD (1994) *Drug Misuse in Britain 1994*. London: institute for the Study of Drug Dependence. Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Jupp V. (1989). Methods of criminological research. London: Unwin Hyman.

Kalunta- Cruption, A. (2006*) Drugs, Victims and Race: the Politics of Drug Control. Winchester: Waterside Press.*

Loughery, C., and McCormick, J. (2000) Drugs: the experience. *A study of drug use amoung teenagers and young adults*. Londonderry: Northlands.

Macionis, J. J. and Plummer, K. (2005) *Sociology: A Global Introduction,* 3rd.

Makhoul, M., Yates, F and Wolfson, S. (1998*) 'A Survey of Substance Use at a UK University: Prevalance of Use and Views of Students'*, Journal of Substance Misuse, 3: 119-124.

Manning, P. (ed) (2007) Drugs and popular culture: *Drugs, media and identity in contemporary society.* Abingdon: Routledge.

Manning, P. (ed.) (2007) *Drugs and Popular culture: Drugs, media and identity in contemporary society.* Willan Publishing: Devon.

Marwick, A. (1998) The sixties: Cultural revolution in Britain, France, Italy, and the United States. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

McCann, M.E., (1991) Ten Years on A History of the Ballymun Youth Action Project, a Community. Response to Drug and Alcohol Abuse (YAP, 1991).

McKenna, T. (1999) Food of the Gods: The Search of the Original Tree of Knowledge – *A Radica History of Plants, Drugs and Human Evolution, London*: Rider.

Measham F., & Shiner, M. (2009) *The legacy of 'Normalisation'*: the role of classical and contemporary criminological theory in understanding young people's drug use.

Measham, F. (2004) '*Drug and Alcohol Research: The Case for Cultural Criminology'*, in Ferrell, J., Hayward, K., Morrison, W. and Presdee, M (ed.) Cultural Criminology Unleased. London: Cavensdish Publishing, pg. 207-218.

Measham, F. and Shiner, M. (2008) *The Baby, the Bathwater & the Legacy of Normalisation:* Understanding young people's drug use. Presented at the International Society for the Study of Drug Policy, 2nd Annual Conference, Lisbon, April 2008.

Measham, F., Aldridge, J. and Parker, H. (2001) *Dancing on Drugs:* Risk Health and Headonism in the British Club Scene. London: Free Association Books.

Measham, F., Newcombe, R. and Parker, H. (1994) '*The Normalisation of Recreational Drug Use Amongst Young People in North West England'*, British Journal of Sociology 45(2): 287–312.

Messerschmidt, J. (1993) *Masculinities and crime*: Critique and reconceptualization of theory. Rowman and Littlefield, Lanham.

Messerschmidt, J. (1995) *From patriarchy to gender: Feminist theory, criminology and the challenge of diversity.* N. Rafter, F. Heidensohn (Eds.), International feminist perspectives in criminology: Engendering a discipline, Open University, Buckingham pp. 167–188

Messerschmidt, J. (1997) *Crime as structured action*: Gender, race, class, and crime in the making. Sage, London.

National Advisory Committee on Drugs (NACD) (2014) (Accessed on: 12th March 2017) http://www.nacda.ie/images/stories/docs/publicationa/IllicitDrugs_ExecSummary.pdf

National Co-ordinating Committee on Drug Abuse. (1991) Government strategy to prevent drug misuse. Dublin: Department of Health.

National Student Drug Survey (2015); Lynn Ruane, President of Trinity Students Union: (Accessed on: 12th March 2017):

http://www.drugsandalcohol.ie/24807/1/National%20Student%20Drug%20Survey%2020 15.pdf

New York: Mac Gibbon and Key Ltd.

Ó Ríordáin (2015). "*Aodhán Ó Ríordáin to be appointed Minister for Drugs*". The Irish Times. 22 April 2015.

Pakes, F. (2010) *Comparative Criminal Justice* 2nd Edition Devon: Willan Publishing

Pinto, C, M. (2010) The '*resounding success*' of Portuguese drug policy: the power of an attractive fallacy.

Parker, H., Aldridge, J. and Measham, F. (1998) *Illegal Leisure: The Normalization of Adolescent Recreational Drug Use*. London: Routledge.

Parker, H., Measham, F. and Aldridge, J (1995) *Drug Futures: Changing Patterns of Drug Use amongst English Youth. London*: Institute for the Study of Drug Dependence.

Parker, H., Williams, L. and Aldridge, J (2002) *'The Normalisation of 'Sensible' Recreational Drug Use: Further Evidence from the North West Longitudinal Study'*, Sociology 940-964.

Price, S. (2011) To What Extent has Recreational Drug Use Become normalised Amongst the Student Population at University? (Accessed on 20th January 2017): http://www.internetjournalofcriminology.com/PriceRecreationalDrugUseA mongsttheStudentPopulation

Rabbitte, P. (1996) Report of the Ministerial Task Force on Measures to Reduce the Demand for Drugs. Ministerial Task Force on Measures to Reduce the Demand for Drugs.

Ramsay, M. and Partridge, S. (1999) Drug Misuse Declared in 1998: Results from the British Crime Survey. HORS 197. London: Home Office.

Redhead, S. (1993) '*The Politics of Ecstasy'*, in Redhead, S. (ed.) Rave Off*: Politics and Deviance in Contemporary Youth Culture.* Aldershot: Ashgate Publishing Limited, pg. 1-6.

Reid (1980). Irish History 1851–1950, Austin Reid, Folens Press (1980), Economic War 1933–38, pp. 223–226.

Rucell, B. & Purcell, J. (2009) *Online Research Essentials: Implementing and Designing Research Studies:* San Francisco: Jossey- Bass.

Russell, B. and Purcell, J. (2009: 233) *Online Research Essentials: Designing and Implementing Research Studies*. New York. Wiley.

Sarantakos, S. (2005:182) Social Research, Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan
Scott, J. & Marshall, G. Oxford Dictionary of Sociology, 2009. Published by Oxford University.

Seddon, T., (2006*) Drugs, Crime and Social Exclusion:* Social Context and Social Theory in Drugs–Crime Research. Br J Criminol 46 (4): 680-703.

Sharpiro, H. (1999) '*Dances with Drugs: Pop Music, Drugs and Youth Culture'*, in South, N. (ed.) Drugs: Cultures, Controls and Everyday Life. London: Routledge, pg. 17-35.

Shildrick, T. (2002) *'Young People, Illicit Drug Use and the Question of Normalisation'*, Journal of Youth Studies, 5(1): 35-48.

Shiner, M. and Newburn, T. (1999) '*Taking Tea with Noel: The Place and Meaning'*. Drug USA in Everyday Life, in South, N. (ed), Drugs: *Cultures, Controls and Everyday Life*, London: Sage.

Shiner, M. J., (1998) *Drug Use and Social Change Secondary Analysis of the British Crime Survey and Youth Lifestyles Survey*. London School of Economics and Political Science.

Shiner, M., Newburn, T. (1996) *Young people, drugs and peer education*. Home Office, London.

Silverman, D. (2000). '*Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook'*.

Smith, A.K., Ayanian, J.Z., Covinsky, K.E., Landon, B.E., McCarthy, E.P., Wee, C.C., Steinman, M.A., (2011). Conducting high-value secondary dataset analysis: an introductory guide and resources. Journal of General Internal Medicine, 26(8), 920-929.

Smith, K. and Flatley, J. eds., (2011) Drug Misuse Declared: Findings from the 2010/11 British Crime Survey—England and Wales, Home Office.

South, N. (1999) *Drugs: Cultures, Controls and Everyday life.* London: Sage
Publications.

Stafford, T., (2012); *Why are we so curious*? Evolution made us the ultimate learning
machines, and the ultimate learning machines need to be oiled by curiosity.
Statistical Bulletin No. 12/11 (London, Home Office, July 2011).

Stimson, G.V. (1995) *An environmental approach to reducing drug-related harm. In
Health in the Inner City* - Drugs in the City, eds. J.W.T. Dickerson and G.V. Stimson.
London: Royal Society of Health.

Survey Monkey (2013) Security Statement.
http://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/policy/security/ (Accessed on 02/02/2017)

Taylor, I., Walton, P. And Young, J. (1973) The New Criminology; For a Social Theory of
Deviance, London: Routledge Press.

United Nations Classification of the Functions of Government (COFOG) Eurostat data
sources: http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/ (general) and
http://unstats.un.org/unsd/cr/registry/regcst.asp?Cl=4

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. Annual Report 2008, covering activities in
2007. Austria, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2008.

Webb, E., Ashton, C., Kelly, D. and Kamali, F. (1996) '*Alcohol and Drug Use in the UK University Students', Lancet, 348: 922-925.*

Webster, A., (2002) Introduction to Sociology, 4th ed., London: Macmillan.

Willis, P. (2006) '*The cultural meaning of drug use'*, in Hall, S and Jefferson, T. (ed.) *Resistance through rituals: Youth Subcultures in Post-War Britain.* 2nd edition. Abingdon: Routledge, pg. 88-99.

Young, J. (1971) *The drugtakers*: The social meaning of drug use. MacGibbon & Kee, London.

Young, J. (2010a) 'Sub-cultural Theory: Virtue and Vices', JockYoung.org.uk, [online] available: http://www.malcomread.co.uk/JockYoung/subculture.htm [accessed 24th November, 2016].

Young, J. (2010b) 'Drugs: Absolutism, Relativism and Realism', JockYoung.org.uk, [online] available: http://www.malcomread.co.uk/JockYoung/subculture.htm [accessed on April 20th, 2017].