

2019

# National Strategy Against Narcotics, Drug Control Policy, and Law Enforcement Experiences in Kosovo

Ferid Azemi  
*Walden University*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>

Part of the [Criminology Commons](#), [Criminology and Criminal Justice Commons](#), [Public Administration Commons](#), and the [Public Policy Commons](#)

---

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact [ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu](mailto:ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu).

# Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Ferid Azemi

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,  
and that any and all revisions required by  
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee

Dr. Gregory Koehle, Committee Chairperson,  
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Howard Henderson, Committee Member,  
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Melanie Smith, University Reviewer,  
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer  
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University  
2019

Abstract

National Strategy Against Narcotics, Drug Control Policy, and Law Enforcement

Experiences in Kosovo

By

Ferid Azemi

MS, Boston University, 2011

BS, American Intercontinental University, 2009

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Criminal Justice

Walden University

March 2019

## Abstract

This research is focused on evaluation of National Strategy Against Narcotics (NSAN) enacted in 2012 in Kosovo. The purpose of this study was to understand the impact of NSAN through visualizing data and gaining deeper insight from experiences of antidrug experts. Convergent parallel mixed methods were used to answer the main research questions. The central research questions examined the impact of strategy implementation in juvenile drug arrest reduction, and its effectiveness on Kosovo criminal justice system. Markwood's comprehensive theory of substance abuse prevention (CTSAP) was used to assess and explore the NSAN. Deidentified juvenile arrest rates taken from Kosovo official police records, were visualized through a scatterplot to show the impact of arrest rates from 2009 to 2015. On qualitative part, 11 antidrug officers who handled juvenile drug arrest cases were in-depth interviewed. Visualized data showed that NSAN did not decrease juvenile drug arrest rates after its implementation, as the juvenile drug arrest rates increased after its implementation. However, participants in this study perceived NSAN as positive, with positive impact in increasing cooperation between other agencies, thus resulting in more arrests. Interview answers received from participants of the study confirmed Markwood's CTSAP. Overall, mixed results came out of this study, and further research is needed with wider scope of data analysis to fully evaluate the effects of this strategy. NSAN itself did not have desired impact in reducing juvenile drug arrests in Kosovo, but analysis of this strategy brought attention of increasing juvenile drug issues in Kosovo.

National Strategy Against Narcotics, Drug Control Policy, and Law Enforcement

Experiences in Kosovo

By

Ferid Azemi

MS, Boston University, 2011

BS, American Intercontinental University, 2009

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Criminal Justice

Walden University

March 2019

## Acknowledgments

Let me take this opportunity to thank first God, for giving me health to reach at this momentum of my life, and my parents for supporting me during this very difficult journey of highest academic achievement, a Ph.D. degree.

I would like to acknowledge my Chair Dr. Gregory Koehle and committee member Dr. Howard Henderson, for guiding through this very long and difficult process and his commitment toward my success.

My final study would not look as it looks now, without the guide, and comments from URR, Dr. Smith, thank you for your support during this journey.

Special thanks to Kosovo Police, antidrug unit, that supported me with data needed for this study, and Kosovo Academy for Public Safety, for morally supporting me during my studies.

## Table of Contents

List of Tables .....	iv
List of Figures .....	v
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study .....	1
Background of the Problem.....	5
Statement of Problem.....	7
Purpose of the Study.....	10
Research Questions.....	11
Theoretical Framework.....	13
Nature of the Study.....	15
Definitions.....	18
Assumptions.....	19
Scope of Delimitations.....	20
Limitations.....	21
Significance.....	23
Summary.....	24
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	26
Research Strategy .....	27
Theoretical Foundation.....	29
Key Variables and Concepts.....	31
Drug Control Policy in Kosovo.....	34
Education.....	36
Prohibition.....	52

Intervention.....	55
Legalization.....	56
Summary and Conclusion.....	66
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	69
Introduction.....	69
Setting.....	70
Research Design and Rationale.....	71
Role of the Researcher.....	73
Participant Selection Logic.....	75
Instrumentation.....	76
Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection.....	79
Data Analysis Plan.....	81
Coding.....	84
Threats to Validity.....	85
Issues of Trustworthiness.....	87
Ethical Procedures.....	88
Summary.....	90
Chapter 4: Results.....	92
Settings.....	92
Demographics.....	93
Data collection.....	94
Data Analysis.....	95
Qualitative Components.....	97



Descriptive Arrest Rates.....	101
Evidence of Trustworthiness.....	105
Summary.....	107
Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations.....	108
Introduction.....	101
Interpretation of the Findings.....	109
Curiosity and Peer Influence.....	111
Parents' Care.....	113
Policy Positive Impact.....	114
Education and Rehabilitation Needs.....	116
Theoretical Context.....	117
Limitations to the Study.....	119
Recommendations.....	120
Implications.....	120
Conclusion.....	121
References.....	123
Appendix A: Letter of Cooperation.....	140
Appendix B: Flyer.....	141
Appendix C: Ethical Collaboration Memo.....	142
Appendix D: Identity/Positionality Memo .....	143
Appendix F: Self-Reflection Journaling .....	144
Appendix G: Coding Memo Sample.....	145
Appendix H: Semistructured Questioner .....	146

List of Tables

Table 1: Participant Demographics.....91

Table 2: Overall Drug Arrest Rates in Kosovo from 2009-2014.....102

List of Figures

Figure 1: Juvenile Arrest Rates in Kosovo.....102

## Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

### **Introduction**

With the increase of drug abuse trends at a global scale (Dimovski, Babanoski, & Ilijevski, 2013), many countries enacted new preventive laws to reduce these tendencies. Kosovo is geographically located in Southeast of Europe. In 2012, Kosovo passed the National Strategy Against Narcotics (NSAN) to prevent organized crime, drug trafficking, and drug abuse (National Strategy, 2012). Currently, there is not any assessment on the impact of the NSAN. Through policy evaluation, the results of this study can have potential positive social changes because similar policies could be implemented for other social issues in Kosovo.

Kosovo is a country in the Balkan region of Southeast Europe that declared independence in 2008 from Serbia. The name Kosovo is derived from the Serbian place named the Field of Blackbirds, and after serving as the center of a medieval Serbian Empire, Kosovo was ruled by the Ottoman Empire from the mid-15th to the early 20th century (Lampe, Allcock, & Young, 2017). However, the central Balkans were part of both the Roman and Byzantine Empire before ethnic Serbs migrated to the territories of modern Kosovo in the seventh century (World Factbook, 2017). After the Ottoman Empire left the area, in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, Kosovo was incorporated into Serbia (later known as part of Yugoslavia), where mostly Muslim ethnic Albanians outnumbered the predominately Eastern Orthodox Serbs in Kosovo, and interethnic tensions frequently roiled the province (Lampe et al., 2017). After World War II, Kosovo became an autonomous province of Serbia in the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (World

Factbook, 2017). During the 1980s, the majority of the population (Albanians), was unhappy with their economic and legal status in Yugoslavia, and increased nationalism, which led to riots and calls for independence (World Factbook, 2017). On the other hand, ethnic Serbs that viewed Kosovo as their cultural heartland, instituted a new constitution in 1989 revoking Kosovo's autonomous status, however, after this revoking of the constitution, Kosovo Albanian leaders responded in 1991 by organizing a referendum and declaring independence (World Factbook, 2017). The international community did not recognize this declaration of independence, but it also led to repressive measures against Kosovar Albanians by Serbian authority during the 1990s provoking a new conflict in later years 1997-1998. In 1998, ethnic Albanian-led secessionist rebellion escalated into international crises, which culminated in 1999 with an airstrike against Yugoslavia, then known as Serbia and Montenegro by the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (Lampe et al., 2017). A three-month NATO military operation against Serbian authority led to an agreement where Serbia agreed to withdraw their military and police forces from Kosovo, and Kosovo was placed under the transitional administration of the U.N. Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo under the legal framework of U.N Security Council Resolution 1244 (World Factbook, 2017). The United Nation Mission worked with local authorities to build government capacities and fulfill standards by implementing new legislation, laws, and policies. After new laws, policies and standards are implemented, U.N. Mission prepared Kosovar Albanian majority of political leaders to declare independence. On 17 February 2008, the Kosovo Assembly declared Kosovo independence, and since then most U.N. member countries have recognized Kosovo

(World Factbook, 2017). Serbia and Russia and a significant number of other nations including a few European Union members did not recognize its independence, given this lack of international consensus, Serbia denied recognizing Kosovo independence, and pressed the matter as a violation of International Law, seeking legal advice from the International Court of Justice. In 2010, the International Court of Justice ruled that Kosovo's declaration of independence did not violate international law, but Serbia still rejected that decision (Lampe et al., 2017).

With a high unemployment rate of 34.8% of about 2 million inhabitants, Kosovo's economy remains underdeveloped, with the annual income of \$9,600 (estimated in 2016), it remains one of the poorest countries in Europe (World Factbook, 2017). Aspiring to become part of European Union, Kosovo has implemented many strategies and incorporated laws that are aligned with European laws. The NSAN of 2012 was developed as result of prevention practices by the international community in Kosovo, where all mechanisms engaged in preventing and detecting drug misuse and drug-related organized crime to avert the threat they represent in the national and international aspect (National Strategy, 2012). According to 2016 International Narcotics and Control Strategy Report on Kosovo (Department of State, 2016), Kosovo is not a significant source country for illegal drugs but remains a transit country for drugs smuggled to other European markets. Furthermore, based on Serious and Organized Crime Threat Assessment of 2014-2015 (Serious Organized Crime Threat Assessment [SOCTA], 2016), the trend of trafficking and the use of narcotics in Kosovo remains an issue of serious concern, although as a result of developments in the global level and the

reduction of the offer there is a considerable decrease noticed of the quantity of narcotics which enter Kosovo or pass through Kosovo. Kosovo enacted NSAN in 2012, carrying out multiple tasks and programs to help law enforcement in coordination with healthcare institutions, educative institutions, courts, pharmaceutical institutions, prosecutors and other government branches to address drug-related issues, prevention and also awareness programs. However, because Kosovo is not yet a member of the United Nations, it is party to few international conventions and protocols or bilateral agreements relating to counternarcotic (Department of State, 2016, para.5). This NSAN enacted in 2012, was crucial to reduce and address drug-related issues in Kosovo, through prevention and demand reduction of illegal drugs in the region. Since the implementation of NSAN in 2012, there is not any study conducted on the effectiveness of this strategy in reducing juvenile drug arrest rate and drug issues in Kosovo. Before implementation of this strategy, Kosovo authorities implemented harsh policies about addressing drugs. Due to the ineffectiveness of *get tough* related policies, policymakers as a prevention philosophy, approved NSAN in 2012 with focus on education and increase of awareness, targeting parents in their involvement in educative programs, and with emphasis on demand reduction (National Strategy, 2012). Based on Kosovo Criminal Code (Law No 04, 2012), unauthorized purchase, possession of any amount, distribution, and sale of narcotics are prohibited by Article 299 of Penal Code. Current studies are focused mainly on arrest rates, drug-related crimes, but not about demand reduction and education programs. However, none of the studies are conducted through both evaluations of current NSAN and the lenses of law enforcement officers assigned to drug prevention

units related to juveniles. Preliminary results about the drugs in the United States show that more arrests and stricter policies regarding drugs are ineffective (Walker, 2006).

In this chapter, the background will elaborate scope of the study, the problem statement and purpose of the study section will indicate why the study is important and justify the research. Research questions will be main questions to be studied, and theoretical framework will help to assess NSAN impact and its effects on juvenile drug arrests. This chapter will also treat the nature of the study, assumptions, scope of delimitation and limitations. At the end of this chapter significance of the study will be elaborated and also the summary of this chapter.

### **Background of the Problem**

Kosovo is not a very significant source of the illegal use of drugs but remains a transit country for illicit drugs with the seizure of 146 kilograms of marijuana in 2016, which is both a sharp decrease in the amount of what was seized over the same period of 2014 (Department of State, 2016). Even though this is a low rate, the fact that Kosovo is part of the Balkan Route of heroin and other drug trafficking (Dimovski et al, 2013; UNOD, 2011), the NSAN was implemented to prevent this route and prevent drug trafficking and abuse in Kosovo. According to Hajdari (2015), from 2009 to 2013, there were 5,238 juvenile perpetrators whom were imposed criminal sanctions, with a number of 121 juveniles on charges of drug trafficking in Kosovo. The statistical data must be viewed objective manner, because many offenses are related to drugs, such as property crimes which accounted of 1,441 cases, to fulfill the drug addiction of juveniles (Hajdari, 2015).



Before the development of this strategy and the action plan, Kosovo Police applied educative measures to reduce juvenile arrest rate and drug demand. There was lack of education programs in schools and not any particular prevention strategy. However, the phenomenon of juvenile drug violations and related crimes are not reduced by applying harsh policies. NSAN, implemented in 2012, focuses on demand reduction and treatment through the increase of awareness and training for youth and their parents in Kosovo (National Strategy, 2012). Before the implementation of NSAN, the juvenile arrest rate from 1 July of 2006 to 30 June of 2007, 795 juveniles were arrested (UNICEF, n.d). However; according to a Kosovo police report of 2017-2018 only 130 juveniles were arrested based on drug related offenses (Report on Drugs, 2018). According to Hajdari (2015), the number of juveniles against whom were imposed criminal sanctions from commission of criminal offenses in 2009 was 948, and in 2011, was 1,678 charged for crime, and more than half of these arrests and charges were related to drugs.

Both local and international reports indicated that most of the illegal drugs are not used in Kosovo, but mainly transited through Kosovo to other countries (Department of State, 2016; Dimovski et al., 2013). In 2012 Kosovo authorities seized 1,238 kg marijuana, 94.1 kg heroin, and 10,584 cannabis plants (SOCTA, 2016). This trend began to decrease after 2012, which may be as a result of the implementation of strategy against narcotics, but in 2014 the seizure amount increased in comparison to 2015 and 2013. In 2013, according to SOCTA (2016), Kosovo authorities seized 581 kg marijuana, and in 2014, 738 kg marijuana. However, in 2015 Kosovo Police seized lower amounts of

drugs, such as 462 kg of marijuana, 9.6 kg heroin, and 2,557 cannabis plants (SOCTA, 2016).

It is unknown if the NSAN implemented during 2012, had positive or negative effects. Therefore, this study will assess it to see its effects. By analyzing deidentified secondary data through official police reports about juvenile drug related arrests three years before implementation of this strategy starting in January 2009, and three years after the implementation of this strategy through January 2015. This policy analysis will shed light on the effectiveness of the current drug control policy in Kosovo and its impact on juvenile drug arrest reduction. The evaluation of this strategy could have an impact on future antidrug strategies because it will shed light on its impact and see if improvements are needed for future strategies. Through law enforcement experiences, and secondary data analysis the current policy could be modified, improved, and be used as a model for other social issues such as anti-terrorism strategy and homeland security policy, in Kosovo.

### **Statement of Problem**

As stated previously, there has not been an assessment of the NSAN since its implementation in 2012. It is still unknown if this strategy and overall current drug control policy in Kosovo is effective due to lack of research and the policy analysis. Prohibition policies and drug control-related laws before 2012 did not have any effect based on statistical data (Glick, 2017; Mostyn et al. 2012). In Kosovo, according to a study conducted in 2008 by Rapid Assessment and Response (UNICEF, 2009), about 37.8% of youth reported having consumed alcohol, while 3.8% of age 20-24 years old

have reported having used cannabis. In 2011, in a study carried out in Kosovo by the European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs found that around 7% of 15 to 16-year-old students responded to having used any illicit drug in the past (cited in Haskuka, 2011). The statistical data on drug arrest in Kosovo remains low. However, the juvenile drug arrest rates and drug seizure changes annually. Because the purpose of the strategy was to address drug-related issues in Kosovo society through multiple dimensions, it is still unknown of its impact and effectiveness in reducing juvenile drug-related matters. There is a gap in the literature about how the current NSAN can be more efficient, and what it needs to be done to address this complex issue. Little is known about the effectiveness of current drug control policy effects and its implementation in Kosovo. While in many countries certain drugs are legalized, in Kosovo, law enforcement officers are still faced with enforcing the current drug control policy which is related to tougher sentencing and more arrests, in combination with education program implementation. NSAN has many educative programs, and campaigns to increase awareness of drug use consequences. The NSAN is a separate policy from the Kosovo Criminal Code. Based on Kosovo Criminal Code (Law No 04, 2012), unauthorized purchase, possession at any amount, distribution, and sale of narcotics are prohibited by Article 299 of Penal Code. However, with the approval and implementation of the NSAN, law enforcement are focusing their resources on educational programs for juveniles. Current studies are focused mainly on effective practices that are designed to address juvenile drug arrest rate. However, none of the studies are conducted through both evaluation of current NSAN and the lenses of law enforcement officers assigned to

juvenile drug prevention units. Preliminary results show that more arrests and tougher policies in the U.S regarding drugs were ineffective (Walker, 2006). Comparing reports from the year 2009 and 2015 from two sources, it is apparent that in 2015, Kosovo authorities seized 462 kg marijuana and 9.6 kg heroin (SOCTA, 2016), while in 2016, 1,145 kg marijuana was seized (Annual Report, 2016). This could be an indication that drug demand decreased after strategy implementation. This is why, the impact of NSAN is unknown, and no assessment has been conducted. If the NSAN did not affect dropping juvenile drug violations and illegal drug use, then it may be assumed that the NSAN must be changed or modified to be more effective. However, since the legalization of few drugs in the United States, according to Rankin (2017), there is a substantial decline of drug abusers since the last half of the 1990s when rates reached 13%, 18% and 21% among students of eight, 10, and 12 years. On a global scale, there are increased drug abuses; however, there is a drop of drug abusers in recent years in the United States. This is perhaps because more rehabilitation programs and strategies are created rather than imposing punishment methods. Furthermore, according to European Monitoring Center for Drugs and Drug Addicts (National Kosovo Report, 2014), Kosovo remains one of the leading drug trafficking countries, while “the number of drug abusers remains as high as 15,000 to 30,000 or in proportion to the general population in Kosovo, it is about 0.8%-1.6%” (Annual Report, 2015, p.15). Walker (2006) elaborated that directly or indirectly drugs were responsible for the dramatic rise in the murder rate in the 1980’s, gang violence, the soaring prison population, the worsening crisis in race relations, and the steady erosion of individual rights in the Supreme Court rulings. Statistical data estimates

of drug use by adolescents averages about 79% and the prevalence of adolescent alcohol consumption is estimated to be around 86 % in the U.S. The research shows that “11.6% of adolescents between ages 12 and 17 years were illicit drug users and 8.9% could be clinically diagnosed with substance abuse” (Rongione, 2011, p.8). In a study using Delphi surveys with sample of 10,682 juveniles in six European countries Gorgen et. al. (2013), found that juveniles who were targeted by drug abuse prevention measures (education programs) had lower rates of drug abuse and violence.

From 2012 until today, there is a lack of research on whether the NSAN is effective and if it served in reducing juvenile drug arrest rate and drug-related crimes. Since the strategy was implemented in 2012, it is unknown if this strategy played a role in risk reduction of drug violations and arrests, through educational programs for youth. This research will shed light on if this policy is effective and if it needs to be modified in future.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The primary objective of this study was to examine the impact of the NSAN in reducing juvenile drug arrest rate in Kosovo, and reviewing the experiences of law enforcement officers regarding NSAN in relation to their handling juvenile arrests and their involvement in strategy implementation (National Strategy, 2012). A mixed methods approach was used in this study, because it will help to understand a problem and the nature of the problem in general, through comparing and visualizing statistical data before the implementation of the NSAN and after the implementation. This research explored if the NSAN implemented in 2012, reduced juvenile drug violations and drug-

related crimes. Analyzing statistical data (deidentified secondary data) determined the impact of the NSAN on juvenile drug arrest rate reduction. The second part of this study consisted of how law enforcement officers in Kosovo, feel about current drug control policy, their interpretation of juvenile drug issues, and understand their experiences in addressing this issue under the NSAN. The intent of this study was to provide a voice to drug experts (police antidrug officers). The quantitative data provided generalized patterns of juvenile drug arrests in Kosovo, and qualitative data will provide personal narratives of officers' experiences regarding the NSAN. In Kosovo, based on findings the commission of unauthorized production and other drug related crimes are associated with many factors (age, gender, education, and social backgrounds), but among these factors such as youth dominates (Hajdari, 2015). Many researchers pointed out that tough drug control policy is ineffective (Clark & Dufton, 2015; Rankin, 2017; Walker, 2006). However, there is no research conducted with the purpose of analyzing the impact of NSAN, and also understanding field officers' experiences about this NSAN. Past researchers have indicated that education and parent information about juvenile drug abuse in Kosovo are associated to increased juvenile related crimes thus resulting in higher juvenile arrest rate (Enver et al., 2016).

### **Research Questions**

The alignment and consistency of the research questions, design and methodology are appropriate for this study. Mixed methods were used in this study. The quantitative aspect of this research examined juvenile drug arrests from 2009-2012 (before NSAN

was implemented, and then compare the juvenile drug arrests from 2012-2015 (post NSAN).

Research Question 1: Has the National Strategy Against Narcotics (NSAN) been effective in reducing juvenile drug arrest rate in Kosovo?

Research Question 2: How do Kosovo Police Officers assigned to an antidrug unit perceive the impact of the National Strategy Against Narcotics (NSAN) on juvenile drug arrest rate?

The hypothesis in this study was that through educational programs under the NSAN should be effective because it will contribute to increasing awareness about risk factors of drug violations. It is assumed that through general and specific objectives the NSAN would impact positively or negatively in demand and harm through prevention and education, treatment and rehabilitation (National Strategy, 2012).

For quantitative component, the following hypotheses were considered:

$H_01$ : National Strategy Against Narcotics has not been effective in reducing juvenile drug arrests.

$H_11$ : National Strategy Against Narcotics has been effective in reducing juvenile drug arrests.

Deidentified secondary data on juvenile arrest rate from January of 2009 to January of 2015 were compared and visualized through a scatterplot to answer the research question by confirming any of these hypotheses.

### **Theoretical Framework**

The primary purpose of the development the NSAN was to prevent drug-related crimes and protect Kosovo people from the threats coming from drug abuse (National Strategy, 2012). The theoretical framework used for this research will be Markwood's (2011) CTSAP, which will be used to assess the NSAN. Markwood's CTSAP aims to prevent drug abuse through following points: demand and harm reduction, increasing awareness through education, treatment and rehabilitation, and supply reduction (National Strategy, 2012). According to Markwood, CTSAP consists of prevention of drug abuse at youth, because large scales of drug abuse issues begin at teenage years. Researchers have indicated that substance abuse begins in the first 20 years of life, and prevention of abuse must also start at that stage (Markwood, 2011). Prevention of drug abuse through education is very important because raising awareness of parents as guardians is essential for developing better communication with children at the moments of crises (National Strategy, 2012). This theory focused mainly on youth with issues, and through education, substance abuse prevention is largely to occur in the first 20 years of life (Markwood, 2011). Furthermore, CTSAP focuses on different main routes of risks: profoundly challenged children and socially influenced teens (Markwood, 2011). Based on CTASP, parents play an important role regarding prevention of profound challenges to young children and social influences on teens (Markwood, 2011). Furthermore, raising awareness amongst parents and guardians is a crucial prerequisite for preventing the start of drug use and reducing drug-related consequences and damages (National Strategy, 2012). According to CTSAP (Markwood, 2011), parents and other caretakers can



proactively seek appropriate social and psychological services when needed for themselves, or for a child whom they are responsible. Through biopsychosocial programs laid in this strategy, treatment should be administered in an organized, unique, and continuous form based on the principle of health service within the health protection system as designed by international and domestic standards (National Strategy, 2012). A provision of NSAN consisted of drug prevention through school institutions, indicating that teachers must actively participate in the promotion of programs with educational character, adapt these programs to various group ages of children (National Strategy, 2012). Through prevention and education, authorities in Kosovo had designed curriculums, published materials for schools, and trained 70 drug users, conducted 10 training courses with parents in schools, trained 400 educators, and initiated treatment program in two correctional centers (National Strategy, 2012).

Another important point that this strategy emphasized is the involvement of community that plays a crucial role in promoting citizen mobilization and active participation in drug prevention (National Strategy, 2012). In this context Markwood (2011), analyzing CTSA, argued that the earlier development of the predisposing conditions in childhood intervention can be engaged and effective, the more likely they are to achieve success at relatively low cost.

The second part of the strategy consists of reduction of supply and offer, which means that youth being educated about harms of drugs, won't use drugs, while the cultivation of drugs for local demand will be greatly reduced. This part of strategy consists of offer and supply reduction, investigation, sanctions, and cooperation on offer

and demand reduction (National Strategy, 2012). The more juveniles are educated about drugs the less likely they are to use drugs and thus less likely will be arrested for drug-related violations. According to CSTA (Markwood, 2011) a combination of positive youth development efforts and encouragement of norms against youth substance use may be the best course of action to prevent or delay substance use among youth who have faced such challenges. This strategy is based on a CTSAP, and it should reduce drug abuse, and also with this have a positive impact on society and justice system since the combination of targeting parents as guardians of young children, schools, media, community and also investigation and sanction may have played a role in reducing this phenomenon.

NSAN focused on the offer and demand reduction through implementation of measures to reduce drug supply and the destruction of organized criminal groups, with emphasis on educating juveniles about drugs (National Strategy, 2012). In this context, perhaps this strategy could have had an impact on the justice system, by increasing or decreasing juvenile arrest rate. By educating juveniles about drugs, fewer juveniles would use drugs, and therefore there will be decreased juvenile drug arrests.

### **Nature of the Study**

The main reason why applying mixed design for this study, was because juvenile drug arrests before the implementation of NSAN in 2012 could be visualized, and individual interviews with experts can explain the impact of NSAN, through their experiences with juveniles. Through qualitative interviews, the NSAN (National Strategy Against Narcotics) will be evaluated to see its effects in the Kosovo Criminal Justice

System in relation to juveniles. Antidrug officers will share their experiences in the implementation of this strategy in Kosovo and handling juvenile cases. The strategy focused on educative programs, targeting parents, and children. If this strategy had a positive effect through educative programs, it is assumed that the juvenile arrest rate about drugs would decrease, because parents would be more careful, and keep children away from drugs. To see if the strategy had an impact on drug arrest reduction among juveniles, deidentified secondary data from public police statistics will be compared with the implementation of this strategy in 2012 to 2015. Visualizing data of each month of juvenile drug arrest from January 2009 to January 2015 will shed light on whether juvenile drug arrest rates increased or decreased, between pre-strategy implementation and its impact on the reduction of drug abuse among juveniles on post implementation.

The combination of both qualitative and quantitative (mixed) methods provided an expanded understanding of current NSAN. After the deidentified secondary data (juvenile drug arrests) are analyzed to determine the effectiveness of the NSAN, understanding officers' experiences in addressing and applying the NSAN consisted of data collection through individual interviews. Therefore, this study sought to answer questions of whether NSAN gave positive or negative results in reducing juvenile drug-related crimes (arrests), and what needed to be changed for the current NSAN to be more effective through the perception of the officers enforcing the NSAN. Through a transformative strategy of inquiry, it is assumed that the NSAN through increasing awareness and implementation of educative programs may have had a positive impact on decreasing juvenile drug arrest rate in Kosovo. Participants were asked to tell their own

story of how they experienced drug-related juveniles, and whether they felt that current antidrug strategy and drug control policy was effective. Questions were asked for clarification to encourage participants to expand on certain issues that may just come up during the interview. As the discussion continued, various concepts came up, and these concepts were also analyzed. The alignment was justified since the theoretical framework is used to assess the effectiveness of the strategy in drug-related issues in Kosovo. Many studies focused on drug abuse statistical data, but there are missing research studies about the NSAN impact in reducing juvenile drug arrests in Kosovo. In some cases, when police conduct arrest operations, drug dealers, and abusers, relocate from one area to the other. This is why demand reduction and education could have played a great role in keeping juveniles away from drug violations. The main reason for this study was to evaluate NSAN through deidentified secondary data, and understand its impact through law enforcement experiences. If the educative programs had positive or negative impact and what can be done to improve current drug control policy in this way reducing drug abuses in Kosovo. If the NSAN through treatment and education programs had a positive effect, then policy changes may be encouraged for further improvement. Thus, either education; treatment programs, or future improved strategy could help and bring up a grounded theory of what works the best in addressing this issue.

A mixed methods approach was used for this study, by comparing juvenile drug arrest rates from January 2009 to January 2012, to visualize data, and to better gain knowledge about these statistics, antidrug officers will explain the strategy impact through their experiences.

## Definitions

Certain terms of policy and drugs need to be clarified; therefore, it is important to understand terminology appropriately.

Terms such as the drug, narcotics, illicit and many drug types are clearly defined in two main data sources: (a) United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, (b) Terminology and Information on Drugs (3rd ed.), and (c) the National Institute on Drug Abuse (2015). These terms were also defined based on definition from the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.), the NSAN (2012) nomenclature, and Department of Justice terminology (1992).

*Desired-effects*: A sense of physical and mental well-being, exhilaration, euphoria (National Institute, 2016).

*Route of administration*: The ways drugs are consumed, such as inhalation, oral consumption in the form of food, mixed with tobacco, or through injections.

*Institutional mechanisms*: Based on NSAN (2012), the role and coordination of activities of the ministries of health, internal affairs, justice, economy, education and science, ministry of culture, labor, ministry of trade, environment and planning, that are involved in the implementation of this strategy.

*Demand and harm reduction*: A series of activities, measures and special actions taken by representative institutions and joint actions by all actors, and in a coordinated manner. These activities have the aim of preventing drug misuse, to decrease the number of persons that use drugs, and to raise awareness of the social consequences of drug abuse (National Strategy, 2012).

*Offer and supply reduction:* Adequate measures to prevent the cultivation of plants used to produce drugs and limiting the production, trade, and distribution of narcotic medicines, psychotropic substances. Can also refer to precursors to prevent drug-related organized crime and laundering proceeds from drugs and trade NSAN (2012).

*Addiction:* The repeated use of psychoactive substances to the extent that the user is periodically or chronically intoxicated, shows a compulsion to take the preferred substance, has great difficulty in voluntarily ceasing or modifying substance use, and exhibits determination to obtain psychoactive substances by almost any means (UNOD, 2016). According to U.N. Office on Drugs (2016), a dose is “the quantity of a substance, which is required to elicit the desired response in the individual, both in medicine and for abuse purpose” (p.62).

*Drug-defined offenses:* Violations of laws prohibiting or regulating the possession, distribution, or manufacture of illegal drugs (DOJ, 1994).

*Drug-related offenses/arrests:* Offenses related to drug distribution, drug pharmacologic effects, or the user’s need for money to support continued use (DOJ, 1994).

### **Assumptions**

In this study, it is assumed that experts have worked few months in analyzing current drug issues in Kosovo and developed and implemented NSAN in 2012.

The assumptions for this study are as follow:

1. It is assumed that the strategy had an impact on drug (arrests), because the impact could be positive or negative.
2. It is assumed that that with the implementation of this strategy in 2012, which is based on a variety of educative programs, the strategy had effect, positive or negative in reducing juvenile drug arrests.
3. It is assumed that educative programs and training for parents had effect, which may be positive or negative in reducing drug arrest rate among teens in Kosovo, thus reducing also drug-related arrest rate and crimes.
4. With regard to quantitative data, and assumption might be that the data are readily available from common sources for all years covered in proposed research, and there have been no changes in the measurement or collection of data during those years.
5. For qualitative data, an assumption could be that a researcher will have to access to the population of antidrug units to interview them, and they will be willing to participate and that they will provide accurate information to this intended purpose of the research.

### **Scope of Delimitations**

In this study, perhaps factors such as increase or decrease of a number of population that may cause increase or decrease of drug arrest rate. Therefore, history maturation of Kosovo people may pose a threat to internal validity. Since this study from the quantitative perspective was related to the analysis of secondary data analysis, it is important to understand the drug trends in the region. To address this issue, population

growth or decrease rate were compared with the proportion of drug-related juvenile arrests.

Deidentified secondary data about juvenile drug arrests were extracted from the official Kosovo Police Database. Data may vary from one year to the other, therefore, testing was necessary. Not all juvenile drug violations are reported, some juveniles may not be caught committing drug related crime, such cases, were analyzed through elaboration of experts that dealt with juvenile drug related cases. The implementation of the NSAN began in 2012, to ensure if this strategy had the impact; data from 2009 were analyzed through comparison with those after 2012. In a form of scatterplot, the differences were visualized in the tables. Another important tool was to test the years where educative programs were conducted in schools, to see if these data support the idea that strategy had positive or no impact, and finding to what degree the strategy had the impact. Secondary or archival data from public access reports of Kosovo Police were analyzed from January 2009 to January 2015 to see the impact of the NSAN in Kosovo. The qualitative component included Kosovo police officers that have at least ten years of experience in the antidrug section of the police department.

### **Limitations**

Just as Creswell (2014) elaborated that quantitative research is understood as complementary to qualitative research and helps to mitigate any limitations against the method. The main limitation of this study is the period of policy analysis of secondary data from 2009 to 2015 of strategy implementation. This means that only three years



before and three years after the implementation of this strategy secondary data were analyzed. To address this issue, qualitative research helped in understanding overall drug control effectiveness.

- Adaptation of qualitative methodology will limit the study findings only to Kosovo antidrug policy, but given nature of the study area, the application of the study findings can be interpreted in the context of regional drug phenomenon.
- Official policy documents that are used during this period from 2009 to 2015 will be main source data. This will include police juvenile arrest rate, and strategic documents implemented.
- Given the nature of mainly mixed method approach, it will not be possible to establish cause and effects between strategy implementation and drug use arrest reduction in Kosovo. It is possible that decrease or increase of overall Kosovo population could be a factor of drug arrest reduction or increased drug use. Failure to consider this could be a potential limitation.
- The study will also rely on face-to-face interviews with antidrug officers. Not all officers participated in same educative programs rooted in NSAN. The awareness of participants may vary from one participant to another. It will be possible that variations in officers' implementation role could influence their responses to this research.

- Secondary data comparisons, do not ensure accuracy, therefore to address this issue, means of each month from 2009 to 2015 will be compared and visualized through scatterplot process in the table.

Officers from the antidrug unit of Kosovo Police can explain some of these data during interviews. Other factors mentioned in the methodology chapter will be considered.

### **Significance**

This study filled a gap in a body of knowledge regarding the role of education, on reducing juvenile drug arrest rate in Kosovo. Since educative programs are focused on increasing awareness about drugs, it is assumed that fewer juveniles would be involved in drug-related crimes, thus this could result in decreased juvenile drug arrests. Through both quantitative analysis of secondary data and qualitative interviews, this study had contributed to having a better understanding the impact of NSAN and impact on intervention program within this strategy through collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. Many research studies are conducted about drug abuses, the rehabilitation, and educative programs through policy analysis. However, there was a gap in the literature about drug control policy impact through education in reducing juvenile drug arrest rate in Kosovo. There was a limited number of studies about juvenile drug arrests in Kosovo, and there wasn't any study about a comparison of data of drug-related statistical data before the implementation of NSAN in 2012 and data after the implementation of this strategy. With the analysis of secondary data, and through understanding antidrug officers' experiences about current drug policy, a summary of

results found about the impact of NSAN were given to Kosovo Police. If the drug arrests and illegal sale were on the increase among juveniles, then perhaps NSAN was not very effective. Since law enforcement officers in the field possess rich experiences in addressing this issue, they could contribute to this research in understanding better methods and recommend policy changes. The results of this research can have the potential to make a significant positive social change. This is why it was essential to understand the experiences of officers addressing this issue, and finding better methods of reducing drug problems.

### **Summary**

In this chapter, key components of the study were discussed, and overall the policy evaluation regarding drug control in Kosovo. It is still unknown if the NSAN implemented in 2012 had any impact on drug arrest rate and still unknown its effect in Kosovo criminal justice system related to juvenile cases. The problem in this study was that many law enforcement antidrug members participated in the implementation of this strategy through educative and training programs of parents and their children, but results of such involvement are unknown. This study filled the gap in understanding the impact of this strategy in Kosovo. Markwood's CTSAP was used to assess the strategic impact and its effects juvenile drug arrest rates in Kosovo. This theoretical framework was based mainly on targeting parents, disturbed children, and children that are social influences, resembling with main strategic goals. The theoretical framework was used as the basis for the data analysis and interpretation needed to answer the research questions on the nature of drug use reduction through education, and the perception of experts regarding strategy

impact and its effects in Kosovo. A qualitative methodology with mixed narrative phenomenological study approach involving data collection from official archival data and key interviews were adapted for the study. The next chapter explored the key points found in the review of literature deepening the knowledge about juvenile drug related issues at local and global level.

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

### **Introduction**

The purpose of this research is to determine the effectiveness of NSAN in reducing drug use in Kosovo and to understand law enforcement experiences in regard to the implementation of this strategy in 2012. The theoretical framework was applied within the context of education and its impact on drug use reduction and reduction of drug arrest rates. In this literature review I examined several areas. First, I evaluated educative programs as prevention tool of drug violations and arrests among teens. Second, this will be followed by the theoretical framework of drug use prevention through education rooted in NSAN. Third, I examined the historical context of policy implication including narcotics prohibition policies. Intervention and legalization of drugs will be reviewed in this section. A body of the literature indicated that education at an early age, and increasing awareness through educative programs enacted through drug control policy is effective in reducing juvenile drug use (Baharudin et. al., 2014; Chinwe Onyilofofor, & Chinelo, 2015). Kosovo even though is not significant country with high drug abuse rate, but remains transit country of illegal drugs and contraband (Department of State, 2016). There is lack of literature related to drug issues and especially impact of current drug control policy and antidrug strategy in Kosovo. Strategies with punitive measures against drugs in the past did not bring positive results in reducing drug use (Alexandris, 2017; McGallagly & McKaganey, 2013; Patten 2016). Antidrug strategy in Kosovo is based on education, encouragement, a right caliber of teachers or professional counselors, desirable knowledge, and working with significant others in the life of the

client are among the most effective strategies for eradication of drug abuse among students (Chinwe et al., 2015). In this review of the literature, only credible scholarly journals and peer-reviewed articles were used. Past research shed light on understanding punitive measures about drug abuse and the black market of drugs impact on society. In order to develop a meaningful and value-added literature review, a systematic literature review strategy was adopted. This involved the identification of drug control policy in Kosovo. Search engines were used to identify and understand various policy actors in law enforcement and education field, and to identify some of drug issue claims that are addressed through new policies in Kosovo. In this chapter, the theoretical framework was included along with past studies that are related or used the same theoretical framework to treat drug abuse and policy implication in criminal justice system. Both qualitative and quantitative studies are reviewed.

### **Literature Search Strategy**

Many databases offered by Walden Library are used. Official institutional structure of NSAN and connecting policies that are already approved by Kosovo officials are used. In this research, the researcher used targeted policy documents that could be assessed online, as well as physical copies from the relevant Kosovo Government institutions such as Police Department. From 2009 to 2015 only two drug control policies were approved in Kosovo.

The literature strategy was used to identify credible databases and other academic journals, mostly Walden University library was used to identify drug-related sources and

research. Google Scholar was used in some cases to illustrate the relevant research about drugs in Kosovo. A tool of these databases was used:

- Sage Premier
- Academic Search
- Science Direct
- Elsevier
- ProQuest Direct
- EBSCO

Multi-databases and search engines were identified including the following:

- EMCDA
- US Department of States Statistics
- UNODC

Before, beginning the review of the literature, the researcher participated in a webinar organized by Walden University Library resources. Skills gained from webinar to search relevant peer-reviewed journal articles and research starting from 2013 to 2018, by using a combination of words during article search. Keywords and the combination of them were as follows:

- *drugs OR policy OR prevention AND education OR impact OR juveniles  
AND drug strategy OR evaluation program OR drug education AND  
Kosovo*

- *drug OR abuse OR teens OR prevention OR policy implications AND strategy prevention*
- *policy OR control OR drugs OR impact AND education prevention*
- *theories OR drug OR prevention OR policy intervention*
- *legalization OR drugs OR crime OR law enforcement tactics*
- *intervention OR drug abuse OR policy implication*

There was very limited literature about drug abuse and drug prevention in Kosovo, however, through conference proceedings, and also imprint official data information such as European Survey Report was used to add new information to this topic.

### **Theoretical Foundation**

CTSAP by Markwood (2011) indicates that parents and caretakers can proactively seek appropriate social and psychological services when needed for themselves, or for a child whom they are responsible. Markwood (2011) as a *founder of this theory in 2011*, elaborated that a combination of positive youth development efforts and encouragement of norms against youth substance use may be the best course of action to prevent or delay substance use among youth who have faced such challenges. This theory focused mainly on youth with issues, and through education, substance abuse prevention is largely to occur in the first 20 years of life (Markwood, 2011). Furthermore, CTSAP focuses on different main routes of risks: profoundly challenged children and socially influenced teens (Markwood, 2011). The reason why CTSAP was selected is NSAN has its



provisions about targeting parents, and schools in promoting education and awareness through education.

The rationale for the choice of this theory is that NSAN is based on preventing drug violations/arrests, through targeting parents and implementing educative programs in schools. The strategy is focused on targeting parents through education programs and also applying intervention through the cooperation with public institutions (National Strategy, 2012). The NSAN targets parents, school institutions working places and community (National Strategy, 2012), in the same way, comprehensive theory of substance abuse prevention, targeting parents and teens at their first twenty years of life (Markwood, 2011).

This theory relates to drug prevention rather than reacting to drug-related violations. Prevention through policy implementation and family intervention are key to drug arrest reduction because youths are kept away from drugs, and family intervention is a key to prevent socially influenced teens to use drugs (Markwood, 2011). In order for the family to intervene and educate their children, parents need training by experts. Such training can influence parents to care about their children, therefore resulting in a reduction of drug arrests by youth, keeping them away from drugs. Research questions are related to the effect of NSAN which mainly targets parents and educative institutions, to increase awareness and develop better-communicating methods with challenged teens.

### **Key Variables and Concepts**

Educative programs rooted in NSAN and overall drug control policy may prevent and reduce drug arrests rate. A body of the literature suggested that drug arrest prevention through education is more effective if implemented at early adolescent age.

Wong and Manning (2017) on their qualitative research through interviews of 12 drug policy experts, 13 law enforcement experts, and 16 health workers with the focus on contributing factors of drug abuse found that social environment is related to drug abuse. Similar to findings by Wong and Manning (2017), using quantitative approach with samples of 980 adolescents from ages 17-19 enrolled in the study, about prevention of substance use and misuse during 2014-2015 in Kosovo, Tahiraj et al. (2016), found that the prevalence of consumption of illegal drugs was higher among boys than among girls, with 17% of male consumption of other drugs than alcohol, and smoking, while 9% female group. In this study using regression analysis, Tahiraj et al. (2016), argued that the association between higher alcohol consumption and higher levels of achievements in sports is almost consequence of post game gathering after competitive sports activities, and frequency out of home situations for girls' competition at a higher level in sport activities. However, this study did not include the drug abuse in Kosovo schools outside the gathering scope.

However, the strength of Wong and Manning's study consisted that it included three groups of experts. On the other hand, the findings showed that those proactive enforcement tactics involving partnerships with external agents showed more promising effects on reducing drug dealing and controlling drug market than reactive policing

options. The limitation and weak point in this study is the focus on drug dealing and drug market prevention programs, leaving out educative programs. There was a very limited emphasis on education and targeting parents as the first line of prevention. Similar to findings by Wong and Manning's study, Tahiraj et al. (2016), argued that social environment played a great role in substance abuse among juveniles.

Baharudin et al. (2014), conducted a study through interviewing eight family members, whose children were under therapy of drug use. Similar to Wong Manning (2017), Baharudin et al. (2014) found that family intervention through psycho-education had positive effects on the rehabilitation process. This study's strong point is that adolescents under therapy can be rehabilitated better and easier if they have the support of their family members. However, the study consisted only of families whose children were under therapy. It remained unknown, whether the same results would come up if the researchers conducted research with parents of children are vulnerable to becoming drug abusers.

In a study through focus group design with 11 groups of age 14-16 years old, Meehan (2017), found that underage groups took drugs for lack of knowledge and education about the risk of using drugs. This study pointed out that education through policy implementation in a similar way as an antidrug strategy had a positive effect on drug use reduction. The strength of this study is that the author used 11 groups of underage students, which consisted of valuable analysis for given research question of education impact on drug use reduction. It is unknown if the same results would come out if a researcher did qualitative research with other group-age students, and also with

antidrug experts. In a similar study by Jozaghi and Reid (2015), through semistructured interviews with peer volunteers in Canada, argued that peer education system played a crucial role in education and safety function and were able to alter abusive behavior, attitude, and intention of injecting drug users. This research offered some important points, but it could have been even stronger if the researcher also interviewed experts about the role of education in drug prevention policy and its effects and impact in the reduction of drug use in society.

Similar to findings by Meehan (2017), in another study using self-report design, Gorgen et al. (2013), using sample of 10,682 in six European Countries (Belgium, Spain, Germany, Portugal, Slovenia and Hungary), and using National Institute Expert Survey, found that juveniles see parents and peers as the most important sources of preventive influence on a young person's behavior. Furthermore, Gorgen et al. (2013), analyzing expert surveys during this study, concluded that experts recommend preventive measures that intervene at an early age, aim at reducing risk factors and strengthening social skills, and follow a multi-professional approach.

Thurman and Boughelaf (2015), conducted quantitative research using 590 secondary school students, and 288 teachers in the U.K about the collective experience of drug education, found that there were not enough drug education in schools and that teachers had not enough expertise on drug-related education. This study was based on survey data, and this study pointed out the importance of involvement of experts in drug education. A limitation of this study is that this study is conducted in the U.K, but to gain a stronger understanding of the research problem, mixed methods through qualitative

study could be applied in this study. The strength of this research approach was that it included two groups, students and teachers, and the results show that there was a need for experts on drug education. To strengthen this study, perhaps the authors should have included parents also, to see their perspective in addressing drug issues with their children, educating them, if they educate them about drug use consequences.

### **Drug Control Policy in Kosovo**

Kosovo government implemented its first drug control policy in 2009 with the goal to prevent drug use and drug-related crimes (Antidrug Strategy, 2009). Based on Kosovo Constitution and Penal Law, a group of experts developed National Anti-Drug Strategy (NADS) in 2009 for the first time with three main overall goals: 1) demand reduction, 2) offer and supply reduction, and 3) cooperation and coordination (Antidrug Strategy, 2009). This strategy from historical viewpoint was the idea of combating organized crime in Kosovo. In this case, organized crime was related to drug processing and cultivation. The second strategy, to address the issue of drugs among juveniles was approved in 2012. The NSAN was approved in 2012 and enforced in the same year, with target of parents and youth through educative programs in Kosovo (National Strategy, 2012). The NSAN of 2012, targeted parents and their children through educational programs.

The antidrug strategy of 2009, had its objectives but is not followed or implemented by the action plan. Provisions of this strategy are very narrative, but there is not any short or long-term goal of fulfilling any of these objectives. In 2012, Kosovo government included experts from healthcare, antidrug experts, educators, school directors in developing and implementing new drug control strategy called National

Strategy Against Narcotics (NSAN) followed by the action plan and program implementation. This strategy (NSAN, 2012), had its general and specific objectives as follows:

#### General Objectives

- Demand and Harm Reduction

#### Specific objectives

- Prevention and Education
- Treatment and Rehabilitation
- Harm Reduction
- Cooperation on Demand Reduction

All these objectives are followed by the action plan, which involved law enforcement targeting parents and schools through education and training for youths (NSAN, 2012). The first specific component of this strategy consisted of measures to increase awareness of individuals and society about the risk imposed by drugs (NSAN, 2012). This is followed by various awareness campaigns, meetings of law enforcement experts with community members. Under prevention and education, there is a leading factor in the family. In this context, raising awareness of parents in developing better communication with children in the moments of crises and during the period of their personality is creating conditions to raise children, and inform them about appropriate decision making (NSAN, 2012). In this context Markwood's CTSAP (2011), argued that socially influenced teens and profoundly challenged teens are at risk of using illegal

drugs, this is why parents play an important role in prevention through communicating disapproval of drug use with their teens.

School institutions play an important role in drug use prevention through various educational, health promotion programs incorporated in curricula and extracurricular information activities with an educational character, adapted to the age and cultural levels of children (NSAN, 2012).

### **Education**

Education is one of the key variable or factor to impact substance abuse prevention. Previous studies using quantitative methodology to see the impact of parents on their children about drug education impact, through using 267 participants (Marsiglia et al., 2017), and another study using 150 participants with focus of family prevention (Skinner et al., 2014), found that parents and family education played crucial role in substance abuse prevention. In another research using quantitative methodology using samples of 590 secondary school students and 288 teachers (Thurman & Boughelaf, 2015), and another study of 450 samples to include 150 professional experts (Chinwe, Onyilofor, & Chinelo, 2015), found that education, encouragement, education programs in curricula of schools, played major impact in drug abuse prevention. This study lacks the evidence of how effective such programs were, and to what degree the programs played a role in reducing juvenile drug offenses.

Most of the findings through quantitative approach indicated that drug abuse knowledge rooted either drug prevention policies or school curriculums had a positive

impact on drug abuse prevention (Boughelaf, 2015; Lloyd, 2015; Klisch et al., 2013; Thurman & Skinner et al., 2014).

In a qualitative context, education is related to knowledge and set of skills experts apply in schools and community to address drug abuse issues. Education on itself is not enough in reducing drug abuse (Lancaster, 2016; Weissing et al., 2017). Educative programs in schools, targeting parents and youths are effective only if policy-makers have the expertise to develop prevention policies that would reduce drug use (Klisch et al. 2013; Lancaster, 2016; Lloyd, 2015; Skinner et al., 2014).

Weissing et al. (2017), in their qualitative study through analyzing experiences of experts that provided different perspectives, found that further and wider indicators must be included in strategies that are designed to be implemented in drug reduction field. Weissing et al. (2017), concluded that 12 priority candidate indicators emerged and are conceptually simple, that could be collected on a routine base, and should provide comparable critical evidence on the quality and coverage of opioid agonist therapy, needle and syringe programs and generic drug service aspects. In short, Weissing et al., (2017), meant that drug abuse strategy or demand reduction philosophy would fulfill its objective if it relays only in providing basic services such as exchange needles, or syringes but more than that, such as offering assistance, drug monitoring, implementing intervention factors to assist drug addicts.

In a similar study by Weissing et al. (2017), using risk environment assessment of heroin use initiation, with a sample of 40 young men and 17 young women through life history interviews in Ireland, Mayock, Cronly and Clatts (2015) found that the lives of



most women in this study were characterized by economic disadvantage, stressful family context, and childhood trauma. Mayock et al. (2015) concluded that macro and meso levels, structural poverty, trauma, and violence shaped young women's perceptions of their intimate relationship resulting in initiated heroin use. In a research about analyzing evidence-based drug policy paradigm, Lancaster (2016), argued that two communities, policy-making decision and knowledge producers must find a common bridge two re-divided paths. Examining two case studies of Australian drug policy processes Lancaster (2016), found that "at times the characterization of the primacy of instrumental knowledge for policy and the paradigm of authoritative decision-making are inadequate" (p.149). In this context, Lancaster (2016) argued that policy decision makers often lack in understanding evidence-based results due to lack of collaboration with clinical experts, local knowledge implementation and lived experiences of the people touched by drug abuse. In light of what is often called evidence-based may be understood differently by different entities, and Lancaster (2016), concluded that evidence-based policy is useful if it is created in many versions of it because it allows participants to assume they are making the same sense of prevention practice.

Education rooted in prevention policy is effective only if all levels of those involved know the philosophy of drug abuse prevention and have sufficient knowledge about this phenomenon, and incorporate this knowledge on programs in schools (Chinwe Onyilofor, & Chinelo, 2015; Lancaster, 2015; Lloyd, 2015). Education rooted in prevention policy, seem to have an impact on drug use reduction (Chinwe et al., 2015; Markwood, 2011; Meehan, 2017; Thurman & Boughelaf, 2015). What remains to be

studied, is to understand how much impact policy prevention such as NSAN in Kosovo, had on drug use reduction and how effective it was about the criminal justice system.

In a research about family intervention for treatment and drug rehabilitation, Baharudin et al. (2014), through analysis through interview design of eight family members whose children were under therapy, found that participants in the study had positive experiences, and that family intervention through psycho-education, support and retreat programs had positive effects on rehabilitation process. Education process consists of informing youths about risk factors and consequences of drug abuses. This study consisted of applying Markwood's comprehensive substance abuse prevention through using education and family intervention component. Markwood's comprehensive theory of substance abuse and prevention (2011), is mainly focused on prevention through education, but also partly contains policy prevention. Markwood (2011) argued that once overall dynamics of youth substance use and prevention are understood, resolution of various debates about prevention strategy becomes easier. Drug abuse phenomenon is not new; to add to this drug trafficking is another issue that countries are dealing today. In fact, drug trafficking has been part of the drug pandemic that has afflicted the U.S., for over 100 years, beginning with the Harrison Act of 1914, which first regulated narcotics (Duenas, 2017). Policy prevention is mainly related to two rationales: 1) demand reduction and 2) harsh drug control.

In a study about drug education in Northern Ireland with focus groups consisting of sixty-six students separated in 11 groups aged 14-16 years old, Meehan (2017), found that young people take drugs because they lack information and knowledge about drugs

and the dangers, thus concluding that information-based approach in schools had positive effects on drug abuse prevention. Both studies used the same approach to Markwood's CTSAP, with emphasis on rehabilitation and education.

In research about examining the environmental change strategies targeting substance abuse prevention, Friend et al. (2015), argued that abuse of illicit and prescription drugs is a global public health crisis that calls for innovative, population-based solution. Thus, Friend et al. (2015) concluded that environmental change strategy is necessary to address drug abuse, and this environmental change strategy is related to intervention and the realm of the prevention community. The involvement of schools and educational programs informing students about consequences of drugs seem to be crucial. In this context, Markwood (2011), indicated that substance abuse prevention is largely about what happens in the first twenty years of life, but this includes large-scale environmental issues. Markwood (2011), took into consideration also the socially influenced teens, concluding that appropriate social services could help them in their life avoid substance abuse.

Using multivariate linear regression path analysis for 267 participants, through applying culturally parenting component on youth substance use prevention, Marsiglia et al. (2017), argued that adolescent normative beliefs and related behaviors can be changed through synchronized culturally grounded parent and youth intervention and together play an important role in the reduction of substance use. In this context, Markwood's (2011), comprehensive theory of substance abuse prevention, indicated that the main role of parents in regard to preventing social influences toward alcohol and drug use, is to

communicate disapproval of youth substance use, establish family rules against it, and attempt to keep teens out of situations in which peer alcohol or other drug use will occur or is occurring.

On the other hand, American Society of Health-System Pharmacists (ASHP, 2014), in their report about substance abuse, indicated that pharmacists have unique knowledge, skills, and responsibility to be actively involved in substance abuse prevention, education, and assistance. Furthermore, American Society of Health-System Pharmacists recommended that through education pharmacists must provide information and referral to support groups appropriate to the needs people and certain vulnerable groups in society, and also to develop of undergraduate and graduate curricula and pharmacy technician education on the topic of substance abuse prevention education (ASHP, 2014).

In another study about drug addict parents and prediction of sexual risk behaviors for their children, using a sample of 150 participants with a focus of Family Prevention project, Skinner et al. (2014), argued that heightened levels of sexual risk behaviors were associated with substance abuse or dependence. Furthermore, results of this study showed that children of addicted parents were predicted to be at higher risk of drug abuse. Results from a study indicated that there is a relation between substance abuse, and risky sexual behaviors resulting in sexually transmitted diseases. In both articles, are related to Markwood's theory of drug abuse prevention (2011), through increasing awareness, and social involvement. Markwood (2011), elaborating CTSAP, indicated that parents have a unique role in substance abuse prevention. Markwood (2011), through CTSAP, argued

that parents who avoid substance use themselves during pregnancy and avoid substance abuse at all times, and who ensure safe and nurturing family environment for their children's early years are being the best single resource of lowering risk of their children later using substances.

Hargreaves (2015), on the research evaluation on school-based drug education and prevention, argued that interactive learning is arguably an essential aspect of effective drug education and that school curricula must include school-based drug education. A strategy about drug and alcohol education would have a positive impact on prevention of future substance abuse among students. Educational policies for dissemination of risk regarding substance abuse reflect positive impact in the reduction of this phenomenon. One of the main elements of Markwood's CTSAP, is that parents that lack the care of their children and do not create healthy environment, where children of ages as young as 2-3 years are vulnerable to major lapses in care, which treatment of their ability to form a solid bond with their parents or other adult caretakers have very big impact on their later life.

In another research using a survey of 590 secondary schools, students and a study of 288 teachers in the U.K. about a collective experience of drug education, Thurman and Boughelaf (2015), found that majority of schools "provided less than two hours of drug education every 12 months" (p.135). Furthermore, results from this study indicated that students as high as 38% reported that there was not enough drug education in their schools, while teachers stated that there was not enough space in the curriculum for drug abuses and also emphasizing the lack of advanced knowledge about drug education

(Thurman & Boughelaf, 2015). In this context, Markwood (2011) on his CTSAP, explained that school prevention curricula could range from very helpful (addressing media elements such as media literacy and revisions of perception of peer use) to counterproductive (unintentionally reinforcing perceptions that most youth use substances, or even showing how to use). This is why experts must be involved in school training of youths and provide better bases for risks of drug use.

Chinwe Onyilofor and Chinelo (2015) researched developed a structured questionnaire, with a sample of 450 individuals, among them 150 professional counselors. In their research about the strategies that contribute to eradicate drug abuse among students, Chinwe et al. (2015), concluded that education, encouragement, right caliber of teachers or professional counselors, desirable knowledge and working with significant others in the life of the client are among the most effective strategies for eradication of drug abuse among students. It is apparent that a combination of partnership and collaboration of schools, professionals and significant others could increase the risk awareness at youth about drug abuse. On the other hand, Klisch et al. (2013), in their quasi-experiment with 179 participants from grades 11 to 12, assigned in a pretest of two gameplay sessions (games with scientific content about drugs) and a posttest on prescription drug abuse attitudes, found that the participants demonstrated more negative attitudes toward prescription drug abuse after playing the game. With educative programs and prevention strategies comes the cost or burden of a budget that many schools do not have. A research study conducted by Caputi (2015), found that many schools in the United States have drug prevention and education programs. However, small budget

schools often do not implement prevention programs due to high costs, which limit prevention implementation in needed areas. Jozaghi and Reid (2015), through their qualitative semistructured interviews with peer volunteers in Canada, found that peers took the important role in education and safety function and were able to alter abusive behavior, attitude, and intention of injecting drug users. CTSAP (Markwood, 2011), emphasized mainly parents' role in substance abuse prevention. Based on this theory, educative programs in itself cannot be very effective if parents are not involved and apply antidrinking and antidrug rules for their children. However, according to Markwood's (2011) CTSAP, people such as parents and public officials must first understand profoundly challenged children, and socially influenced teens to succeed in drug prevention.

Kallen et al. (2012), applied epidemiologically based randomized field trial design, with total of "19 schools, 41 classrooms and 1,196 first grade children within five urban areas" (p.9), while one group was assigned to special education, the other was assigned randomly to nonspecial education, the teachers that had special training about drug abuses and other delinquent behaviors, had better results than non-special educators. Markwood's (2011) CTSAP, indicated that restrictions against youth access to substance are very effective, however, education and media campaigns that focus on one of the gateway substances and target parents and other adults or pre-teens (from ages 10 to 20) have long-term positive effect in drug prevention.

In an analysis of the war on drugs, taking into consideration one group of people that by the most body of research has ignored, Lloyd (2015), argued that among five

types of policy reforms, none of them touched the impact of such changes to a group of most vulnerable children. Lloyd (2015), found that no policy addressed all risk themes and that community-based sanctions mitigated more risks to children than the other types (reform to mandatory penalties, modified sentencing) of drug policy reforms. Lloyd (2015) explained that the average prison sentence for drug offenses is 87.2 months; thus, the children would suffer more from sentencing because their wellbeing is weakened. Lloyd (2015) concluded that policy reforms must include the effects of social work education and community-based sanctions as the most practical approaches to address drug phenomenon. Drug abused laws based on empirical research; punish not only drug offenders but also their children, for this reason, policymakers and reformers must take into consideration the consequences that children pay (Lloyd, 2015). Concerning Markwood's (2011) CTSAP, indicated that restrictions against youth access to drugs are very effective to the extent that adults, in general, have enough understanding of the reason for those restrictions or enough trust in policymakers to stand by the law or policy. In this context, the theory suggested that youths must fully understand the issue of drug abuse (this is reached by education awareness and parent intervention).

In a study about drug enforcement and its relation to drug user treatment rate, McGallagly, and McKeganey (2013), drawing data from three major law enforcement operations found that in the aftermath of each operation the proportion of drug users contacting drug treatment services was markedly increased. McGallagly and McKeganey (2013), argued that policymakers, and legislative body, must view drug enforcement and complementary treatment elements of comprehensive drug strategy. Results of this



research indicated that there is a more significant benefit if there is a combination of therapy and drug enforcement. In a research evaluating drug abuse by strangers in many countries (Australia, U.S, Russia, and Mexico), Des Jarlais (2015), argued that psychoactive drug used by strangers, foreigners, and minority groups are likely to be perceived as being a threat to the patterns of acceptable, normed behavior and to integrity and safety of the dominant group. Des Jarlais (2015), analyzing strict drug laws, concluded that criminalization of drug possession without effective prevention and treatment might generate more criminal enterprise and promote illegal drug markets. This is why Des Jarlais (2015), emphasized the importance of empirical findings and implement those results into antidrug strategies and drug policy. War on drugs caused collateral damage such as mass incarceration, racial discrimination and disproportion increase of inmate population, and in this regard Nickerson and Attaran (2012), analyzing The Global Commission on Drug Policy, argued that The European Union's Reuter-Trautmann Report found no evidence that war on drugs succeeded, and that drug problem reduced by intensifying efforts and criminalization of drug abuse. CTSAP (Markwood, 2011), suggested that strict policies against drugs, without social support, and involvement of adults (parents and experts), deem to be ineffective.

In a study analyzing archival and secondary sources, Seddon (2016), argued that the war on drugs and prohibition laws bear traces of genealogy, notably how drug law enforcement often contribute to racial and social injustice. Seddon (2016), explained that the term "drug" does not exist in nature, however historically was instituted on the bases of moral and political evaluation. In this context, Seddon (2016), argued that since the

declaration of war on drugs on Jun 1971 from Nixon, this philosophy became very popular, that brought a populist politics into the mainstream of drug policy. After the analysis of archived data and secondary sources, Seddon (2016) concluded that prohibition policies and the war on drugs philosophy contributed significantly in racial discrimination and social injustice, due to a mass arrest rate of minority groups. Markwood (2011) on his CTSAP, argued that policy must fit within the range of public support, and should be designed to act upon a youth substance access channel that is among the main ones for youth in that place, and is free of problems such as technical details that are impractical to carry out or enforce, it will be successful.

Using sample of 450 individuals, among them 150 professional counselors, through survey design, to find if current antidrug strategies contributed to eradicating drug abuse and reduction of drug use, Chinwe Onyilofor and Chinelo (2015), argued that education encouragement and the desirable specific knowledge of teachers or professional counselors, had positive impact and was greatly associated with drug use reduction. This research tested the hypothesis that antidrug strategy through education encouragement resulted in juvenile drug arrest reduction. However, this research is entirely qualitative, and the main limitation of it was that it was conducted at one point of time, and not supported by official statistical data of drug use after the strategy implementation.

Using quantitative research, through a survey of 590 secondary school students and a study of 288 teachers in the United Kingdom, Thurman, and Boughelaf (2015), argued that less than two hours of drug education within a year, are not enough. Thurman

and Boughelaf (2015), found that as high as 38% reported that there was not enough drug education, therefore, education did not have desired results in reducing drug issues. The number of respondents of only 38% is not very high, therefore, the majority of students did not agree with them, thus, this study is controversial in this regard.

It is apparent that each study is related to drug education as a measure of drug use reduction and prevention as indicated in a theoretical framework. Educative programs rooted in curriculums and strategies seem to have a positive impact on drug use. Even though aforementioned studies are quantitative in nature, most of them lack the involvement of antidrug experts and experts from law enforcement in giving their perspective on this issue. Previous studies were very important to shape this research, in understanding the law enforcement experiences, their involvement in educative programs in various schools and also overall analyzing statistical data to see if the antidrug strategy had positive, did not have an impact or had a negative impact.

Analyzing archived data associated to harm reduction teaching resources designed for classroom use and social marketing campaigns in Australia, using Drawing on Deleuzian theory Farrugia (2014), argued that education programs are not enough for drug use reduction, but rather there is needed drug education pedagogy. Since this study is based entirely on google search documentation and archived data, it has its limitation. In this study, Farrugia (2014), emphasized that youths in Australia, trying to escape drug use, can suffer negative feelings or affects such as a feeling of distress. It is unclear, of how the educative programs can impact negatively even for those drug users in schools.

However, this research lacks the appropriate design and deeper analysis of variables of why and how additional knowledge about drug use could cause counter effects at youths.

In a study through focus group design with 11 groups of age 14-16 years old, Meehan (2017), found that underage groups took drugs for lack of knowledge and education about the risk of using drugs. This study pointed out that education through policy implementation in a similar way as an antidrug strategy had a positive effect on drug use reduction. The strength of this study is that the author used 11 groups of underage students, which consisted of valuable analysis for given research question of education impact on drug use reduction. It is unknown if the same results would come out if a researcher did qualitative research with other group-age students, and also with antidrug experts. In another qualitative research conducted by Jozaghi and Reid (2015), through semistructured interviews with peer volunteers in Canada, argued that peer education system played a crucial role in education and safety function and were able to alter abusive behavior, attitude, and intention of injecting drug users. This research offered some important points, but it could have been even stronger if the researcher also interviewed experts about the role of education in drug prevention policy and its effects and impact in the reduction of drug use in society.

Past research indicated that drug abuse prevention could be a very challenging process. In their study, about the development of empirically based, culturally grounded drug prevention intervention for youth, Okamoto et al. (2014), argued that culturally grounded drug prevention program through the cultivation of values, beliefs, and worldviews of healthy youth had a positive effect in drug prevention. Furthermore,

Okamoto et al. (2014), concluded that culturally grounded prevention intervention for indigenous youth populations had been shown to be effective in reducing substance use in the schools. Substance abuse phenomenon is very complicated, and punitive measures seem to be ineffective because there is a disconnection between incarceration and crime rate (Lancaster et al., 2015; Patten 2016; McGallagly & McKaganey, 2013). Enforcing punitive measures and also the war on drugs philosophy did not decrease drug-related crimes. In research about enforcing drug laws and policy, Alexandris (2017) found that drug law enforcement exacerbated and increased harms to users, worsened public health levels, and reproduced social exclusion and division, through patterns of race disadvantage. In their research about drug strategy that addressed the harmful use of illicit drugs and other psychoactive substance through collaboration of law enforcement and educative institutions, Wong and Manning (2017), argued that proactive enforcement tactics involving partnerships with external agents show more promising effects on reducing drug dealing and controlling drug market than reactive policing options. In this study (Wong & Manning, 2017), participated 12 drug policy experts, 13 law enforcement experts, and 16 health workers, with the focus on contributing factors to drug abuse and policy implications, and results showed that experts collectively considered social and environmental factors to be the most important associated with drug involvement of youth.

In their evaluation of National Drug Control Policy in the U.S., Sacco and Finklea (2014) elaborated that drug control policy should also target high drug trafficking areas, to reduce this phenomenon.

Prevention of drug use as a phenomenon among youths is still the ongoing struggle for both parents and law enforcement agencies. In general drug use begins at an early age, or during adolescence (Markwood, 2011, van Wel, Rosiers, & Van Hal, 2016). Through education, this phenomenon is reduced greatly (Chinwe et al., 2015; Caputi, 2015; Hargreaves, 2015). In a research through secondary data analysis about the effectiveness of drug use prevention, Jiloha (2017), elaborated that school-based prevention and skill-training intervention are effective tools to reduce substance use among adolescents. Jiloha (2017), emphasized that early intervention through educative programs is key to drug use reduction and prevention since the drug use begins at early adolescence.

Drug use in general begins at an early age (Markwood, 2011). In a study using surveys conducted on three occasions during 2005, 2009, and 2013, at several higher education institutions with a total sample size of 24,478, 29,210, and 31,950, van Wel et al. (2016), argued that average mean age of drug use was 19 to 22. Van Wel et al. (2016) found that a large proportion of students use illegal substances such as cannabis at 24.5% in consequent years of study with a slight decrease in 2013 to 19%. Drug use in most of the cases begins at the early age of students (Jiloha, 2017; Markwood, 2011, van Wel et al., 2016). Early intervention through the educative program could reduce drug use because this would increase drug use awareness among youths.

Previous studies showed that strict laws against narcotics are ineffective to reduce drug use (Des Jarlais, 2015; Duenas, 2017; Houborg et al., 2014, Lancaster, 2016). Previous research indicated that targeting youths at risk with educative programs based

on policies, and providing intervention plan is effective. NSAN focused many of its resources in educative programs, where experts such as antidrug officers train students and conduct awareness campaigns about risks of drug use (National Strategy, 2012).

Evaluating United States Strategy for War on Drugs, Duenas (2017), argued that supply reduction through legislation, law enforcement, prosecution and incarceration effort yielded negative results because traffickers always find ways to smuggle drugs. However, demand-reduction through education, prevention, and treatment, based on 2015 National Drug Control Policy Performance Report, resulted in 44 % demand reduction (Duenas, 2017). Thus, educative programs and an increase of awareness reflected in drug reduction demand.

### **Prohibition**

Prohibition policy through arrest rates and police intervention was another variable that shed light on its effectiveness in criminal justice and drug use reduction through demand reduction.

In a research about harm reduction policy and politics in the U.S., Nadelmann and LaSalle (2017), offered a new approach to harm and demand reduction, suggesting European approaches such as legalization and therapy-oriented policy. Comparing the drug control policy in Europe and Australia, Nadelmann and LaSalle (2017), argued that drug addicts are often stigmatized because they are obliged to appear at special clinics, instead of being able to prescribe various drugs that do not require visitation of these centers. In this study, it is known that rehabilitative policies can contribute to drug recovery, but this and similar studies do not answer main research questions if the policy

would impact on drug use reduction, in a context of drug prevention for youth. In another study using quantitative approach in Canada, through screening process to generate 54 provincial and territorial harm reduction policy documents in 2015, Hyshka et al. (2017), found that policies rarely named specific harm reduction interventions, and only two jurisdictions had current provincial level reduction policies, all others were focused on either substance abuse or addiction and mental health, or sexually transmitted infections. Even in the previous study, harm reduction is taken as the unit of analysis, leaving prevention factor behind.

Ferri et al. (2015), conducted a research analyzing six drug-related strategies with a focus on drug prevention, involving 148 countries in four continents, found that environmental prevention approach is effective not only with target population but also in promoting synergies and integration among many stakeholders involved. Furthermore, Ferri et al. (2015), argued that three core elements of prevention should not be ignored, such as: reducing exposure to drugs, promoting a healthy lifestyle and creating a safer environment. On the other hand, Herzberg et al. (2017), argued that application of three approaches together, voluntarily educational campaigns, followed by supply-side policing and involvement of public health responses would be a key to harm reduction philosophy. This has rarely happened because a policy has been shaped by the racially charged division of drug users into deserving and morally salvageable victims or fearsome and morally repugnant criminals concluded Herzberg et al. (2017). In both of these researchers, it is not clear if the strategies target only youths or also general population and there is not a clear line, to what extent there is effectiveness taking into consideration



controversy of involvement of stakeholders that could impact the results of the study. In a study analyzing archival and secondary sources, Seddon (2016), argued that the war on drugs and prohibition laws bear traces of genealogy, notably how drug law enforcement often contribute to racial and social injustice. Seddon (2016), explained that the term "drug" does not exist in nature, however historically was instituted on the bases of moral and political evaluation. In this context, Seddon (2016), argued that since the declaration of war on drugs on Jun 1971 from Nixon, this philosophy became very popular, that brought a populist politics into the mainstream of drug policy. After the analysis of archived data and secondary sources, Seddon (2016) concluded that prohibition policies and the war on drugs philosophy contributed significantly in racial discrimination and social injustice, due to a mass arrest rate of minority groups.

Prohibition policies, high arrest rates do not bring positive results in addressing drug use (Des Jarlais, 2015; Duenas, 2017; Lancaster, 2016; Houborg et al., 2014). Evaluating United States Strategy for War on Drugs, and antidrug policy through targeting high drug areas (Duenas, 2017; Seddon, 2016) and analyzing drug arrest rates (Bowen & Redmond, 2016; Burke-Shyne et al., 2017), results appointed that harsh policies, strategies that are focused on drug arrest rates, targeting illegal drug markets are ineffective (Burke-Shyne et al., 2017).

### **Intervention**

Intervention is another important variable in this study, taking into consideration that intervention at an early stage of drug use could prevent drug use. In a study using

surveys conducted on three occasions during 2005, 2009, and 2013, at several higher education institutions with a total sample size of 24,478, 29,210, and 31,950, van Wel et al. (2016), argued that average mean age of drug use was 19 to 22, van Wel et al. (2016) found that a large proportion of students use illegal substances such as cannabis at 24.5 % in consequent years of study with a slight decrease in 2013 to 19%. Drug use in most of the cases begins at the early age of students (Jiloha, 2017; Markwood, 2011, van Wel et al., 2016). Early intervention through the educative program could reduce drug use because this would increase drug use awareness among youths. In a research about harm reduction policy and politics in the United States, Nadelmann and LaSalle (2017), offered a new approach to harm and demand reduction, suggesting European approaches such as legalization and therapy-oriented policy. Comparing the drug control policy in Europe and Australia, Nadelmann and LaSalle (2017), argued that drug addicts are often stigmatized because they are obliged to appear at special clinics, instead of being able to prescribe various drugs that do not require visitation of these centers.

In another study in Canada, through screening process to generate 54 provincial and territorial harm reduction policy documents in 2015, Hyshka et al. (2017), found that policies rarely named specific harm reduction interventions, and only two jurisdictions had current provincial level reduction policies, all others were focused on either substance abuse or addiction and mental health, or sexually transmitted infections.

Previous studies showed that strict laws against narcotics are ineffective to reduce drug use (Des Jarlais, 2015; Duenas, 2017; Houborg et al., 2014Lancaster, 2016).

Previous research indicated that targeting youths at risk with educative programs based

on policies, and providing intervention plan is effective. NSAN focused many of its resources in educative programs, where experts such as antidrug officers train students and conduct awareness campaigns about risks of drug use (National Strategy, 2012).

### **Legalization**

Legalization is another option that researchers considered to address drug issue. In a conference about drug control policy reform, deputy attorney general Cole (2013), offered a new approach to drug control policy, an approach that was oriented toward avoidance of criminal conviction, with the bases that this could positively affect the defendant's ability to reintegrate into society in years to come successfully. Cole (2013) argued that criminal justice policies must be revised, giving opportunities those drug users that are not serious users and those that use drugs like marijuana and other light drugs.

Maier, Mannes and Koppenhofer (2017), conducted a research about the effect of decriminalization of recreational and medical marijuana, analyzing Uniform Crime Report data for all 50 U.S. states, found that in states where marijuana has been decriminalized and states where medical marijuana has been legalized in states that did not legalize it, the results show that the trend of property and violent crime rates appear to be lower in both decriminalized states with not statistically significant. Maier et al. (2017), concluded that legalization of recreational drugs did not reduce the crime rate, and analysis showed that there are no significant differences in 2014 between states that legalized marijuana and those that did not legalize marijuana. On the other hand, Glick (2017), through research about a compromise of recreational drug policy, argued that

neither legalization, nor prohibition is effective to reduce substance abuse rate, but rather centralized-use is a middle of legalization and prohibition that could be successful. Glick (2017) concluded that centralized-use approach that would incorporate many of the benefits of legalization while respecting worries of those who support prohibition would be the best formula for addressing this phenomenon.

In a research about criminalization of drugs and its implications using a case study of *Burn v The Queen*, Mostyn, Gibbon, and Cowdery (2012), argued that criminal law cannot solve the majority of social problems and drug abuse, in spite of legislative efforts, that distort and erode the principles of criminal law. In short, Mostyn et al. (2012), elaborated that there are unintended consequences of drug prohibition, just like in case of Burns that The High Court in Australia, "held that unlawful supplying a drug to someone does not, by itself, form the basis for unlawful and dangerous act manslaughter" (p.246). Furthermore, Mostyn et al. (2012) concluded that prohibition could cause more crime than preventing them, and there are bigger consequences than legalizing certain drugs.

In research about the historical context of substance abuse, policy, and legalization process, Adrian (2015), elaborated that there are more drug nonusers than users in population; social policies tend to be directed at preventing, restricting and punishing selected use, users, and drugs. Adrian (2015), argued that policy-makers must consider consequences of each policy. Adrian (2015), analyzed historical context of previous drug control policies and found that whatever wish or intent of policymakers

was in the past regarding drug control, those drug control policies and laws always produced additional and unplanned consequences and often adverse effects.

Legalization even though would reduce drug arrests (Glick, 2017; Maier, Mannes & Koppenhofer, 2017), and could have a positive impact in criminal justice (Adrian, 2015; Maier et al., 2017). The controversy behind this legalization philosophy is that legalization would not reduce drug use. With the decriminalization, the arrest rate will be lower (Glick, 2017; Maier et al., 2017), but drug use rate would increase due to many factors, such as cheaper price of drugs, but this could impact criminal justice system, reducing racial discrimination, because most of the drug arrest cases are related to minority groups (Bowen & Redmond (2016).

It is apparent that prohibition policies worldwide did not succeed in reducing high drug-related crimes (Duenas, 2017; Des Jarlais, 2015; Duenas, 2017; Houborg et al., 2014; Lancaster, 2016; Seddon, 2016), neither had it addressed the reduction of drug abuse rate. A body of research based on findings from various qualitative and quantitative data suggested that a combination of various components, educative programs, training for young students at their early 19s, policy intervention could have a positive impact in drug use prevention and drug use reduction (Jiloha, 2017; Klisch et al., 2013; Lloyd, 2015; Markwood, 2011; Skinner et al., 2014; van Wel et al., 2016). Two other elements such as prohibition and legalization philosophies are seen by both opposing sides with skepticism. Another body of research focused on education and increase of awareness about risk factors, and consequences of substance abuse. This approach seems to be very effective based on statistical data; however, there is a limitation because already abusers

won't benefit from education since they are already suffering the consequences. To help drug addicts, there must therapy and rehabilitation programs. In this context, some studies pointed out that treatment and also offering opportunities to victims of substance abuse is crucial, and that could be reached through a combination of religious programs and spiritual leadership (Connolly & Grandfield, 2017; Okamoto et al., 2014; Nedelec, Richardson, & Silver, 2017).

In few studies about educational programs in schools are important, however results showed that many schools have designed simple sessions in their curricula about drug abuse phenomenon, but they either lack specialized staff to teach those subjects or lack budget to implement such topics in schools (Friend et al., 2015; Klisch et al., 2013; Okamoto et al., 2014; Thurman, & Boughelaf, 2015; Von Hout, & Brennan, 2012). On the other hand, from a critical viewpoint, if educational programs are implemented, there is missing literature about how these programs would impact parent drug users. Another point that took a significant space in this review of the literature was the impact of war on drugs at a global scale with a focus in the United States. There isn't any study that brought positive results that war on drugs reduced substance abuse and drug-related crime. As a consequence of this, it is certain that the war on drugs alone as philosophy without other components such as treatment and education is not effective and just damaged criminal justice system. War on drugs led to many policy implications, such as racial discrimination, racial mass incarcerations, and social injustice.

From qualitative components, key phenomena being studies are policy implication and its impact on juvenile drug use prevention and criminal justice system.

Houborg et al. (2014) analyzing Copenhagen case study of policing and shift of police strategy from 1990 to 2012 and from 2012 and further, in relation to drug issues, argued that during 90s police strategy was mainly subjective focusing on drug-fighting crimes, more police in the streets implementing zero tolerance, doomed to failure. Comparing two phases of these strategies, Houborg et al. (2014), concluded that zero tolerance strategy, was ineffective, and that drug users were primarily constructed as legal subjects with criminal records, while non enforcement strategy from 2012, represented new construct treating drug users as inhabitants of public spaces, allowing them to get different social services that are situated in such areas. Segregation and labeling drug users as criminals in the past had a negative impact on society.

In a research about the effectiveness of National Drug Control Strategy of 2010 and 2014, in the United States aiming to reduce drug use rate of 15%, Sacco and Finklea (2014), argued that revisions of strategy could attain this goal, by proposing initiatives to bolster community-based drug prevention efforts, expand health care opportunities. Furthermore, Sacco and Finklea (2014), concluded that in order for this strategy to be effective, National Drug Office must implement prescription drug abuse action plan (involving health centers), implement strategy at the United States Border with efforts to disrupt drug traffickers and destroy their network, and creating national drug control budget which will serve as substance abuse treatment, substance abuse prevention programs, and research about substance abuse.

In another study in regard to analysis of effectiveness of current drug control policy in the United Kingdom, Taylor, Buchanan and Ayres (2016), argued that even

though current drug control policy in the United Kingdom, seeks to vindicate itself by continuing to assert that illicit drugs cause a wide range of harms, and that drug prohibition protects society from these harms, the evidence indicates that the present drug policy is causing more harm and offering little or no benefits to either users or nonusers. Taylor et al. (2016), elaborated that prohibition had a negative impact during 1950/1960s, thus creating "drug apartheid" and "a brutal system of inclusion and exclusion, rooted in politics and culture of maintaining power and privileges" (p.463). In this context, in a research about the war on drugs and sentencing policies in the United States, Neill (2014), argued that several factors that influenced punitive drug policy are the desire to control threatening populations, a conservative political environment, and incentives to pursue drug crimes.

In a research about drug policy, investigating not only from control perspective but also from health and welfare issues, Bjerger, Houborg, and Frank (2013), argued that policymakers must include in the policy-making process all stakeholders, and in this case, drug policy must also include health care representative. Bjerger et al. (2013), found that social constructivist model of the system showed positive effects since it included all stakeholders. Analyzing data from Center for Alcohol and Drug Research, Bjerger et al. (2013), concluded that the social constructivist model of policy analysis and government-oriented approach in combination with each other showed to be very effective to address drug issue not only at the control level but also harm reduction, prevention, and treatment.



Wallace (2012), in a study on knowledge transition for community-based drug treatment, argued that prohibition policies and policies supporting the war on drugs were a reflection of political orientation, and often misuse of power, but not based on empirical research results. Furthermore, Wallace (2012), found that community-based treatment programs were successful in addressing this phenomenon, while acknowledging the negative impact of the United States' policies of the war on drugs that led to massive incarceration, causing the correctional system to collapse. A public health approach must be implemented but at the same time to hold core goals such as health equity, ethical practice, and sufficient knowledge transition, permitting community-based programs to serve as an alternative to the prohibition policies and mass incarceration, concluded Wallace (2012).

Keck and Correa-Cabrea (2015), in their research about the United States drug policy, using statistical data to determine if the border enforcement along the United States, border influenced the illegal drug supply, found a positive significant relationship between border enforcement and cocaine and marijuana seizure, with no significant effect with regard to heroin seizure. Furthermore, Keck and Correa-Cabrea (2015), found no statistically significant relationship between border enforcement and the price of marijuana. This study also showed that there is no statistical significance of the relationship between drug prices and border enforcement.

Burke-Shyne et al. (2017), in their research about the impact of drug control policy and access to controlled medicines using case studies, argued that criminal justice response to controlled substances by prohibiting them and penalizing misuse, in many

cases violated the right of people who needed them. In a case study of 2015 of Human Rights Watch report, in a flagrant violation of patient confidentiality and rights, oncologists reported required to provide monthly reports to the police, disclosing patients who received opioid pain relief (Burke-Shyne et al., 2017). Burke-Shyne et al. (2017), argued that reporting patients' information to police could limit access to medication and also impact in the stigma of patients; therefore, drug control policy must be modified with the component of privacy, including respect for private and family life. Burke-Shyne et al. (2017), concluded that elements of overzealous drug controlled led to mass incarceration for minor offenses, even cloaked the guise of health cancers. Using multiple case studies in many countries, Burke-Shyne et al. (2017), argued that mass denial of opioids for people that needed them indicated that there is health inequity and in violation of human rights.

Bowen and Redmond (2016), evaluating prohibition policy and its implications, argued that mass incarceration led to racial discrimination and high arrest rate of minority group members. Evaluating statistical data, Bowen and Redmond (2016), found that arrest rate was higher among minority groups about drug offenses.

War on drugs caused collateral damage such as mass incarceration, racial discrimination and disproportion increase of inmate population, and in this regard Nickerson and Attaran (2012), analyzing The Global Commission on Drug Policy, argued that The European Union's Reuter-Trautmann Report found no evidence that war on drugs succeeded, and that drug problem reduced by intensifying efforts and criminalization of drug abuse.

The idea that drug-related crimes are reduced by prohibition seems to be inaccurate, and in this context, Patten (2016), in research about mass incarceration and a global war on drugs, found that there was a disconnection between incarceration and crime rate. Despite strict enforcement of drug control policy, Patten (2016), argued that global drug war policies had led to massive incarceration, but at the same time did not reduce drug-related crimes.

Reuter and Pardo (2017), analyzing new psychoactive substances, explained that there would be new challenges for policymakers since there is a rapid advance in chemistry, technology and communication thus entities are creating new drugs, posing new challenges for law enforcement to recognize them. Reuter and Pardo, (2017), found that the bias toward prohibition is impossible to avoid in case of these drugs, even when considering existing consumer safety laws. Reuter and Pardo (2017), blamed the political and individual decision-making process because most of these drugs do not cause harm; thus, there are potential gains from developing low risk new psychoactive substances. Harden (2015), supported the argument that often regulators and decision makers often ignore scientific facts, and in a lack of transparency they approve various laws and in this case drug control policies.

Felix and Portugal (2017), conducted empirical research on drug decriminalization and price of illicit drugs, consisting of an empirical assessment of the impact of the drug decriminalization policy in Portugal in July 2001, argued that the costs of opiates and cocaine did not decrease following new decriminalization policy.

Furthermore, Felix and Portugal (2017), found that drug decriminalization would not necessarily lead to a dramatic increase in usage rates.

In a research about drug legalization in Central America, Cachanosky, Zelaya, and Block (2014), argued that with legalization there is drug trade increase, and since drug trade has risen in the region, crime has increased. Cachanosky et al. (2014), criticized the war on drug, as a failure of authorities to prevent substance abuse, not only in general population but even in maximum security prisons. Cachanosky et al. (2014), concluded that legalization in Central America, where most of the people, live in poverty, thus most people would seek a way out and try to profit, resulting in a chaotic situation.

Most of the literature reviewed in a context of qualitative components is focused on policy prevention and policy effectiveness on the criminal justice system. Such literature served to better understand that neither prohibition nor legalization could have a positive impact on the criminal justice system.

Policies that favor legalization are not effective to reduce drug-related crimes (Cachanosky et al., 2014), but prohibition policies also have negative effects in criminal justice leading to racial discrimination (Bowen, & Redmond, 2016; Buchanan, & Ayres, 2016; Reuter, & Pardo, 2017; Patten, 2016). A combination of policymakers' decision in cooperation with community and stakeholders in creating prevention policies deem successful (Bjerge et al., 2013; Burke-Shyne et al., 2017).

### **Summary and Conclusion**

Most of the literature regarding drug control policy is conducted through the quantitative approach and less emphasis on qualitative design. The primary focus of previous research was the evaluation past and current drug control policies at a global scale. Key variables treated through literature review were: Education, prohibition, intervention, and legalization.

What is known in the discipline is that the in a global scale drug abuse still is increasing, while prohibition policies dominate in most of the world countries. Another fact that is known from past research is that there isn't any single approach by itself that would be adequate and sufficient to decrease this phenomenon. A combination of three main factors, education, prevention though enforcing border control, eradicating black drug markets, and treatment, could reduce drug abuse rates, and prevent future abuses. What is unknown still is that there are the limited researchers about how effective can be an antidrug strategy that targets parents through education, and how effective the strategy is. There is a wide gap in the literature about the effectiveness of NSAN in Kosovo. NSAN was implemented in 2012, however up to date there is not a single research study, measuring the effectiveness of it, and if this strategy had a positive impact in reducing this issue.

Current NSAN in Kosovo varies from past drug control policy because in the past law enforcement agencies dealt with harsh punishment and police raid in various locations. Until 2009 there was not any antidrug strategy, except only laws that were designed to punish those on possession of any amount of psychoactive substances. In

2009 Kosovo government developed the antidrug strategy to address mainly demand reduction (Antidrug Strategy, 2009). At a national level, there were no studies and research concerning drug use among general population since 2000 up to 2008 where the European Union conducted a survey using various sample sizes and targeting different groups (National Kosovo Report, 2014). Only in 2008, Kosovo Parliament approved the law on Narcotics, psychotropic substances and precursors, which dictated that use and possession, production and trafficking of illegal drugs are considered as violations of Criminal Code of Kosovo (National Kosovo Report, 2014). Except for punishment and arrests, there were not any educative programs for children and not any program for parents before approval of NSAN. According to European Monitoring Center for Drugs and Drug Addiction (EMCDDA, 2010), the office of the Prime Minister of Kosovo in 2004 initiated the establishment of the Kosovar Committee for Intervention in Drug Cases but was not able to function and give any result expected in the fight against juvenile drug use. It is assumed that this was due to the lack of educative programs and prevention mechanisms such as antidrug strategies and action plans. In 2007, the Ministry of Health complied National Strategy on Mental Health, which included treatment and services for drug addicts (Department of State, 2010). Before this strategy, and even after this strategy, until 2009, the only non-government organization that conducted drug awareness campaigns and ran treatment programs was Labyrinth (Department of States, 2010). Until the development of NSAN, Kosovo authorities suppressed drug traffickers trying to eradicate drug-related offenses. Before the development of NSAN and action plan, the phenomenon of juvenile drug abuse in schools and community was unknown,

the level of awareness about this phenomenon almost did not exist. It is unknown whether past prohibition and punishment laws had any impact because there is not any research conducted in this regard. Neither there is a clear picture of whether current strategy against narcotics has had an impact in reducing drug-related crime and drug arrest rate. Current NSAN also has action plan to implement educative programs in schools, with a minimum of 400 professional training courses for teachers, and parents, and also a treatment for abusers (National Strategy, 2012). Another important point incorporated in a current NSAN is the prevention of drug abuse at youth by educative programs and through targeting parents (National Strategy, 2012; Markwood, 2011). None of the previous drug control policies had such a profound development as the NSAN enacted in 2012, therefore studying its impact on the reduction of juvenile drug arrests and also its impact on criminal justice system is crucial. The methodology chapter will address in detail the filling of current literature gap through research approach for given topic.

## Chapter 3: Methodology

### **Introduction**

The purpose of this research was to assess the effectiveness of the NSAN in reducing juvenile drug arrest rate in Kosovo. In this chapter, the attributes of the secondary data were evaluated. Research design and rationale are included in this chapter explaining the main justification for this research. In the last section of this chapter, I included the role of researcher, methodology design, instrumentation, participant selection and data collection, data analysis plan, threats to validity and trustworthiness issues, ethical procedures, and a summary.

To determine the effectiveness of the strategy, two main research questions were presented.

Research Question 1: Has the National Strategy Against Narcotics (NSAN) been effective in reducing the juvenile drug arrest rate in Kosovo?

Research Question 2: How do Kosovo police officers assigned to an antidrug unit perceive the impact of the National Strategy against Narcotics (NSAN) on juvenile drug arrests?

Mixed methods were used to evaluate the NSAN using the CTSAP for a theoretical framework. Deidentified secondary data about juvenile drug arrests were visualized through a scatterplot table. Additionally, I conducted qualitative interviews with antidrug officers that deal with juvenile cases. Both research questions deal with the impact of drug control policy in reducing juvenile drug-related arrests and drug issues through educative programs rooted in the NSAN in Kosovo. Research Question 1 was



examined through analyzing deidentified secondary data collected by police in relation to the juvenile drug arrest rate. Research Question 2 was addressed by interviewing Kosovo police experts. Because experts are involved in educational programs to increase awareness of drug abuse consequences, it was expected that drug use would decrease, which could impact positively criminal justice system in Kosovo. To assess these research questions, a multimethodological approach (mixed methods) was employed.

### **Setting**

The study was conducted in Kosovo, but interviews occurred in Pristina, which is Kosovo's capital city. The Kosovo Police (which are the only police in Kosovo) were chosen for this study because this organization is actively involved in the implementation of the NSAN. There have not been any assessments of the NSAN since its implementation in 2012, and the impact remains unknown on juvenile drug related arrests in Kosovo. The Kosovo Police is the only police organization in Kosovo, with 8,914 employees, of which 7,833 are police officers, while 1,081 are civilian staff, policing and enforcing the law of overall population of about 2 million citizens (Annual Report, 2016). The Kosovo Police director of the antidrug department has approved the request of this research (see Appendix A). I delivered flyers (see Appendix B) to police, and informed police officers about voluntarily participation of officers who are directly involved in the implementation of NSAN programs and juvenile cases. I gave the flyer to the antidrug information office for dissemination to all antidrug officers in Narcotic Department, and those who wished to participate in an interview could contact me directly.

Monthly police crime data from the Kosovo Police was a valuable tool to see how many arrests were made concerning juvenile drug violations. These were deidentified secondary data (just the crime rates without any additional information about the juveniles). With the implementation of educative programs in the schools as designed on NSAN action plan, this could contribute to juvenile drug arrest rate reduction, and increased awareness through parents and school programs may impact the juvenile drug related arrest. If the educative programs and also the involvement of parents as described in NSAN of 2012, had impact, the coming years from the implementation will result in the decrease of juvenile drug arrest.

### **Research Design and Rationale**

For this study, mixed methods were used, because a combination of quantitative data with qualitative could shed light on the evaluation of NSAN in Kosovo. Official public data from the Kosovo Police were visualized, and compared to January 2009 to January 2015 regarding juvenile drug arrests and strategy implementation in 2012. A qualitative design was applied to interview antidrug experts from Kosovo Police. This approach was applied to answer main research questions:

Research Question 1: Has the National Strategy Against Narcotics (NSAN) been effective in reducing the juvenile drug arrest rate in Kosovo?

Research Question 2: How do Kosovo police officers assigned to an antidrug unit perceive the impact of the National Strategy Against Narcotics (NSAN) on juvenile drug arrests?

The main concept or phenomenon of this study was the impact of NSAN in reducing juvenile drug arrest rates through keeping juveniles away from drugs based on education programs, and perceived impact of this strategy based on experiences of experts in Kosovo.

A convergent parallel mixed methods approach was used for this study because there was a combination of two different set of data analysis, comparison of statistical data and interviews (Creswell, 2014). Both qualitative and deidentified secondary archived data were collected and analyzed separately, and the results were compared to see if the findings confirm that NSAN had an impact or not in the decrease of drug arrests and if experts thought that it had an impact on the criminal justice system in Kosovo. The reason why this approach was employed is that qualitative and quantitative data provided different types of information, detailed views of participants qualitatively and its deidentified secondary data on juvenile drug arrest quantitatively, and together they yielded results that should answer the research questions. The NSAN was implemented in 2012, and by educating youths, the goal of the strategy was to keep juveniles away from drugs and drug arrests.

In this research, the convergent parallel approach was employed. Deidentified secondary data on juvenile drug arrests were analyzed followed by qualitative data. Both data sets were compared or relate, and the interpretation will shed light on strategy impact and its effect in Kosovo.

### **Role of the Researcher**

The researcher was the only person to collect data and analyze data, and central contact point for each participant of the study. I explained the purpose and nature of research to each participant, ways of collecting and analyzing data and also measuring the data collected. I explained and instruct participants about the sample selection, obtain their consent for continuing with a study. Furthermore, I already had an approved Letter of Cooperation (see Appendix A) signed by Kosovo Police Antidrug Director, prior to beginning data collection. I did not have any personal relationship with any of participants that were interviewed. Since I was not a member of Kosovo Police, neither I worked for a Police organization, there were no immediate connections between researcher's work and Kosovo Police. It was in the best interest of both researcher and Police organization to understand the impact of this strategy and if it has had an impact on juvenile drug arrest rate. If the after the evaluation of this strategy, results show a positive impact, similar approaches could be developed for other social issues in Kosovo. I have instructed and explained each participant separately about the purpose of study in detail. The author of the research was not related to Police Department and did not work for Police Organization. Deidentified secondary data analysis were collected from the official database of Kosovo Police. Kosovo Police was the only law enforcement organization in Kosovo. According to Knaus and Warrander (2017), Kosovo Police have a good reputation for being nearly corrupt-proof organization. Archival data are the only official data recorded for each arrest, crime, and disorder in Kosovo. Using self-reflection journaling (see Appendix F) during each phase of the research is important

because this served to avoid bias. To avoid confirmation bias, research reevaluated impressions of participants and challenge preexisting assumptions about the hypothesis. Finding accuracy of strategy impact served the best interest of everyone. Therefore, I remained neutral during the research; avoided any influence that may impact the research results. In qualitative part of the study, each participant was selected through purposeful sampling strategy, and snowball method and was applied for the study. I was not related and did not supervise, and neither was part of the organizational hierarchy of Kosovo Police. Therefore, a conflict of interests was avoided. However, it is essential that a researcher build a good rapport with the participant (Ratvich & Carl, 2016).

To avoid bias, I developed ethical collaboration memo (see Appendix C), which contained considerations for collaborating with other researchers, through dialogic engagement. The author asked for advice and suggestions from other researchers (chair and committee member) about the research process and conduct dialogic engagement. Another critical step that a researcher took to remain unbiased was also a creation of paired question and reflection analysis exercise, which is a process of engagement of another professional researcher to generate focused researcher reflection around critical areas (see Appendix B). Three memorandums were applied before conducting the research to address issues during a research: 1) Researcher Identity /Positionality Memo (see Appendix D), 2) Ethics Collaboration Memo (see Appendix C) and, 3) Informed Consent Form. To remain unbiased, journal logs (see Appendix F) were used after every interview.

### **Participant Selection Logic**

The population under study were antidrug officers working with juveniles in Pristina (Kosovo's capital), at Kosovo Police organization at the time of data collection who have worked in the department for at least ten years. Sample selection was related to the study, and adds new knowledge of the study. Antidrug officers were directly involved in the implementation of NSAN in Kosovo, and those who worked with juvenile cases in relation to the drugs, therefore they were the best samples for given study. Officers that were directly involved in the implementation of the NSAN were interviewed. This research included interviews with eleven participants who were actively and directly engaged in antidrug implementation, to include participation in education programs with parents, youths, and in general school programs. Currently, antidrug unit at Kosovo Police numbers about 70 members and ten to fifteen participant selections will equal to 21.5% of overall antidrug personnel. An assumed sample fulfilled criteria of saturation, where no new information came up during research (Creswell, 2014). If new information came up, then more samples would be included in the study. Purposeful sampling strategy was used to select only antidrug experts that were involved and are still involved in the implementation of this strategy. Purposeful sampling means that individuals are purposefully chosen to participate in a study for a specific reason (Ratvich, & Carl, 2016), (antidrug experts from Kosovo Police) because they have experiences in implementing NSAN. Kosovo Police Antidrug Section has about 77 antidrug personnel (Annual Report, 2016). Maxwell (2013), suggested that the sample for qualitative studies should be between five and twenty-five interviewees. The flyer

“Antidrug Research” (see Appendix A) was delivered to Kosovo Police by myself, at Antidrug Section, where everyone has the opportunity to be informed, and voluntarily e-mail or call the myself to ask any question about the research.

The selection of antidrug officers was made through verification of their experience in the field by asking them paired questions about their experience, and then asking them how long they are in the antidrug unit. I had already completed Letter of Cooperation (see Appendix A). All inclusion criteria were found on public documents as per Kosovo Law requirements from all public safety agencies and law enforcement. Since the antidrug unit was based in Pristina, Kosovo capital, the interviews occurred in Pristina, but not in their working area, but in a place where participants feel it is convenient for them, in National Library.

### **Instrumentation**

The primary instrument for the quantitative deidentified secondary data was extracted electronically of data to an Excel file and processed. Secondary data were visualized through a scatterplot table. The primary instrument for qualitative data was the in-depth face-to-face interviews. Voice recording was used for interviewing each antidrug officer separately. Note-taking during each interview was applied, however, participants were asked standard questions, and researcher followed up with clarifying questions if necessary based on participant response. To validate the study a researcher considered weighing all options of follow-up both qualitative and quantitative results. Questions about the perception of the NSAN about its impact and effects of it on criminal justice were asked. Participants were asked open-ended questions. In case that participant

gave a positive or negative answer to questions, follow-up questions for greater elaboration were asked. For instance, if the participants think that NSAN had a positive impact, a follow-up question would be: How it had an impact, to what degree it had an impact? How this strategy did reduce juvenile drug arrests? What did strategy mechanisms contribute to this successful implementation? How do you perceive the impact of the NSAN on juvenile drug arrests? Follow-up process brought additional questions for participants, where the participants could have been contacted by a researcher after the interview and be asked additional questions for accuracy and clarification.

The semistructured design gave participants a chance to feel more comfortable in sharing their experiences. Interviews were semistructured, where the central questions were the same for each participant, while if new information comes up during the interview, additional questions were asked. Interview protocol consisted of open-ended questions that would include follow-up sub-questions related to strategy impact and effectiveness and their participation in strategy implementation. Informed consent for a face-to-face interview was given to each participant, and they were explained about the study, purpose, and nature of it. After each interview is ended, voice-recorder was turned off, and debriefing process began with the participant, through summarizing the whole discussion and moving away from the research topic. In case there was needed follow-up interview, participants were asked if they could be reached out for any additional question.



There are not many types of research about drug issues in Kosovo. Therefore, this was the first research study of this nature with both deidentified secondary data and law enforcement. However, there are numerous other mixed methods research designs of similar nature conducted in other locations. Collins and Cooper (2014), explained the qualitative design indicating that researchers must collect data from the participants through free discussions in questioning, interpreting and reporting, where they must avoid being a receiver in terms of only collecting the data or making the participants a source for the data. Collecting data in different ways to ensure data are reliable was a key to ensuring validity. Participants' work experience and their involvement in the implementation of the strategy were verified.

Each participant was informed about the interview design, and exact time of the interview, and how long the interview would take. For this study, the length of the interview depended on participants' discussion and their wish to share experiences, but interviews did not last longer than one hour. Participants were offered a safe and comfortable environment which was flexible with questions during the interviews. Participants were given a choice about place and time of interview, but all of them agreed to be interviewed in National Library. For Research Question 1: Has the National Strategy against Narcotics (NSAN) been effective in reducing juvenile drug arrests in Kosovo? Deidentified secondary data regarding to juvenile arrest rate were analyzed. Kosovo Police has a database of all drug arrests, and the number of juvenile drug arrest monthly and annually. These data were used to visualize the juvenile drug issue in Kosovo, and policy impact. If the NSAN had a positive impact, it was assumed that juvenile drug

arrest rate from 2012 would decrease, because fewer people would use drugs due to increased awareness and educative programs in schools. A scatterplot was generated, to visualize data and strategy impact. If the juvenile drug arrest rate after 2012 was increased, then antidrug experts were asked an open-ended question about the juvenile drug arrest rate, and their explanation about the issue. If the secondary data, describing drug arrest increase or at the same level, antidrug experts were asked to explain what they think about the given drug-related rate.

### **Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection**

For qualitative part, participants were given information about the purpose of the study, nature of the study, through information delivered by flyers in Kosovo police organization in Pristina. Flyers (see Appendix A), were posted by researcher in Kosovo Police antidrug section, and they stayed there for two weeks. Those interested in the study had the opportunity to contact researcher via phone call or email. Upon receiving each participant request to meet for the purpose of research, names of them were verified to see if they fulfill criteria of work experience of last ten years working in the antidrug unit. Verification questions on the data collection form asking the person if they are a police officer and (separate question) if they have been on the force for the last 10 years. If they say yes, the presumption was that they were telling the truth. Participants interested in research were sent some screening questions such as their experience at the antidrug section, and their involvement in the implementation of this strategy to verify that prospective participants worked in educative programs and had been actively involved in addressing juvenile drug use issues, and their involvement in the antidrug unit

for past ten years. Those who answered questions that fit to criteria about experience of officers, on screening questions, were sent informed consent form. Participants did set the time and place for interview. The informed consent form was given to participants before the interview begins. Participants were allowed ample time to review the consent form and ask questions if they understand it. During this time, participants were informed verbally by researcher, that they were free to withdraw from the interview at any time, and also, they can refuse to answer any question. Participants were explained that the interview will be recorded, and asked them if they agreed with this. The participants were explained that data will be collected through semistructured interview, and then each interview will be codified. Participants were notified that the interview will last 30 to 60 minutes, and participants can leave the study at any time. There was not any confidential information asked from participants in this study. Most of data collected was general and in particular about strategy implementation and its impact on drug reduction and effectiveness on criminal justice. Participants were debriefed upon completion of the study. I discussed with participants once the interview ended, and explained that maybe some follow-up questions will come up as part of this research, and asked participants if they can be contacted again. I made sure that participants felt comfortable physically and emotionally, by giving them a choice of selecting the place of interview, and the time. I thanked each participant of her or his time to respond, and asked to forward my contact information to anyone within antidrug unit who may be interested in participating in the study. The snowball strategy served as a way to recruit more partisans if the initial response did not lead to desired number of samples (Maxwell 2013). Each participant

was sent e-mail note of appreciation for their contribution to the study, a copy of transcript for their review, and at the end final results of the study.

Quantitative data regarding juvenile drug arrest rate and drug-related crimes were extracted from deidentified secondary data collected and recorded by Kosovo Police Database. Letter of Cooperation was already approved by antidrug Director of Kosovo Police (see Appendix A), for both accessing deidentified secondary data and interviewing antidrug officers for the purpose of this study. I submitted a request to get access to official Police deidentified database about juvenile arrests, and drug-related crimes, and also gaining access and permission to be allowed to interview antidrug officers that handled juvenile case and worked in last ten years in the antidrug unit. About two weeks took to collect deidentified secondary data quantitative data (monthly drug arrest rate and drug seizure rate) dating from January 2009 to January 2015.

### **Data Analysis Plan**

For descriptive statistics, SPSS program was used to generate tables such as a scatterplot to visualize data on juvenile drug arrest and juvenile drug-related crimes. For research question one (RQ1) the following hypotheses were generated:

RQ1: Has the National Strategy against Narcotics (NSAN) been effective in reducing juvenile drug arrests in Kosovo?

$H_0$ 1: National Strategy Against Narcotics has not been effective in reducing juvenile drug arrests.

*H*<sub>1</sub>: National Strategy Against Narcotics has been effective in reducing juvenile drug arrests.

Juvenile drug arrest rates from January of 2009 to January of 2012 were used to as a descriptive representation of drug trends, and the association between strategy implementation and drug-related issues in Kosovo. From January of 2009 to January of 2015 or 36 months pre-NSAN and 36 months post-NSAN implementation were visualized through using SPSS to generate scatterplot which served to visualize data patterns (Creswell, 2014). Scatterplot brought visualized data to see if the strategy implementation in 2012 had an impact, positive or negative impact. This scatterplot was a reflection of the strategic impact on juvenile drug arrest rate, through visualization of juvenile arrest rates across 36 months. Scatterplots are useful in this case because it will serve to visualize the quantitative data. Each observation or point in a scatterplot has two coordinates; the first corresponds to the first piece of data in the pair (that's the x coordinate; the crime arrest from pre-to post implementation) (Green & Salkind, 2014) if the strategy had impact, then drug-related crime would gradually drop each year of implementation. A scatterplot was employed to visualize juvenile arrest rates across 72 months, where one is considered explanatory. A positive association between strategy implementation and drug reduction issues would indicate on a scatterplot by downward trend (positive slope), where drug arrest rate would decrease, with the intensity of NSAN implementation. A negative association would be indicated by the opposite effect (negative slope).

For null hypothesis about other factors impact, descriptive data were analyzed based on many possible factors, such as increase or decrease of population, arrest rates, improvement of technology used by law enforcement about drug arrests in Kosovo.

For qualitative component, new knowledge results from interviews were followed by protocol data analysis and validation of visualized data from scatterplot. The accuracy of data is very important, therefore analyzing each data and following each interview is crucial for this research. Reviewing the recorded interviews and reading transcripts repeatedly, and correcting transcripts in case any error occurs was very important and also noting the tone of participants of the study. Because peer-review is very important and dialogic engagement, Ethical Memo of Collaboration (see Appendix B) was created to communicate with chair and committee member of this study. Using NVivo qualitative software led to more accuracy and using auto-coding features to code data, derive themes, and compare themes was also an option for this study.

To organize data, and avoid any technical error, a Microsoft Excel Matrix was used, containing many fields, including participant names, coding, questions, answers, notes taken during interviews, comments, themes, and subthemes.

Experts shed light on how much impact this strategy had on the criminal justice system related to juvenile drug issues, in their daily operations and what were some key points that may need to change or enforced. Since the evaluation of this strategy was complex, it would add a better understanding of its impact on the overall criminal justice system. The first part of interview questions was related to their involvement in the implementation of this strategy. The second part was about juvenile drug arrest rates,

their concepts, interpretation of secondary data about the juvenile arrest rate and overall about the impact of this strategy in the criminal justice system. The third part consisted of questions about their experiences in implementing this strategy and recommendations for policy changes in future based on their experiences.

Each interview was voice-recorded by researcher and turned into a transcript, and it was in the English language (all antidrug officers had excellent knowledge of English Language) and the author of this research processed all transcripts in English. In the Consent Form, there was clearly explained that participant may decline the interview, decline the voice-recoding, and reserve the right to answer or not answer any question.

Coding was a part of qualitative analysis strategy, but it was not the only strategy employed in qualitative designs (Ratvich & Carl, 2016). To assist with flexibility, data management, and coding, NVivo was used in this study. Central weight in the coding process involved both inductive (coming from the data) and deductive (coming from other sources). Open coding deems appropriate and it was done by hand, where essential data were highlighted and processed. A Microsoft Word Document was created where important information for given study was highlighted. Open coding for this research involved multiple rounds of readings. According to Ratvich and Carl (2016), the first round of coding may be used to determine what stands out, and the second round may focus on other aspects of research questions. A coding memo (see Appendix G) was created in this way ease the process of codes and connection to each other. The purpose of the coding memorandum is that it answered questions of how the codes relate to each other and map the data analysis, finding meanings of codes, how the codes are used to

relate to research questions and are the codes used consistently if not what it needs to be done. The next stage was the development of themes deriving from code documents and analysis. A table of data analysis was created to ensure the main factors: triangulation, participant validation, dialogic engagement, the structure of reflexivity and disconfirming evidence.

To treat discrepant cases, participants were asked to interpret and verify their interviews. Eliminating bias also through asking questions that may lead or allow interviewees to make his/her conclusion about discrepant cases. By examining data that may not fit with major findings, because doing so would increase the credibility of this research by demonstrating that measures were taken to search for alternative ways of seeing and understanding the environment in which data were collected. Also, in this study, a researcher searched for a rival explanation, because these explanations, along with mainstream explanations, could offer a full description of how the strategy had an impact and how and why the policy was or was not effective.

Through convergent parallel design, quantitative data collection and analysis were compared to qualitative data analysis; then they were related, which was a point of interface, then they were interpreted. The reason why the convergent parallel design was because, this approach was the best to understand or develop a complete understanding of the research problem by obtaining different but complementary data (Bian, n.d).

### **Threats to Validity**

One of the most important elements of the study was constructing of the validity of the study. Quantitative data were taken from official Police Database. Data may vary



from one year to the other, therefore, testing is necessary. Some juvenile drug arrest cases may not be related to drug use impact; therefore, these cases were analyzed. The implementation of NSAN began in 2012, to ensure if this strategy had or not, an impact, data from 2009 were analyzed through comparison with those after 2012. Another important tool is to test the years where educative programs were conducted in schools, to see if these data support the idea that strategy had positive or no impact, and finding to what degree the strategy had an impact. This consisted of *external validity*.

*Internal threats of validity* in this study may be factors such as increase or decrease of a number of population that may cause increase or decrease of drug arrest rate. Therefore, history maturation of Kosovo people may pose a threat to internal validity. Since this study from quantitative perspective is related to the analysis of secondary data analysis, it is important to understand the drug trends in the region. To address this issue, population growth or decrease rate were compared with the proportion of drug-related arrests.

Threats to *construct validity* were included in this study. Such threats may vary from the growth of drug trends to growth of overall population or even decrease of both. To address this, drug trend in the region was compared and analyzed with drug issues. Another important point in this study was interrelated the variables of drug arrest, validation of data through a process of checking, and compared with overall arrest rate.

### **Issues of Trustworthiness**

*Credibility* was very important part of the research. During interviews, to ensure credibility questions were identified and organized in the way that they were aligned and clarified. Questions were asked clearly and using simple words to help participants understand them and answer them accurately. Through a process of *triangulation*, questions asked to participants were verified with existing data. Follow-up questions were asked to clarify answers. Through *member check*, the researcher interpreted data collected during the interview and ask participants to review these data (Devault, 2017). The researcher asked participants to review their statements to see if there was anything left out, or if participants left any gaps.

*Transferability* is referred to external validity process (Creswell, 2014). The researcher selected participants who could provide data to solve the research problem. Participants that have at least ten years of experience in the antidrug section of the police department could share essential data for the study. Through *thick description* (explaining in detail the location, methods, and participant's qualifications, education, and their experiences), this study could be transferred or replicated in future in other regional countries.

*Dependability* is referred to the stability of the data collected (Ratvich & Carl, 2016). To achieve dependability, member-checking techniques were used. The researcher asked participants to review their statements in order to see if there was anything left out, or if participants left any gaps. Participants reviewed researcher's interpretation of data, and if participants agreed that the interpretations were accurate, then dependability was

reached. In case the participants did not agree with researcher's interpretation of data, then researcher revised and add data to participants' responses.

Through a process of *triangulation*, data collected with was verified. Participants were asked about their involvement in strategy implementation, their participation in educative programs, and such information was verified through public domain information.

*Conformability*, is referred to neutrality and acknowledge of exploration of the ways that researcher's bias and prejudice map onto interpretations of data and to mediate to the fullest extent possible through the structured reflexivity process and external audit (Ratvich & Carl, 2016). A strategy to ensure confirmability, in this study field notes, transcripts, memos and journaling were used.

### **Ethical Procedures**

Letter of Cooperation (see Appendix A), was approved to access to participants and deidentified secondary data. Ethical procedures consisted of a detailed plan regarding ethical issues that may arise during and after the research. I used only deidentified secondary data of juvenile drug-related arrest rate (e.g., January 2009, 35 juveniles arrested in relation to drugs). I have completed web-based course *Protecting Human Research Participants*, with certificate number 1559957. Before beginning of the research, I submitted request to the Institutional Review Board for approval, and IRB approved the research study with approval number 10-03-18-0381142. During the reporting, I maintained honesty, and protect participants' information. Participant names and their information were not published. I used coding strategy to protect the identity

and privacy of participants. Each interview was coded into a single folder, with unique identification code, and this code was secured in a location where only a researcher had access to it.

The researcher respected all participants, respected their privacy. In this study, there was not any confidential information. Each participant's information in the study was coded in a protected folder. The folders were password protected.

Participants were given the opportunity at any time to *withdraw* from the study. Participants that may withdraw from the study were returned any document that they may submit for the study. If any participant after the interview wished to withdraw from the study, all the information about him or her were deleted on the same day, ensuring that the participant was convinced about it. If participant wished to withdraw from the study, the next participant would be called for interview.

The informed consent form was emailed along with main research questions, in this way giving an idea about the research and to obtain written permission to conduct the interview.

All data collected remained in a *safe place* where only the researcher had access. In a password protected external drive data were saved in case there is a computer crash or any technical issue may occur. Each participant's data remained in separate folder coded by an alphabetical order such as PO-P1, LH-P2 and so on.

Statistical data the drug arrest and drug seizure were taken from the official database of Kosovo Police, through already approved access for this research by Kosovo Police antidrug Director. Deidentified *archival data*, contained only juvenile crime rates

(number of arrests each month without any other information), and these data were found in the public domain of police database. These archival data did not contain any confidential information or any name or any additional identifying information.

Interview data were collected based on snowball selection, and they were not confidential and were archived in researcher's safe place, where only a researcher had access to it. After data were analyzed, and findings were put into a paper, and after everything are approved by IRB, and CAO and other related entities in this process, they will be destroyed. Collected data were stored in safe and secured place, and after five years as per Walden University policy, they will be shredded and burned.

There weren't any other ethical issues such as conflict of interests, or doing study in researcher's workplace. As explained earlier in this chapter, researcher did not work for police organization, and never did, therefore there was not any ethical issues such as conflict of interest or power differentials in this study.

### **Summary**

Chapter three included an explanation of quality and quantity indicators that will be used in this study. The research method selected for this study will be converged parallel mixed approach. Deidentified secondary data analysis from Kosovo Police database will be used to visualize the impact of strategy implementation and its impact on drug use reduction. Open-ended questions will be used to obtain an explanation of strategy effectiveness in relation to drug use and criminal justice system. This chapter included the role of the researcher in developing data analysis plan, logic for selection of participants, interviewing procedures and protocol during and after this study. In this

chapter, the issue of trustworthiness, coding process and interpretation of data was explained.

## Chapter 4: Results

### **Introduction**

The purpose of the study was to evaluate NSAN through analyzing deidentified juvenile drug arrest data and interviews with Kosovo police officers assigned to an antidrug unit. The main research questions that were answered through data analysis are:

Research Question 1: Has the National Strategy Against Narcotics (NSAN) been effective in reducing juvenile drug arrest rate in Kosovo?

Research Question 2: How do Kosovo police officers assigned to an antidrug unit perceive the impact of the National Strategy Against Narcotics (NSAN) on juvenile drug arrest rate?

In this chapter, the setting was described in detail; then the demographics of participants in the study, data collection approach, data analysis, and evidence or results, were part of this chapter. In the end, evidence of trustworthiness and the overall chapter were summarized.

### **Setting**

As stated previously the samples and setting for this study was a Kosovo police organization. Deidentified juvenile drug arrest rates were taken from the official police database that was extracted electronically in a Microsoft Excel table format. Qualitative in-depth interviews were conducted in Pristina, in the National Library. The participants were selected based on their experiences with NSAN implementation and handling juvenile cases involving drugs. One of the participants during the interview was not

working with juvenile cases, due to changes within the department. Most of them since 2015 were promoted to higher ranks within the antidrug Unit.

### **Demographics**

From the Antidrug Unit, both men and women were interviewed. The participant's demographics are summarized in table 1 below.

Table 1

*Participant Demographics*

Participants	Gender	Work Experience at Antidrug-Unit Years	Education
PO-1	M	10	Bachelor
PO-2	M	15	Associate
PO-3	F	13	Bachelor
PO-4	F	12	Bachelor
PO-5	M	10	Bachelor
PO-6	M	16	Associate
PO-7	M	9.5	Associate
PO-8	M	10	Masters
PO-9	M	10	Associate
PO-10	M	12	Associate
PO-11	M	10	Bachelor



### **Data Collection**

To answer the first research question about the NSAN impact on juvenile drug arrest rate, deidentified juvenile drug arrest rates from January 2009 to January 2015 were analyzed through a SPSS scatterplot. The scatterplot was used to visualize juvenile drug arrest rates over a period of 36 months (see Figure 1).

To address the second research question about perceived impact on NSAN and its implementation by antidrug officers, initially, 13 participants expressed their interests in this research. However, two of them later did not want to participate for their own personal reasons. A total of 11 participants were interviewed in-depth. Questions were related to both their participation in the implementation of NSAN, and also their perceived thoughts about the NSAN and its impact and effectiveness about juvenile drug arrests.

The interviews were conducted at the National Library located in the capital city Pristina. Due to their busy schedules, participants were interviewed separately and this process took about three weeks. There were days where only one participant showed up, and there were days where three participants showed up, so I had to arrange this, and let them know the best time of an interview under such circumstances. Each interview was voice-recorded, and these data were turned into transcripts, and each transcript was codified. From codes, themes emerged to provide insight on NSAN and the impact on juvenile drug arrest rates. Data were recorded through a voice-recorder, and also notes were taken during each interview. As per Chapter 3, the idea was to interview 10-15 participants, and 11 participated in the study. Some of the participants did not have 10

years of experience; however, they were active participants in the implementation of the NSAN in 2012.

One of the participants had an emergency call from his family. Therefore, he left the interview, apologizing for it; however, the next day we continued with the interview.

### **Data Analysis**

After each interview was voice-recorded, each was turned into a transcript. Transcripts were codified, and from the codes emerged the themes. Most of the participants gave the same answers for the fifteen main questions derived from the semistructured questionnaire. Qualitative data analysis is the phase where the researcher sought to find answers based on participants' shared experiences about juvenile drug arrest rates. The first five interview questions (see appendix H) began with simple open-ended questions, and based on the answer of the participants, follow-up questions were asked. An inductive data analysis approach was employed by analyzing shared experiences of participants about juvenile drug arrest rates and their experiences with handling juvenile drug cases. The data analysis consisted of analyzing the data by grouping data to establish the connection between the questions and answers that align with questions. Data from January of 2009 to January of 2015 (or 36 months pre-NSAN and 36 months post-NSAN implementation) was organized in a scatterplot generated using SPSS. The scatterplot served to visualize data patterns (Creswell, 2014). The scatterplot provided visualized data to see if the strategy implementation in 2012 had a positive or negative impact. This scatterplot reflected the strategy impact on juvenile drug arrest rates, showing juvenile arrest rates across 72 months. Each observation or point in

a scatterplot had two coordinates; the x coordinate corresponds with the crime arrest rate from pre-to post implementation and the y coordinate to the quarter when the rests were made (Green & Salkind, 2014). If the strategy had the intended impact, then drug-related crime would gradually drop each year after implementation. A scatterplot was employed to identify a potential association between two variables, where one is considered explanatory, and another may be considered a response variable (Easton & McColl, 1992). A negative association between strategy implementation and drug reduction issues indicated on a scatterplot by upward trend, where drug arrest rates increased, but later during 2014 decreased with the intensity of NSAN implementation. A negative association was indicated by the opposite effect (rising slope). As seen in Figure 1, the slope increased during 2013 as arrests grew.

For the null hypothesis to have impact other factors would have changed such as an increase or decrease of population, or improvement of technology used by law enforcement for drug arrests in Kosovo. The population of Kosovo remained constant at 1.7 million and, according to participants, no new technologies were introduced during the 3-year implementation period following the institution of NSAN. If, in fact, the juvenile arrest rates decreased, and these other factors of population change and new technology was not present, then the hypothesis that NSAN factored into the decrease of juvenile arrest rates would be supported.

Participants were asked also about their view of NSAN in relation to its effectiveness and impact on juvenile drug arrest rates, through open-ended questions. In this way, they gave their perception of the effectiveness of NSAN.

There were not any discrepant cases, where participants disagreed strongly with the findings. The participants were asked additional probing questions that helped in the acquisition of precise information. I took short notes during the interview and recorded nonverbal behaviors of participants, (respondents answered quickly, without hesitation, showing they didn't take time to ponder or change their views). The theoretical framework was utilized in analyzing the data and employed interpretative data analysis tools by developing a systematic approach in identifying the relationships in collecting data, grouping similar data points to identify the emerging themes, grouping and labeling information by using codes and indexing the codes.

### **Qualitative Components**

To answer research question: How do Kosovo police officers assigned to an antidrug unit perceive the impact of the National Strategy against Narcotics (NSAN) on juvenile drug arrest rate? Qualitative data collected through in-depth interviews were voice-recorded, and each interview was turned into a transcript. I took two weeks to read and reread each transcript before beginning the coding process. Lived experiences of participants were highlighted. This helped in facilitating and developing themes, about juvenile drug arrest rates and the effectiveness of NSAN. Themes were created from each participant and then themes were grouped. More than 80 codes were generated by transcripts, from which four core themes were developed. The themes were analyzed and identified based on the averages of participants' explanation of the questions deriving from semistructured questionnaire used for each interview.

As stated previously the study was designed to evaluate NSAN concerning juvenile drug rate arrests, and perceived impact of the NSAN on juvenile drug arrest rate in Kosovo. The following patterns or themes derived from answers of the participants of the study. The main four themes were developed: Curiosity and peer influence, parents' care, policy positive impact, and education and rehabilitation needs.

**Curiosity and peer influence.** All 11 participants based on their experiences handling juvenile cases maintained that the first factor that leads juveniles to drugs and committing drug offenses (later getting arrested) was curiosity and peer influence. The results deriving from each transcript revealed that juveniles are most likely to abuse with drugs due to their curiosity as the main factor, as well as based on peer influence or what each participant called "to be in" or else you are not part of the team. This is in alignment with Markwood's CTSAP, where the socially influenced individuals are most likely to abuse with drugs (Markwood, 2011).

Each participant had experience with juvenile arrests, either investigating them or dealing with them after the arrest, and they all shared their view that juveniles usually begin drug taking due to curiosity.

**Parents' care.** One of the themes that were developed from codes was the role of parents in addressing drug abuse by controlling their children and also talking to their children. As per CTSAP, parents play a key role in preventing drug abuse among juveniles. Since this study was conducted to understand NSAN, and one of its objectives was targeting parents, in this regard, all participants declared that parents play a key role in preventing drug abuse and therefore juvenile arrest rates. However, only participant

PO7 declared that most of the parents do not know that their children may be involved in drug abuse for this reason they must be trained to understand drug use and abuse. In this context, PO3 indicated that parents hesitate to report their child to authorities for help due to stigma. Some of the participants (PO11, PO9, PO7, PO3, PO4), expressed the concern that parents must do more to work with their children, control their children and see to whom their children are associated at school or outside a home. This is why NSAN would be a great tool to target also the parents by educative programs and by increasing awareness about the risk factors.

**Policy positive impact.** One of the critical questions to participants of the study was their perception of NSAN impact on the juvenile drug arrest rate. Every participant sees the NSAN as a positive impact on the juvenile drug arrest rate either by maintaining the stability of the drug arrest rate or by reducing it, in regard to increased global trends. Participants, PO2, PO3, PO4, PO5, and PO7 indicated that the post-NSAN implementation increased the juvenile arrest rate in 2013 and the main reason for this was better cooperation between institutions due to NSAN implementation, and another reason was the increased trends of drug abuse at a global level. Cooperation and the increased number of investigators within the antidrug Unit at Kosovo Police have contributed to a slightly increased number of the juvenile arrest rates after 2012. Participant PO1 indicated that the increase of drug arrest rate is related to increased number of investigators within the Kosovo Police after 2012. The rest of participants (PO6, PO8, PO9, PO10, and PO11), indicated that NSAN decreased the juvenile drug arrests, justifying statistical data that if the NSAN was not implemented with the increased trend

of juvenile drug abuse, the juvenile drug arrest in Kosovo would have doubled. Overall, all participants think that NSAN had a positive impact in decreasing juvenile drug arrest rate in a long run. Participants of the study all perceived the NSAN as effective in the reducing juvenile drug rate in relation to global drug trends. Participants indicated that, because Kosovo doesn't have a drug rehabilitation center, this could be a factor also in NSAN effectiveness.

**Education and rehabilitation needs.** From questions related to programs rooted in NSAN such as education and other programs, all participants think that without educative programs, the juvenile arrest rate could have been very high. Educative programs inhibited juvenile drug abuse and arrest rate. In this context participants PO1, PO5, PO6, PO7, PO8, and PO9 declared that additional programs are needed to be added in school curriculum because schools in Kosovo lack the curriculum programs about drugs. Participants PO4 and PO11 mentioned that more recreational programs are needed for youth, besides education, and participant PO3 indicated that besides education, the involvement of psychologists and counseling services are needed in schools.

Overall, all participants think that education programs had a positive impact in reducing the drug arrest rate despite the high global increase in juvenile drug issues. However, participants think that NSAN was a successful strategy and effective in addressing the juvenile drug arrest rate by implementing educative programs in Kosovo schools. Participants in this research indicated that juvenile drug arrest would have been higher if Kosovo had not implemented this strategy.

In order to treat *discrepant cases*, such as increase and decrease of drug arrest rates, the participants were asked to interpret cases they have experienced based on their longtime work on the antidrug unit. Since all participants perceive NSAN in relation to the reduction of drug arrest rates as successful, then I have searched for rival explanations, because these explanations, along with mainstream explanations, offered a full description of how the strategy had the impact and why the policy was effective.

### **Descriptive Arrest Rates**

The data provided here is descriptive, not inferential. The purpose of providing a scatterplot was to visualize the juvenile drug arrest rates. Deidentified juvenile drug arrest rates from January 2009 to January 2015 were taken and analyzed through running a scatterplot on SPSS. To see the effects of NSAN on the juvenile drug arrest rate, the scatterplot shows that the juvenile drug arrest rate in 2013, were substantially higher than those in prior years of the juvenile drug arrest rate in 2013. The NSAN, upon implementation did not decrease juvenile arrest rates, but it has increased. In similar study of evaluation of policy in drug arrest reduction, the same results are found where elements of drug control policy, upon implementation led to mass incarcerations in the U.S (Burke-Shyne et al., 2017). The same conclusion came up after evaluation of drug control policy by the study conducted by Bowen and Redmond (2016), where the incarceration rate increased post-policy implementation.

Descriptive arrest rate does not support the assumption that post-implementation of NSAN would decrease juvenile arrest rates, in fact the arrest rates increased. Figure 1



is generated from SPSS, visualizing the juvenile arrest rates from January 2009 to January 2015.

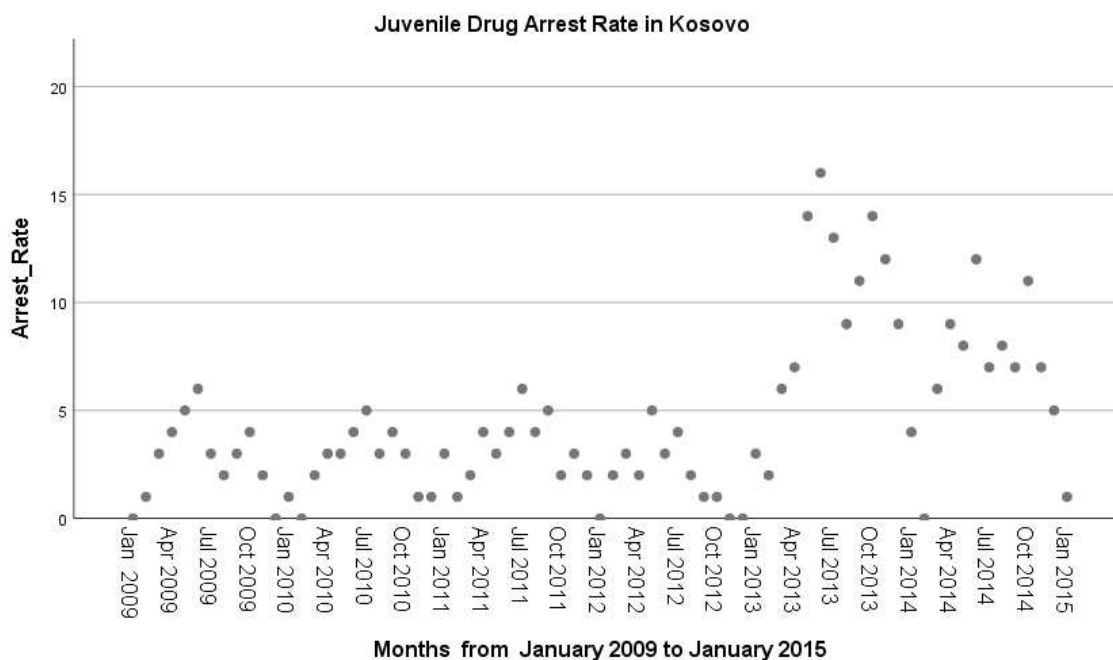


Figure 1. Juvenile drug arrest rate from 2009 to 2015, data taken from Kosovo Police, 2018.

Deidentified data on the juvenile arrest rate show that after the implementation of the NSAN in 2012, the arrest rate increased, especially in 2013. Table 2 shows the overall drug arrest rates in Kosovo from 2009-2014, confirming that NSAN has not been effective in reducing juvenile arrest rate in Kosovo. With the implementation of drug control policy in the United States and many countries, past study results indicated that using statistical data to determine the effectiveness of strategy implementation, resulted in no significant effect with regard to reduction of heroin related arrest rates (Keck & Correa-Cabrea, 2015). Glick (2017) found similar results occurred, where antidrug strategy deemed to be not effective to prevent juvenile drug abuse rates and arrests.

Lancaster (2016), in the research about drug control policy ineffectiveness indicated that, policymakers often ignore evidence-based results due to lack of experience on the field.

Table 2. *Overall Drug Arrest Rates in Kosovo from 2009-2014*

Drug Arrest Rates in Kosovo 2009-2014						
	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Juveniles	33	30	39	23	116	84
Adults	381	433	508	553	540	871

(B, Nuhiu, Kosovo Police, personal communication, October 15, 2018)

The secondary deidentified data suggest as in Table 2, that drug arrest rates were substantially higher upon post implementation than pre-implementation of the NSAN. This could be due to the increased focused from the police on juvenile drug offenses under NSAN. Also, if drug education is not included in school curriculum, the strategy may not have impact in reducing juvenile drug abuses (Hargreaves, 2015), and if schools lack on programs where teachers or professional counselors with knowledge about drugs, then strategy or drug control policy deem to fail (Chinwe et al., 2015). NSAN may benefit from an educational component. When comparing juvenile drug arrest rate with adult arrest rate, it is apparent that there was a decrease in juvenile arrest rate in proportion to adult arrest rate concerning drugs, but increased compared to juvenile arrest rates of pre-implementation of NSAN. In 2009, based on arrest rate data about drugs, 414 individuals were arrested for drugs among them 33 juveniles, which accounted for about 8 percent of juvenile arrests (B. Nuhiu personal communication, October 15, 2018). In 2010 the total arrest rate about drugs was 463, out of them only 30 juveniles were

arrested which equals with 6 percent of juvenile drug arrest rate. In 2011, there were 547 arrests, out of the 39 juveniles for drugs, or equaling with about 7 percent of all drug arrests. The results of this study are similar to Lloyd's (2015) study, indicating that the policy may not address all risks of juvenile drug abuse, furthermore, supply reduction rooted in policy in similar study conducted by Duenas (2017), yielded the same results as this study, that strategy did not have positive impact. Among many policies analyzed in the past, rarely any that had specific harm reduction interventions, really reduced the juvenile drug abuse (Hyshka et al., 2017), and also it is not clear if the strategies that target only youths and general population, about the effectiveness, as wider gap of time is needed to see the impact of them (Herzberg et al., 2017).

Even though Markwood's CTSAP is accepted as possible theory that would reduce drug arrest rates among juveniles, studies in the past disconfirm the effectiveness of policies and this theory, elaborating that drug control policy contributed significantly in increasing arrest rates as in a study conducted by Seddon (2016). Strategy for War on Drugs, and antidrug policy through targeting high drug areas (Duenas, 2017; Seddon, 2016) and analyzing drug arrest rates (Bowen & Redmond, 2016; Burke-Shyne et al., 2017), results showed that drug control policies, strategies that are focused on drug arrest rates, and targeting illegal drug markets are ineffective (Burke-Shyne et al. 2017). Many studies conducted in the past about a strategy aimed at reducing juvenile drug issues were ineffective due to the lack of appropriate implementation of strategies, or lack of budget to implement drug control policy (Friend et al., 2015; Klisch et al., 2013; Okamoto et. al., 2014; Thurman, & Boughelaf, 2015; Von Hout & Brennan, 2012,).

There are several reasons why criminal justice strategies aimed at reducing a certain problem like drugs could result in higher arrest rates. The mostly likely is that more resources are being devoted to this issue and therefore it is reasonable to assume that the police are simply detecting more violations rather than the actual rate (not the arrest rate) going up. There could also be other factors that influence drug use that are outside of the control of the criminal justice system. A final possible factor is that it could take longer than a few years for a strategy to have the intended impact.

### **Evidence of Trustworthiness**

*Credibility* was very important; for this reason, each participant was asked questions in a very simple and understanding way. Through a process of *triangulation*, questions asked to participants were verified with existing data. Follow-up questions were asked to clarify answers. Through *member checking*, the researcher interpreted information collected during the interview and ask participants to review these data (Devault, 2017). Participants were asked to review their statements to see if there was anything left out, or if participants left any gaps. All participants stated that documentation accurately reflected the intended answers of the study.

*Transferability* is referred to external validity process (Creswell, 2014). The researcher selected participants who provided subject matter expertise on the impact of the implementation of NSAN. Participants that had at least ten years of experience in the antidrug section of the police department shared essential data for the study. Through *thick description* (explaining in detail the location, methods, and participant's qualifications, education, and their experiences), this study could be replicated in the

future in other regional countries. Any transferability of this information to other countries would require further research in those countries. This study could be replicated in other police organizations elsewhere in the world.

*Dependability* referred to the stability of the data collected (Ratvich & Carl, 2016). Participants reviewed the researcher's interpretation of data, and if participants agreed that the interpretations were accurate, then dependability was achieved. In case the participants did not agree with the researcher's interpretation of data, then the researcher revised and added data to participants' responses.

*Confirmability* referred to neutrality and the acknowledgement of the exploration of the ways that the researcher's bias and prejudice affected interpretations of data. This was mediated to the fullest extent possible through the structured reflexivity process and external audit (Ratvich & Carl, 2016). To ensure confirmability in this study, field notes, transcripts, memos and journaling were analyzed by comparing results across all types of data collection to triangulate responses and validate commonalities in response to themes.

Before the interview began, the researcher pointed out the semistructured questionnaire for each interview, and used the questionnaire to take notes after each answer was received from participants. Upon completion of all interviews the researcher turned the voice recorded interviews into transcripts. The transcripts were cross checked with field notes, to ensure that everything was included in the study. Coding memos were used to codify data, and journaling was used after each day during the study to record the feelings of the researcher about the study and the process.

### **Summary**

To answer research questions about juvenile drug arrest rates and the perceived impact of NSAN on juvenile drug arrests in Kosovo, deidentified juvenile drug arrest rate data were examined and antidrug officers were interviewed. From in-depth interviews through transcribing data and generating codes, four main themes were developed. All of these themes are related to the impact of NSAN in juvenile drug arrest rate in Kosovo. All participants perceived the NSAN implemented in 2012 as effective and successful. Based on analysis of deidentified juvenile drug arrest rate, the visualized data showed that with the implementation of NSAN, the arrest rates increased. Considering both sets of data (quantitative and qualitative), the findings are mixed. On the qualitative side, the police officers view NSAN as effective. Conversely, on the quantitative side the arrest rates for juvenile drug offenses went up. Similar studies in the past yielded the same conclusion where with the implementation of new policy arrest rates increased (Friend et al., 2015; Klisch et al., 2013; Okamoto et al., 2014; Thurman & Boughelaf, 2015; Von Hout & Brennan, 2012), and this may be result with the implementation, where to see the effects of policy, the time frame should be longer. The juvenile arrest rates went up, there are some variations on post-implementation, and this variation is a good idea for further research. Chapter five will provide more in-depth interpretation of results.

## Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

### **Introduction**

The purpose of the study was to evaluate NSAN in Kosovo through using Markwood's CTSAP. The study consisted of a mixed methods approach. Kosovo implemented NSAN in 2012; however, until this study, it was unknown if this strategy had an impact on reducing juvenile drug arrest rates. To understand the impact of the strategy and evaluate it, deidentified juvenile arrest rates were visualized, and through in-depth interviews, antidrug officers gave their insight and experiences of the strategy's effectiveness.

Visualized deidentified secondary data suggest that with the implementation of NSAN, the juvenile arrest rates increased. Similar results came up from past research in relation to drug control policies. In the U.K., similar results came up in the study related to evaluation of drug control policy, where the arrest rates increased upon implementation of new policy (Taylor et al., 2016).

Similar policy analysis in the past brought similar results such as the increased drug arrest rates upon implementation of antidrug strategies in many countries (Friend et al., 2015; Klisch et al., 2013; Okamoto et al., 2014; Thurman & Boughelaf, 2015; Von Hout & Brennan, 2012). Further research is needed to fully understand impact of NSAN. In order to fully understand policy impact, more time is needed for such research (Duenas, 2017; Seddon, 2016). In some cases, new policies upon implementation, fail to give desired effects (Harden, 2015).

Qualitative findings from this study showed that NSAN was perceived as effective by antidrug officers. Participants perceived NSAN as effective, but explained that increased juvenile drug arrest rate was due to the cooperation between police, schools and other health institutions. Experts' experiences confirm that Markwood's CTSAP is effective and touches key factors in reducing juvenile drug arrest rates, however, deidentified secondary data do not support such conclusion.

### **Interpretation of Findings**

Mixed results came out of the study, where participants in the study confirmed that education and peer-influence play a crucial role in shaping juvenile behaviors, but descriptive statistics did not support this. Based on deidentified secondary data, with the implementation of NSAN, there was increased juvenile drug arrest rates, which confirms that the strategy was not very effective in reducing juvenile drug arrest rates. Descriptive statistics show that from 2009 to 2012, the average arrest rate of juveniles was about 35, and from 2013 to 2014 there were about 90 juvenile arrests. This is high increased rate after the implementation of NSAN. In the U.K, Tayler et al. (2016) found a similar policy analysis in relation to drugs, where the drug abuse among juveniles increased after the policy implementation. Descriptive statistics of this study also confirm the study of Houborg et al. (2014), indicating that with the new policy implementation in Copenhagen, drug arrests increased, due to the fact that the policy was subjective, and was not fully implemented due to the lack of resources. Even though with the implementation of NSAN, it was assumed that the juvenile arrest rates would decrease, in reality after this research, now it is known that with the implantation of this strategy



arrest rates increased. In a similar study regarding, Patten (2016) found that the policy increased the arrest rates and drug issues, in a similar way as found with the NSAN implementation. In many past research studies on this, new policies did not bring desired results as a policy on legalization that did not reduce drug crimes, as was intended (Maier et al., 2017).

Most of the past research indicated that education at an early age as youth, and also increasing awareness through educative programs enacted through drug control policy is effective in reducing juvenile drug use (Baharudin et al., 2014; Chinwe, Onyilofofor & Chinelo, 2015). This was confirmed by interviews conducted for the study, where antidrug experts stressed the importance of education to increase the awareness of drug consequences. Participants, PO1, PO2, PO3, PO4, PO5, PO6, PO7, PO8, PO10 and PO11 indicated that through educative programs juveniles were kept away from drugs, and these programs had positive impact, but there are needed rehabilitation centers for those already taking drugs, because in lack of rehabilitation institutions the same juveniles are arrested many times, thus increasing juvenile drug arrest rates. Similar results came out in a study conducted by Meehan (2017), indicating that drug education would keep juveniles away from drugs. However, descriptive statistics on juvenile drug arrest rates do not coincide with the opinion of participants. PO3 and PO10 indicated that more educative programs are needed in Kosovo schools, and it would be a good idea “to show juveniles in schools how a healthy person differs from drug addicted and this physical visualization could serve better purpose of awareness.” PO10 and PO11 stated that educative programs increased the awareness due to the high number of interested

juveniles wanting to participate in such programs in schools. In similar studies, education was emphasized as a key prevention factor (Klisch et al., 2013; Lloyd, 2015; Thurman & Boughelaf, 2015), and that school curriculums must contain more education programs and experts to teach those modules (Skinner et al., 2014; Thurman et al., 2015).

### **Curiosity and Peer Influence**

Results of this study are mixed, while deidentified data disconfirm the CTSAP, but were confirmed by interviewed participants. Each participant indicated that curiosity and peer influence played key role for juveniles to begin drug usage in Kosovo. However, the visualized juvenile drug arrest data do not support such findings. Meehan (2017) found that underage groups took drugs for lack of knowledge and education about the risk of using drugs. Meehan's (2017) study confirmed that juveniles lack the knowledge about drugs before using them, as all participants of this study indicated. Although Kosovo had prohibition laws in the past, and even now, still strict laws could not prevent juvenile drug arrest rates or juvenile drug abuse. Ferri et al. (2015) indicated that three core elements of prevention should not be ignored, such as: reducing exposure to drugs, promoting a healthy lifestyle, and creating a safer environment. However, the findings of this research are not aligned with some of the core elements suggested by Ferri et al. (2015), such as preventing drug abuse by reducing exposure of drugs to juveniles. All participants in the study indicated that peer influence and curiosity were the first main risk factors of juvenile drug abuse. Data from interviews confirmed that prohibition policies and high arrest rates do not bring positive results in addressing drug use (Des Jarlais, 2015; Duenas, 2017; Houborg et al., 2014; Lancaster, 2016). Participants PO1,

PO2, PO3, PO4, PO5, PO6, PO7 and PO9 indicated that without rehabilitation programs, the juveniles will be re-arrested after release, “this is why drug arrest rates are higher”. This is confirmed by past research, where rehabilitation (Nedelec et al., 2017), along with a family therapy (Connolly & Grandfield, 2017; Okamoto et al., 2014) played crucial role in reducing juvenile drug abuse, because juveniles are recuperated from drugs and are less likely to be re-arrested (Wallace, 2012).

Based on deidentified secondary data on the juvenile drug arrest rate, the arrest numbers of juveniles remain still low, but increased post implementation of NSAN, confirming findings by Adrian (2015) where drug control policies and laws, always produce additional unplanned consequences and often adverse effects. Visualized deidentified juvenile drug arrest data from Figure 1, and Table 1 indicated that in 2009, of all drug arrested individuals (adults and juvenile), only 33 were juvenile or accounting for 8% of overall drug arrest rate in Kosovo. Participants, PO2, PO3, PO5, PO7, PO9, PO11, indicated that the drug arrest and abuse rate among juveniles in Kosovo still remain low, but increased juvenile arrest rates after the NSAN, as they concluded “the increased cooperation between agencies let to investigation of more crimes, and schools were more willing to report abuses”. This confirms the study by Burke-Bowen and Redmond (2016) indicating that new drug policy led to mass incarcerations. However, both descriptive data and interview data disconfirm the total arrest rate of 1,441 juvenile drug arrests from 2009-2013 portrayed by Hajdari (2015).

## **Parents' Care**

It is apparent that, because juveniles begin to use drugs during their teen years, and sometimes even earlier, it is important for parents to care about their children and control them (Markwood, 2011). In the context of a study conducted by Wallace (2012), the community-based treatment programs are confirmed as factors that may play a crucial role in increasing parents' awareness, in preventing their children from abuse with drugs. In a study conducted by Baharudin et al. (2014), family intervention was crucial which confirms the findings of this study. Family or parents are key players in the prevention of juvenile drug arrests or juvenile drug abuse. Studies by Meehan (2017) and Gorgen et al. (2013) found that juveniles see parents and peers as the most important source of preventive influence. In this study, it is unknown what roles the parents played, but perhaps changes to NSAN could consider the significance of parental influence. The police officers interviewed in this study shared the same beliefs that were found in the Georgen et al. (2013) research emphasizing parents' role in reducing juvenile drug abuse. Each participant stated that the key role in the prevention of juvenile drug abuse and arrest relied on parents, and their ability to control their children. Participant PO3, PO4, PO6 stated, "parents must be more active in regard to their children and find out who they are friends with, and take measures". Cultivating values, beliefs and worldviews of healthy youth had a positive impact in drug prevention (Okamoto et al., 2014). The qualitative findings confirmed that values such as parental care and awareness for their children are very important for juvenile drug abuse prevention. However, deidentified visualized data show that with the implementation of NSAN, juvenile drug arrest rates

increased and remained higher than pre-implementation. As discussed previously, there could be several reasons for this. This research did not examine the role of parents. Also, some strategies fail or are ineffective due to lack of budget (Caputi, 2015), others due to lack of expertise of those who carry out the programs (Klisch et al., 2013; Lancaster, 2016; Lloyd, 2015; Skinner et al., 2014).

### **Policy Positive Impact**

In this study, experts shared their experiences in the implementation of this strategy. As was stated in the previous chapter, all participants stated that the NSAN had a positive impact in reducing juvenile drug arrest rates in the long run comparing to overall drug arrest rates in Kosovo. However, visualized deidentified juvenile drug arrest data used through scatterplot, disconfirm the findings because post-implementation showed increased juvenile arrest rates.

Results from interviews indicated that officers perceived NSAN as effective, and from their perspective, the NSAN immediately after approval increased the juvenile drug arrest due to two main factors: 1) better cooperation between other institutions and police (schools and healthcare centers), and 2) increased number of investigators in the antidrug unit. Researchers of drug control policy and strategies to prevent juvenile drug abuse argued that targeting juveniles and their parents is very important and a key factor (Chinwe et al., 2015; Des Jarlais, 2015; Lloyd, 2015; Meehan, 2017). These studies disconfirm the findings that NSAN with its educative programs and objective of targeting parents brought positive results in reducing juvenile drug arrest rates, if implemented fully. Wong and Manning (2017) also found that drug abuse policy implications resulted

from factors associated with social, environmental factors. Thus, the policy must consider social factors. In this study, participants agreed that social influences and factors contribute to the juvenile drug arrest rate, and also participant PO6 stated that attitude toward the stigma of drug abuse is also another issue in Kosovo. Increased juvenile arrest rates as per descriptive statistics support the findings of Lloyd (2015), suggesting that punishment of offenders and juveniles can reduce juvenile drug issues, and a combination of therapy and drug enforcement rooted in a policy can have positive effects. None of the participants considered the legalization of drugs as a solution to this issue. LaSalle (2017), offering an approach to harm reduction, found that stigma is another issue, and rehabilitative programs must be offered to youth in need, and such programs must be part of a prevention policy. In this context, the study confirms LaSalle's findings of adding rehabilitative programs in current drug control policy. Participants in this study when asked if they would change or add anything to NSAN, ten out of eleven stated that they would add rehabilitative centers as part of a prevention strategy. Even though legalization would reduce drug arrests (Glick, 2017; Maier, Mannes & Koppenhofer, 2017), all participants were against this. Experts of the antidrug unit in Kosovo think that legalization could bring more issues and problems in society. Policy intervention could have a positive impact in drug use prevention (Klisch et al., 2013; Lloyd, 2015), and drug use reduction (Jiloha, 2017; Markwood, 2011; Skinner et al., 2014; van Wel et. al., 2016). In this regard, findings from interview data indicated that intervention based on NSAN had a positive impact, but visualized data do not confirm this. In fact, visualized deidentified data on juvenile arrest rate show that NSAN increased the arrest rate instead

of decreasing arrest rates. As discussed previously, the increased juvenile arrest rates post NSAN could be the result of more focus by the police and better cooperation with partner agencies. In addition, it may take longer than three years for a decrease to occur.

### **Education and Rehabilitation Needs**

Many studies indicated that education is one of the most important factors in juvenile drug abuse prevention. A drug education system played a crucial role in the education and safety function (Jozaghi & Reid, 2015; Meehan, 2017) and was able to alter abusive behavior, attitude, and intention of injecting drug users (Gorgen et al., 2013; Thurman & Boughelaf, 2015). These studies confirm the findings that all of the participants stated that education had a positive impact, and implementation is important for such programs. PO3 stated that peer counseling is also very important, and PO10 stated that education must be more practical, showing scenes of a healthy person and drug addict to juveniles so they can see the consequences of drugs. However, education is not enough for drug use reduction (Deleuzian & Farrugia, 2014), because specific knowledge is needed (Chinwe Onyilofor & Chinelo, 2015) by those who teach these programs. However, deidentified visualized data disconfirm the findings by Jozaghi and Reid (2015) Meehan (2017) Gorgen et al. (2013) and Thurman, and Boughelaf (2015), because with the implementation of NSAN, juvenile arrest rates increased. Secondary deidentified data support McGallagly and McKeganey's (2013) research findings suggesting that policymakers, and legislative body, must view drug enforcement and complementary treatment elements of comprehensive drug strategy.

Some researchers associate higher alcohol consumption and winning in sports (Tahiraj et al., 2016). Alcohol use increases because of post-game gatherings after competitive sports activities (Wong, & Manning, 2017; Tahiraj et al., 2016). However, none of the participants in this study related juvenile drug abuse with sports achievements. On the contrary participants PO2, PO4, PO5, PO9, and PO11 stated that more recreation activities could be considered as a prevention tool because juveniles will be busy with activities and stay away from drugs. Community involvement through various such programs (Sacco, & Finklea, 2014), and intervention (Lloyd, 2015) seem to be effective in prevention of juvenile drug related crimes.

Parents and family education played a crucial role in substance abuse prevention (Klisch et al. 2013; Lloyd, 2015; Marsiglia et al., 2017; Onyilofor & Chinelo, 2015; Skinner et al., 2014). Qualitative findings from the police officers confirmed that family education, parental care, and schools played a crucial role in preventing juvenile drug abuse and decreasing arrest rates. Again, the juvenile drug arrest rates increased post implementation, but it is unknown how and to what extent NSAN targeted parents. Future research on NSAN could focus on the specifics and extent of the parental role under NSAN.

### **Theoretical Context**

Markwood's CTSAP (2011) is based on social influence of teens, the special role of parents, and the prevention of drug abuse for juveniles before beginning through education. A recent research conducted by van Wel et al. (2016), confirms CTSAP, in a part of juvenile drug abuse, that begins during the first 20 years of life, usually 19 to 22



years old. This is why, early intervention is crucial for young teens (Jiloha, 2017). The CTSAP study indicates that parents and caretakers can proactively seek appropriate social and psychological services when needed for themselves, or for a child for whom they are responsible. Participants in the study stated that parents could play a vital role in juvenile drug abuse issues if they were to educate and control their children and keep them away from substances. Participant responses indicate support for Markwood's CTSAP, that the theory has strong bases in prevention drug-related issues among juveniles. While all participants of the study stated that parents play a key role in controlling the child, PO9 indicated that parents also have a role in controlling the child's friends and associates. In this context, participant PO3 stated that parents sometimes hesitate to accept the reality that their child is a drug abuser, due to fear of stigma. Participant PO7 stated that most parents do not know their child is abusing with drugs. Participant PO11 stated that parents are not doing enough, and they must be more involved in educational programs. The juvenile drug arrest data post NSAN does not support CTSAP, due to the fact that juvenile drug arrest rates increased post NSAN.

CTSAP (Markwood, 2011) makes the following points, targeting parents and socially influenced teens. Based on CTSAP (Markwood, 2011), any person can be influenced to some extent by the words and actions of others or even the perceived attitudes of others. Participants interviewed confirm CTSAP as successful in relation to targeting parents and peer influence. Since the study was not quantitative in nature, descriptive data as presented did not demonstrate that drug arrests were reduced or prevented, as suggested by Markwood's CTSAP. However, participants of the study

confirmed that juvenile drug abuse and arrests can be prevented by targeting their parents through various programs as stated in Markwood's CTSAP. Again, while the juvenile drug arrest rates increased post NSAN, it is unclear what role the parents played during this time period and future research could examine this since the police officers felt strongly about the parental role, and the related research presented also shows the importance of the parental role.

### **Limitations to the Study**

A small sample of eleven police officers could be viewed as a limitation. Interviewing more police officers, as well as incorporating other stakeholders such as community leaders, parents, teachers, and even juveniles would have likely provided a deeper understanding of the impact of NSAN. Because of the nature of the methodology, which was a mixed-method approach, the study was not designed to generalize findings, neither was it designed to test theory. The CTSAP was used as a framework to assess the NSAN. Some of the participants may have been involved in the strategy implementation, but due to the transfers within the antidrug unit, they may not have been actively involved in strategy implementation, even though they possessed rich experiences in handling juvenile cases. Further research is needed in the future to see if the juvenile arrest rates increased or decreased after 2015. Analyzing visualized data only three years before NSAN implementation and three years after its implementation cannot determine its full effect, because more time is needed to see its effects in reducing juvenile drug arrest rates.

### **Recommendations**

Further research is recommended to understand the impact of NSAN. Further examination of juvenile arrest rates from the implementation of NSAN, is needed. More interviews with wider range of samples directly involved in NSAN, as well as understanding the role of parents, education, and rehabilitation are needed in future research. Most of the literature indicated that education played a key role (Chinwe et al., 2015; Caputi, 2015; Hargreaves, 2015; Meehan, 2017; Jozaghi & Reid, 2015), in increasing awareness about the consequences of drug abuse (Ferri et al., 2015). In this study, each participant interviewed confirmed that education is a key to prevention of juvenile drug abuse and arrests; however descriptive statistics did not support this. Results and shared experiences of experts indicated that more rehabilitative centers are needed for those already addicted to drugs in Kosovo. Finally, as in Markwood's CTSAP, in this study, experts interviewed confirmed that parents can play a bigger role in preventing juveniles from being influenced by peers into drug abuse activities. The final recommendation is that NSAN continue and research should continually examine the various components for impact and any needed changes.

### **Implication**

Evaluating NSAN and understanding drug control policy in Kosovo resulted in some interesting findings. Using a mixed-method approach with both qualitative and quantitative components showed that NSAN was not effective in reducing juvenile drug arrest rate, but it was perceived positively by participants of the study, who are police officers directly involved in an antidrug unit. The findings demonstrated that adding

some provisions in enriching NSAN in the future could better serve a reduction in juvenile drug arrest rates and abuse in Kosovo. Adding rehabilitative programs, and implementing them, could significantly make positive social changes in society. This study brought attention to juvenile drug issues in Kosovo, and addressing this phenomenon is crucial and important for positive social change. It is encouraging that Kosovo is interested in this issue and initiated the NSAN. It is also encouraging that the police officers involved directly in this as part of an antidrug strategy unit viewed the NSAN favorably and believe in it.

Participants of this study confirmed Markwood's CTSAP that to reduce juvenile drug abuse the intervention should occur in the early teen years. As stated by CTSAP by Markwood, social influences can have an impact on the juvenile drug abuse rate, and for this reason more educative programs for juveniles are needed. This could be part of the parental role under NSAN, and schools could also be engaged in this initiative as well.

### **Conclusion**

Mixed results came out of this study, where the results from interviews with police officers support NSAN as effective, while the deidentified juvenile drug arrest data do not support this. With the implementation of NSAN in Kosovo, the juvenile drug arrest rates increased and participants of the study indicated that this was likely due to better cooperation between organizations involved in this strategy. In the past, similar studies reflect the same results, where with the implementation of a new strategy, drug abuse cases increased (Des Jarlais, 2015; Duenas, 2017; Houborg et al., 2014; Lancaster, 2016). NSAN did not reduce juvenile drug arrests in the three years after implementation,

but, more research is needed in the future. A short timeline of evaluation may not be enough to determine the impact and potential of this policy. In conclusion, it is encouraging and a step in the right direction for Kosovo to focus on juvenile drug arrest rates with a national strategy. This focus and recommended continued research should help to inform the strategy for the best potential outcomes.

## References

- Adrian, M. (2015). What the history of drugs can teach us about the current cannabis legalization process: Unfinished business. *Substance Use & Misuse*, 50(8-9), 990-1004. doi:10.3109/10826084.2015.1013725
- Allcock, J., B., Lampe, J., R. & Young, A. (2017). *Kosovo: Self-declared independent country*. Retrieved from: <https://www.britannica.com/place/Kosovo>
- Alexandris P., K. (2017). Drug law enforcement revisited: The "war" against the war on drugs. *Journal of Drug Issues*, 47(3), 396-404.  
doi:<http://dx.doi.org.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.1177/0022042617697017>
- Annual Report. (2011). Kosovo police. Retrieved from:  
[http://www.kosovopolice.com/repository/docs/raporit\\_i\\_pk-se.pdf](http://www.kosovopolice.com/repository/docs/raporit_i_pk-se.pdf)
- Annual Report. (2016). Kosovo police. Retrieved from:  
[http://www.kosovopolice.com/repository/docs/Raporti\\_vjetor\\_i\\_pun%C3%ABs\\_s%C3%AB\\_Policis%C3%AB\\_s%C3%AB\\_Kosov%C3%ABs\\_2016\\_-ANGLISHT.pdf](http://www.kosovopolice.com/repository/docs/Raporti_vjetor_i_pun%C3%ABs_s%C3%AB_Policis%C3%AB_s%C3%AB_Kosov%C3%ABs_2016_-ANGLISHT.pdf)
- ASHP Statement on the Pharmacist's Role in Substance Abuse Prevention, Education, and Assistance. (2014). *American Journal of Health-System Pharmacy*, 71(3), 243-246. doi:10.2146/sp140002
- Bartilow, H. A. (2014). Drug wars collateral damage. *Latin American Research Review*, 49(2), 24-46. DOI: 10.1353/lar.2014.0021
- Baharudin, D., Hussin, A., Sumari, M., Mohamed, S., Zakaria, M., & Sawai, R. (2014). Family intervention for the treatment and rehabilitation of drug addiction: an

exploratory study. *Journal of Substance Use*, 19(4), 301-306. DOI:  
10.3109/14659891.2013.799239

Bian, H. (n.d). Mixed methods research. Retrieved from:

<http://core.ecu.edu/ofe/statisticsresearch/mixed%20methods%20new.pdf>

Bjerge, B., Houborg, E., & Frank, V. A. (2013). Drug policy research at the Centre for Alcohol and Drug Research. *Drugs: Education, Prevention & Policy*, 20(6), 443-450. doi:10.3109/09687637.2013.840455

Bottia, M. C. (2010). Drug control policies: The cases of Colombia and the United States.

Retrieved from: [http://libres.uncg.edu/ir/uncc/f/Bottia\\_uncc\\_0694D\\_10085.pdf](http://libres.uncg.edu/ir/uncc/f/Bottia_uncc_0694D_10085.pdf)

Bowen, E. A., & Redmond, H. (2016). Teaching Note—No Peace Without Justice:

Addressing the United States' War on Drugs in Social Work Education. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 52(4), 503-508. doi:10.1080/10437797.2016.1198296

Burke-Shyne, N., Csete, J., Wilson, D., Fox, E., Wolfe, D., & Rasanathan, J. K. (2017).

How Drug Control Policy and Practice Undermine Access to Controlled Medicines. *Health & Human Rights: An International Journal*, 19(1), 237-252.  
Retrieved from: <https://www.hhrjournal.org/2017/05/how-drug-control-policy-and-practice-undermine-access-to-controlled-medicines/>

Cachanosky, I., Zelaya, V. J., & Block, W. E. (2014). Drug Legalization: Rescuing

Central America from the Claws of Crime. *Journal Jurisprudence*, 219-225.

Retrieved from:

[https://heinonline.org/HOL/LandingPage?handle=hein.journals/jnljur21&div=4&i  
d=&page=](https://heinonline.org/HOL/LandingPage?handle=hein.journals/jnljur21&div=4&id=&page=)

- Des Jarlais, D. C. (2015). The fear of drugs used by strangers. *Substance Use & Misuse*, 50(8-9), 987-989. doi:10.3109/10826084.2015.1015354
- Department of Justice. (1994). *Drugs & Data crime*. Retrieved from:  
<https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/DRRC.PDF>
- Chinwe Onyilofor, F. N., & Chinelo, O. C. (2015). Strategies for the Eradication of Drug Abuse among Challenged Students in Higher Education: Counselling Implications. *International Journal of Adult, Community & Professional Learning*, 22(2), 9-18. Retrieved from: <https://cgnetworks.org/>
- Collins, C. S., & Cooper, J. E. (2014). Emotional intelligence and the qualitative researcher. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 13, 88-103. DOI: [doi.org/10.1080/18146627.2015.1107978](https://doi.org/10.1080/18146627.2015.1107978)
- Connolly, K., & Granfield, R. (2017). Building recovery capital: The role of faith-based communities in the reintegration of formerly incarcerated drug offenders. *Journal of Drug Issues*, 47(3), 370-382.  
doi:<http://dx.doi.org.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.1177/0022042617696916>
- Clark, C. D., & Dufton, E. (2015). Peter Bourne's drug policy and the perils of a public health ethic, 1976-1978. *American Journal of Public Health*, 105(2), 283-292.  
doi:10.2105/AJPH.2014.302233
- Caputi, T., L. (2015). Selling Prevention: Using a Business Framework to Analyze the State of Prevention and Overcome Obstacles to Expanding Substance Abuse Prevention. *Journal of Global Drug Policy & Practice*, 9(1), 1-24. Retrieved from: <https://www.dfaf.org/journal/>



Colquhoun, H. L., Helis, E., Lowe, D., Belanger, D., Hill, S., Mayhew, A., & ...

Grimshaw, J. M. (2016). Development of training for medicines-oriented policymakers to apply evidence. *Health Research Policy & Systems*, 141-9. doi:10.1186/s12961-016-0130-3

Deputy attorney general James M. Cole delivers remarks at the office of national drug control policy drug policy reform conference. (2013). *Lanham: Federal Information & News Dispatch, Inc.* Retrieved from <https://search-proquest-com.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/docview/1466281893?accountid=14872>

Dimovski, Z., Babanoski, K., & Ilijevski, I. (2013). Republic of Macedonia as a transit country for the illegal trafficking in the "Balkan route". *Varstvoslovje*, 15(2), 203-217. Retrieved from: <https://www.fvv.um.si/rv/index-E.html>

Drug use. (2017, June 24). *The Economist*, 423(9046), 81(US). Retrieved from <http://go.galegroup.com.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/ps/i.do?p=EAIM&sw=w&u=minn4020&v=2.1&it=r&id=GALE%7CA496642524&sid=ebSCO&asid=bfeda8738f29f05400d0934e419301cc>

Ducatti F., L. (2012). The Economic Case for Marijuana Legalization in Canada. *Journal of Alternative Perspectives in The Social Sciences*, 5(1), 96-100.

Dueñas, V. (2017). Recalibrating the U.S. Strategy for the War on Drugs. *Carnegie Ethics Online*, 1-9. Retrieved from: [https://www.carnegiecouncil.org/publications/ethics\\_online/recalibrating-the-u-s-strategy-for-the-war-on-drugs](https://www.carnegiecouncil.org/publications/ethics_online/recalibrating-the-u-s-strategy-for-the-war-on-drugs)

- Duraku, A., Begolli, I., Mecinaj, S. H., Buzhala, P., Shala, B., Deva, E., ... Gashi, B. (2014). *National Report 2014. European Monitoring Center for Drugs and Drug Addiction*, Pristina, Kosovo.
- Easton, V., J. & McColl, J., H. (1992). *Scatterplot*. Retrieved from:  
<http://www.stat.yale.edu/Courses/1997-98/101/scatter.htm>
- Enver, T., Mladen, C., Ljerka, O., Jelena, R., Natasa, Z., Damir, S., & Blaz, L. (2016). Prevalence and Factors Associated with Substance Use and Misuse among Kosovar Adolescents; Cross Sectional Study of Scholastic, Familial-, and Sports-Related Factors of Influence. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, Vol 13(5), 1-13. doi:10.3390/ijerph13050502
- Ewing, S. f., Lovejoy, T. I., & Choo, E. K. (2017). How Has Legal Recreational Cannabis Affected Adolescents in Your State? A Window of Opportunity. *American Journal of Public Health*, 107(2), 246-247.  
doi:10.2105/AJPH.2016.303585
- Félix, S., & Portugal, P. (2017). Drug decriminalization and the price of illicit drugs. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 39, 121-129.  
doi:10.1016/j.drugpo.2016.10.014
- Ferri, M., Ballotta, D., Carrá, G., & Dias, S. (2015). A review of regional drug strategies across the world: How is prevention perceived and addressed? *Drugs: Education, Prevention & Policy*, 22(5), 444-448. doi:10.3109/09687637.2015.1041456
- Fish, J. M. (2013). Rethinking Drug Policy Assumptions. *Humanist*, 73(2), 12-15.

- Friend, K., Pettibone, K., Florin, P., Vela, J., & Nargiso, J. (2015). Environmental change strategies targeting drug abuse prevention. *Drugs: Education, Prevention & Policy*, 22(4), 311-315. doi:10.3109/09687637.2014.977229
- Farrugia, A. (2014). Assembling the dominant accounts of youth drug use in Australian harm reduction drug education. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 25(4), 663-672. doi:10.1016/j.drugpo.2014.04.019
- Gallo, A. (2015). *A refresher on regression analysis*. Harvard Business Review. Retrieved from: <https://hbr.org/2015/11/a-refresher-on-regression-analysis>.
- Glick, J. (2014). The Centralized-Use Compromise on Recreational Drug Policy. *Res Publica (13564765)*, 20(4), 359-376. doi:10.1007/s11158-014-9248-8
- Gilderman, G. (2013). Death by Indifference. *World Affairs*, 175(5), 44-51.
- Görge, T., Evenepoel, A., Kraus, B., & Taefi, A. (2013). Prevention of Juvenile Crime and Deviance: Adolescents' and Experts' Views in an International Perspective. *Varstvoslovje: Journal of Criminal Justice & Security*, 15(4), 531-550. Retrieved from: [https://www.fvv.um.si/rv/arhiv/2013-4/07\\_preventionOfJuvenileCrimeAndDeviance\\_2013\\_04\\_05.pdf](https://www.fvv.um.si/rv/arhiv/2013-4/07_preventionOfJuvenileCrimeAndDeviance_2013_04_05.pdf)
- Green, S., B. & Salkind, N., J. (2014). *Using SPSS for Windows and Macintosh: analyzing and understanding data*. Pearson, Upper Saddle River. NJ
- Hajdari, A. (2015). Juvenile criminality in Kosovo. *Issues in Social Science, Vol 3 (1)*, 45-61. doi:10.5296/iss.v3i1.7326.

- Hajdari, A. (2015). Unauthorized production (cultivation) and processing of narcotic drugs in Kosovo. *Journal of Alternative Perspectives in the Social Sciences*, 6(4), 439-460. Retrieved from: <https://www.japss.org/>
- Hargreaves, P. (2016). School-based drug education and prevention: The impact of inspection and curriculum provision. *Drugs and Alcohol Today*, 16(2), 131-141. doi.org/10.1108/DAT-05-2015-0021
- Haskuka, M. (2011). ESPAD Kosovo country report 2011: The European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs (ESPAD) in Kosovo and the Foundation Together Kosovo, Pristina, Kosovo.
- Herder, M. (2014). Toward a Jurisprudence of Drug Regulation. *Journal of Law, Medicine & Ethics*, 42(2), 244-262. doi:10.1111/jlme.12139
- Houborg, E., Asmussen frank, V., & Bjerger, B. (2014). From zero tolerance to non-enforcement: Creating a new space for drug policing in Copenhagen, Denmark. *Contemporary Drug Problems*, 41(2), 261-291. doi.org/10.1177/009145091404100206
- Hyshka, E., Anderson-Baron, J., Karekezi, K., Belle-Isle, L., Elliott, R., Pauly, B., & Wild, T. C. (2017). Harm reduction in name, but not substance: a comparative analysis of current Canadian provincial and territorial policy frameworks. *Harm Reduction Journal*, 141-146. doi:10.1186/s12954-017-0177-7
- International narcotics control strategy report, Kosovo. (2016). U.S. Department of State. Retrieved from: <https://www.state.gov/j/inl/rls/nrcrpt/2016/vol1/253280.htm>

- Jiloha, R. C. (2017). Prevention, early intervention, and harm reduction of substance use in adolescents. *Indian Journal of Psychiatry*, 59(1), 111-118. doi:10.4103/0019-5545.204444
- Jozaghi, E., & Reid, A. A. (2014). A Case Study of the Transformative Effect of Peer Injection Drug Users in the Downtown Eastside of Vancouver, Canada1. *Canadian Journal of Criminology & Criminal Justice*, 56(5), 563-594. doi:10.3138/CJCCJ.2013.E30
- Kazatchkine, M. (2014). Foreword: Illicit drugs in Central Asia. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 25(6), 1153. doi:10.1016/j.drugpo.2014.09.006
- Kellam, S., Wang, W., Mackenzie, A., Brown, C., Ompad, D., Or, F., & ... Windham, A. (2014). The Impact of the Good Behavior Game, a Universal Classroom-Based Preventive Intervention in First and Second Grades, on High-Risk Sexual Behaviors and Drug Abuse and Dependence Disorders into Young Adulthood. *Prevention Science*, 156-18. doi:10.1007/s11121-012-0296-z
- Keck, M., & Correa-Cabrera, G. (2015). U.S. Drug Policy and Supply-Side Strategies: Assessing Effectiveness and Results. *Norteamérica: Revista Académica Del CISAN-UNAM*, 10(2), 47-67. doi.org/10.20999/nam.2015.b002
- Kreit, A. (2017). Marijuana legalization and nosy neighbor states. *Boston College Law Review*, 58(3), 1059-1084. Retrieved from: <https://lawdigitalcommons.bc.edu/bclr/vol58/iss3/9>

- Klisch, Y., Bowling, K. G., Miller, L. M., & Ramos, M. A. (2013). The Impact of Science Education Games on Prescription Drug Abuse Attitudes among Teens: A Case Study. *Journal of Drug Education, 43*(3), 255-275. DOI: 10.2190/DE.43.3.d
- Kosovo Police. (2015). Evaluation of serious and organized crime: SOCTA. Retrieved from: [http://www.kosovopolice.com/repository/docs/I\\_KËRCËNIMIT\\_\\_NGA\\_KRIMET\\_E\\_RËNDA\\_DHE\\_KRIMI\\_I\\_ORGANIZUAR\\_-\\_SOCTA,\\_2014-2015.pdf](http://www.kosovopolice.com/repository/docs/I_KËRCËNIMIT__NGA_KRIMET_E_RËNDA_DHE_KRIMI_I_ORGANIZUAR_-_SOCTA,_2014-2015.pdf)
- Kosovo Police (2018). Bajram Nuhiu e-mail communication.
- Law No 04/L-129. (2012). On amending and supplementing the Criminal Code of the Republic of Kosovo No.04/L-082. Retrieved from: <http://www.parliament.am/library/Qreakan/kosovo.pdf>
- Lancaster, K. (2016). Performing the evidence-based drug policy paradigm. *Contemporary Drug Problems: An Interdisciplinary Quarterly, 43*(2), 142-153. doi:10.1177/0091450916633306
- Lancaster, K., Sutherland, R., & Ritter, A. (2014). Examining the opinions of people who use drugs towards drug policy in Australia. *Drugs: Education, Prevention & Policy, 21*(2), 93-101. doi:10.3109/09687637.2013.838211
- Lancaster, K., Santana, L., Madden, A., & Ritter, A. (2015). Stigma and subjectivities: Examining the textured relationship between lived experience and opinions about drug policy among people who inject drugs. *Drugs: Education, Prevention & Policy, 22*(3), 224-231. doi:10.3109/09687637.2014.970516

- Lloyd, M. H. (2015). The Forgotten Victims of the War on Drugs: An Analysis of U.S. Drug Policy and Reform from a Child Well-Being Perspective. *Journal of Policy Practice, 14*(2), 114-138. doi:10.1080/15588742.2015.1004394
- Maier, S. L., Mannes, S., & Koppenhofer, E. L. (2017). The implications of marijuana decriminalization and legalization on crime in the United States. *Contemporary Drug Problems, 44*(2), 125-146. doi.org/10.1177/0091450917708790
- Markwood, A. (2011). *Comprehensive theory of substance abuse prevention*. Retrieved from: [http://www.jointcommission.org/assets/1/6/comprehensive\\_theory\\_bhc.pdf](http://www.jointcommission.org/assets/1/6/comprehensive_theory_bhc.pdf)
- Marsiglia, F. F., Ayers, S. L., Baldwin-White, A., & Booth, J. (2016). Changing Latino Adolescents' Substance Use Norms and Behaviors: The Effects of Synchronized Youth and Parent Drug Use Prevention Interventions. *Prevention Science: The Official Journal of The Society for Prevention Research, 17*(1), 1-12. doi:10.1007/s11121-015-0574-7
- Maxwell, J. A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Mayock, P., Cronly, J., & Clatts, M. C. (2015). The Risk Environment of Heroin Use Initiation: Young Women, Intimate Partners, and 'Drug Relationships'. *Substance Use & Misuse, 50*(6), 771-782. doi:10.3109/10826084.2015.978629
- McGallagly, J., & McKeganey, N. (2013). Does robust drug enforcement lead to an increase in drug users coming forward for treatment?. *Drugs: Education, Prevention & Policy, 20*(1), 1-4. doi:10.3109/09687637.2012.733980

- McNabb, D., E. (2010). *Research methods for political sciences*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Rutledge, 2 Park Square, Abingdon. NY.
- Meehan, C. (2017). "Junkies, Wasters and Thieves": School-Based Drug Education and the Stigmatization of People Who Use Drugs. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies (JCEPS)*, 15(1), 85-6. Retrieved from:  
<http://www.jceps.com/archives/3318>
- Mengyan, D. (2014). Perceptions about the Police in Drug Control: A survey of drug Users in Kunming, China. *Police Journal*, 87(3), 201-210.  
doi:10.1350/pojo.2014.87.3.626
- Michael, R., S. (n.d). *Threats to internal & external validity: Strategies for education inquiry*. Retrieved from:  
[http://www.indiana.edu/~educy520/sec5982/week\\_9/520in\\_ex\\_validity.pdf](http://www.indiana.edu/~educy520/sec5982/week_9/520in_ex_validity.pdf)
- Mostyn, B., Gibbon, H., & Cowdery, N. (2012). The criminalization of drugs and the search for alternative approaches. *Current Issues in Criminal Justice*, 24(2), 261-272. Retrieved from:  
<https://search.informit.com.au/documentSummary;dn=004176341576712;res=IE>  
LHSS
- Nadelmann, E., & LaSalle, L. (2017). Two steps forward, one step back: current harm reduction policy and politics in the United States. *Harm Reduction Journal*, 141-7. doi:10.1186/s12954-017-0157-y
- National Strategy Against Narcotics. (2012). Government. Retrieved from:  
[https://www.mpb-ks.org/repository/docs/Final\\_Strategy\\_2012-2017\\_R.pdf](https://www.mpb-ks.org/repository/docs/Final_Strategy_2012-2017_R.pdf)



- National Kosovo Report. (2014). *European monitoring center for drugs and drug addiction*. Retrieved from: [http://www.emcdda.europa.eu/system/files/publications/847/National\\_Report\\_Kosovo\\_2014\\_EN\\_483865.pdf](http://www.emcdda.europa.eu/system/files/publications/847/National_Report_Kosovo_2014_EN_483865.pdf)
- Nedelec, J. L., Richardson, G., & Silver, I. A. (2017). Religiousness, spirituality, and substance use: A genetically sensitive examination and critique. *Journal of Drug Issues, 47*(3), 340-355. DOI:10.1177/0022042617693382
- Neill, K. A. (2014). The war on drugs in the American states: Variations in sentencing policies over time (Order No. 3581681). Available from Criminal Justice Database. (1612667715). Retrieved from <https://search-proquest-com.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/docview/1612667715?accountid=14872>
- Nickerson, J. W., & Attaran, A. (2012). The Inadequate Treatment of Pain: Collateral Damage from the War on Drugs. *Plos Medicine, 9*(1), 1-4.  
doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1001153
- Okamoto, S. K., PhD., Helm, S., PhD., Pel, S., B.A., McClain, L. L., M.S.W., Hill, A. P., Hayashida, J. K., & P. (2014). Developing empirically based, culturally grounded drug prevention interventions for indigenous youth populations. *The Journal of Behavioral Health Services & Research, 41*(1), 8-19.  
doi:<http://dx.doi.org.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.1007/s11414-012-9304-0>
- O'Sullivan, E., Rassel, G., R. & Berner, M. (2008). *Research methods for public administrators*. (5<sup>th</sup> Ed.). Pearson, Upper Saddle River. NJ
- Patten, D. (2016). The Mass Incarceration of Nations and the Global War on Drugs: Comparing the United States' Domestic and Foreign Drug Policies. *Social Justice,*

43(1), 85-105. Retrieved from: <http://www.socialjusticejournal.org/product/daniel-patten/>

- Rankin, J. (2017). Use of most drugs by American teens drops. *CMAJ: Canadian Medical Association Journal*, 189(4), E178. doi:10.1503/cmaj.1095379
- Ratvich Sh., M.& Carl, N., M. (2016). *Qualitative research: Bridging the conceptual, theoretical and methodological*. Thousand Oaks, SAGE. CA
- Reuter, P., & Pardo, B. (2017). New psychoactive substances: Are there any good options for regulating new psychoactive substances? *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 40117-122. Doi:10.1016/j.drugpo.2016.10.020
- Reitz, K. C. (2015). An environmental argument for a consistent federal policy on marijuana. *Arizona Law Review*, 57(4), 1085-1113. Retrieved from: <http://www.law.arizona.edu/Journals/ALR/>
- Rongione, D. Erford, B., T & Broglie, C. (2011). Alcohol and other drug abuse counseling outcomes for school-aged youth: A meta-analysis of studies from 1990 to 2009. *Counseling Outcome Research*. 2(1) 8-24. DOI: 10.1177/2150137811400595
- Rosengren, D. B., Beadnell, B., Nason, M., Stafford, P. A., & Daugherty, R. (2012). Reports of past alcohol and drug use following participation in a motivation enhancing intervention: Implications for clinical assessment and program evaluation. *Substance Abuse Treatment, Prevention & Policy*, 719-32. doi:10.1186/1747-597X-7-19

- Rotheram-Borus, M. J., Tomlinson, M., Durkin, A., Baird, K., DeCelles, J., & Swendeman, D. (2016). Feasibility of using soccer and job training to prevent drug abuse and HIV. *AIDS and Behavior, 20*(9), 1841-1850. doi:10.1007/s10461-015-1262-0
- Sacco, L. N., & Finklea, K. (2014). Reauthorizing the office of national drug control policy: Issues for consideration. *Journal of Drug Addiction, Education, and Eradication, 10*(4), 443-457. Retrieved from <https://fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/R41535.pdf>
- Saloner, B. b., McGinty, E. E., & Barry, C. L. (2015). Policy Strategies to Reduce Youth Recreational Marijuana Use. *Pediatrics, 135*(6), 955-957. doi:10.1542/peds.2015-0436
- Seddon, T. (2016). Inventing Drugs: A Genealogy of a Regulatory Concept. *Journal of Law & Society, 43*(3), 393-415. Doi:10.1111/j.1467-6478.2016.00760.x
- Serious and Organized Crime Threat Assessment (SOCTA). (2016). *Report on drug abuse*. Retrieved from: [http://www.kosovopolice.com/repository/docs/SERIOUS\\_AND\\_ORGANISED\\_CRIME\\_THREAT\\_ASSESSMENT\\_-\\_SOCTA,\\_2014-2015.pdf](http://www.kosovopolice.com/repository/docs/SERIOUS_AND_ORGANISED_CRIME_THREAT_ASSESSMENT_-_SOCTA,_2014-2015.pdf)
- Shanahan, M., & Ritter, A. (2014). Cost Benefit Analysis of Two Policy Options for Cannabis: Status Quo and Legalization. *Plos ONE, 9*(4), 1-12. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0095569

- Singleton, M., Stogner, J., & Miller, B. (2014). Awareness of novel drug legality in a young adult population. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 39(3), 425-435. doi:10.1007/s12103-013-9221-7
- Skinner, M., Fleming, C., Haggerty, K., & Catalano, R. (2014). Sex risk behavior among adolescent and young adult children of opiate addicts: Outcomes from the focus on families prevention trial and an examination of childhood and concurrent predictors of sex risk behavior. *Prevention Science*, 1570-77. doi:10.1007/s11121-012-0327-9
- Taylor, S., Buchanan, J., & Ayres, T. (2016). Prohibition, privilege and the drug apartheid: The failure of drug policy reform to address the underlying fallacies of drug prohibition. *Criminology & Criminal Justice. An International Journal*, 16(4), 452-469. doi:10.1177/1748895816633274
- Thurman, B., & Boughelaf, J. (2015). "We don't get taught enough": An assessment of drug education provision in schools in England. *Drugs and Alcohol Today*, 15(3), 127-140. doi.org/10.1108/DAT-11-2014-0038
- Traynor, K. (2014). White House summit tackles opioid abuse. *American Journal of Health-System Pharmacy*, 71(15), 1242-1243. doi:10.2146/news140055
- United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (2009). *Psychoactive substance use in Kosovo*. Retrieved from:  
[https://www.unicef.org/kosovoprogramme/RAR\\_psychoactive\\_substance\\_use\\_eng\\_09\(1\).pdf](https://www.unicef.org/kosovoprogramme/RAR_psychoactive_substance_use_eng_09(1).pdf)

- United States Department of State. (2010). *International Narcotics Control Strategy Report (INCSR 2010 Volume 1)*. Retrieved from:  
<http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/120054.pdf>
- Van Hout, M. C., & Brennan, R. (2012). Curiosity killed M-Cat: A post-legislative study on mephedrone use in Ireland. *Drugs: Education, Prevention & Policy*, *19*(2), 156-162. doi:10.3109/09687637.2011.617796
- van Wel, J. P., Rosiers, J. F., & Van Hal, G. (2016). Changes in drug use among Belgian higher education students: A comparison between 2005, 2009, and 2013. *Substance Use & Misuse*, *51*(9), 1232-1238.  
doi:10.3109/10826084.2016.1162811
- Wallace, B. (2012). Controversies in knowledge translation for community-based drug treatment: The need to the end policies of the war on drugs and mass incarceration of drug offenders to achieve health equity. *Journal of Urban Health*, *89*(6), 894-904. doi:10.1007/s11524-012-9697-3
- Walker, S. (2006). *Sense and non-sense about crime and drugs*. (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.
- Wiessing, L., Ferri, M., Běláčková, V., Carrieri, P., Friedman, S. R., Folch, C., & ... Mitcheson, L. (2017). Monitoring quality and coverage of harm reduction services for people who use drugs: a consensus study. *Harm Reduction Journal*, 141-148. doi:10.1186/s12954-017-0141-6

Wong, G. T. W., & Manning, M. (2017). Adolescent illicit drug use and policy options in Australia: A multicriteria decision analysis. *Journal of Drug Issues, 47*(4), 638-664. doi:<http://dx.doi.org.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.1177/002204261771944>

## Appendix A: Letter of Cooperation

Community Research Partner Name: Kosovo Police  
Contact Information : Bajram Nuhiu

Date : Sept 15, 2018

Dear Ferid Azemi,

Based on my review of your research proposal, I give permission for you to conduct the study entitled National Strategy Against Narcotics, Current Drug Control Policy, and Law Enforcement Experiences in Kosovo, within the Kosovo Police. As part of this study, I authorize you to post flyers at reception point of antidrug unit, for the purpose of recruitment of those who wish to participate in the study, data collection, member checking, and results dissemination activities. Individuals' participation will be voluntary and at their own discretion.

We understand that our organization's responsibilities include: deidentified juvenile drug arrest rates, information and data about strategy, and ensure that participants of the study be given time for interview. We reserve the right to withdraw from the study at any time if our circumstances change.

I understand that the student may be naming our organization in the doctoral project report that is published in ProQuest.

I confirm that I am authorized to approve research in this setting and that this plan complies with the organization's policies.

I understand that the data collected will remain entirely confidential and may not be provided to anyone outside of the student's supervising faculty/staff without permission from the Walden University IRB.

Sincerely,

CPT. Bajram Nuhiu  
Director of antidrug Unit Kosovo Police  
Contact Information:  
STR Luan Haradinaj" p.n. 10000 Prishtinë

## Appendix B: Flyer

### Antidrug Research

Ferid Azemi

National Strategy Against Narcotics, Current Drug Control Policy, and Law Enforcement Experiences in Kosovo

Volunteers Wanted for a Research Study

#### **Purpose of the research**

The purpose of this research is to evaluate National Strategy Against Narcotics, and understand effectiveness of current drug control policy.

#### **Eligibility and Criteria**

Participants must be working at antidrug units for their past ten years, must have been involved in Strategy implementation/handling juvenile cases, and must voluntarily participate in this research. Participation in this study is completely voluntary.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to:

- Complete an Informed Consent Form (10 minutes or less to complete.)
- If deemed eligible, participate face-to-face interview that will not exceed 40 minutes to answer the questions.
- Note, the participant is under no circumstances required to complete the interview.

#### **Benefits of participation in the study**

The purpose of this study is to shed light on antidrug strategy impact, and understanding strategy impact through your experiences could lead to future strategy improvements.

#### **Contact Person(s) or Department**

To learn more about this research, call Ferid Azemi at e-mail address [ferid.azemi@waldenu.edu](mailto:ferid.azemi@waldenu.edu) or telephone number +38345365558 or if you want to talk privately about this research, rights as participant, you can contact [irb@mail.waldenu.edu](mailto:irb@mail.waldenu.edu). The research is conducted under the direction of College of Behavior Sciences at Walden University, and the dissertation chair of this study is Dr. Gregory Koehle, who can be reached at e-mail [gregory.koehle@mail.waldenu.edu](mailto:gregory.koehle@mail.waldenu.edu)

Thank you for your consideration and support



### Appendix C: Ethical Collaboration Memo

My name is Ferid Azemi, and I am conducting a research, as part of my dissertation of my Ph.D. study at Walden University, and I would like to cooperate and collaborate on some issues that may arise during my research. I have selected you Associate Professor Gregory Koehle, Ph.D. (Public Policy and Administration, gregory.koehle@mail.waldenu.edu) based on criteria of your academic background and field of expertise.

- What kinds of processes and experiences would support challenging myself on my biases and assumptions in this study of policy evaluation of antidrug strategy impact in Kosovo?
- What are some specific techniques and processes I can use for the purpose of the study, and during interviews?
- Are these reflexive questions built into my research design through face-to-face interview approach? If so how?
- Am I asking enough questions to answer my research questions for the given study?
- What is my strategy or approach for dealing with disagreements that may arise, or problems that arise through these collaborative relationships?

## Appendix D: Identity /Positionality Memo

Ferid Azemi

April 01, 2018

*Positionality (relationship and roles to study topic, setting and goals)*

My interest in this topic is to remain neutral toward the study, setting in neutral area, and goals to complete the study on timely manner. It is in my best interest to truly understand antidrug strategy effects and its impact in Kosovo. Whether it has positive or negative or no impact, it is crucial to understand it and if necessary make necessary changes in future if this strategy is not effective.

*Social identity/location*

Study will be conducted in Pristina (Capital City), while researcher work is in Vushtrri, a city about 20 miles away from capital city.

*Interest in the research topic and setting*

Understanding strategy impact and effectiveness for future positive changes.

*Bias and implicit theories and the potential implications/influences on research*

My intention is to remain neutral during and after data collection. Theoretical framework will not have any implication, except understanding the drug prevention better through educative programs. It is crucial for this research to see if this strategy had impact since its implementation in 2012, and understand which it the most effective way in reducing drug use in Kosovo.

*What is my strategy or approach for dealing with disagreements that may arise, or problems that arise through these collaborative relationships?*

My main strategy is addressing all research issues based on research methods texts, and engaging with other similar field experts about issues that may arise. My chair and committee member are the main experts of giving and clarifying all issues and problems may arise during collaborative relationships with others engaged indirectly in this study.

Appendix F: Self-reflection Journaling

National Strategy Against Narcotics, Current Drug Control Policy and Law Enforcement

Experiences in Kosovo

Description:

Feelings about the study:

Experiences today:

Everyday Life and Topic of Study:

## Appendix G: Coding Memo Sample

Ferid Azemi

Memo: Coding- National Strategy Against Narcotics, Current Drug Control Policy, and Law Enforcement Experiences

April 10, 2018

**Research Questions**

What impact has the National Strategy Against Narcotics had on reducing juvenile drug arrests?

- PO Police Officer
- EDU **Education**
- PRGM **Program**
- TRNG **Training**
- INV **Involvement**
- PAR **Parents**

What is your involvement with implementation of antidrug strategy?

- TRNG\_PRFS PROG **Training in Professional Programs**

Do parents who are interested in pursuing education about drug use prevention for their children seek out network support?

- PROF\_GLS **Professional Goals**

## Appendix H: Semistructured Questionnaire

<p><b>Semistructured Questioner</b></p> <p><b>Information about the participant</b></p> <p><b>Code:</b></p>
<p>Name of Interviewee:</p> <p>Place of Interview:</p> <p>Date of Interview:</p> <p>Work Location of Participant:</p> <p>Work Experience at Kosovo Police:</p> <p>Work Experience at Antidrug Unit</p> <p>Education:</p>

**Part I: Involvement in Implementation of NSAN**

1. Describe your experiences with handling juvenile drug related cases? Please explain (notes will be written here)
2. How often have you participated in various programs deriving from NSAN?
3. What is your opinion about juvenile drug issues and drug arrest rates? Can you explain the impact of NSAN in relation to juvenile arrest rates?
4. Educative programs rooted in NSAN to what degree had impact in increasing awareness juveniles to stay away from drugs?
5. What is the role of parents in prevention of juvenile drug abuse/arrest rates?

**Part II: Juvenile Drug Arrest Rates**

6. How do you perceive juvenile drug arrest rates of pre NSAN implementation and after the implementation?
7. Based on your experiences at antidrug unit handling juvenile cases, do you think that juvenile drug arrest rates increased or decreased after strategy implementation? Please explain
8. How much the implementation of NSAN had impact on reducing or increasing juvenile drug arrest rate?
9. How do you explain the data from January 2009 to January 2015? Can you explain what is the main reason there were increased or decreased juvenile arrest rates?
10. How can you explain the juvenile drug arrest rates from January 2009 to January 2012 where the NSAN was implemented, and how do you explain juvenile drug arrest rates three years after the strategy implementation?

**Part III: Strategy Recommendations**

11. What were the main challenges based on your experiences, in the implementation of NSAN?
12. What would you change in this strategy to be more effective in future?
13. What would be the best approach to reduce juvenile drug arrest rates in Kosovo and why?
14. How NSAN could be more effective in future, and what would you add to this strategy to reduce juvenile drug issues in Kosovo?
15. Is there anything you wish to talk about that may be related to the topic, but it was left out of this interview? Or do you have any questions?