

Psychology of Addictive Behaviors

The Labels and Models Used to Describe Problematic Substance Use Impact Discrete Elements of Stigma: A Registered Report

Charlotte R. Pennington, Rebecca L. Monk, Derek Heim, Abigail K. Rose, Thomas Gough, Ross Clarke, Graeme Knibb, Roshni Patel, Priya Rai, Halimah Ravat, Ramsha Ali, Georgiana Anastasiou, Fatemeh Asgari, Eve Bate, Tara Bourke, Jayme Boyles, Alix Campbell, Nic Fowler, Sian Hester, Charlotte Neil, Beth McIntyre, Ellie Ogilvy, Amie Renouf, Joni Stafford, Katie Toothill, Hin Kok Wong, and Andrew Jones

Online First Publication, May 11, 2023. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/adb0000919>

CITATION

Pennington, C. R., Monk, R. L., Heim, D., Rose, A. K., Gough, T., Clarke, R., Knibb, G., Patel, R., Rai, P., Ravat, H., Ali, R., Anastasiou, G., Asgari, F., Bate, E., Bourke, T., Boyles, J., Campbell, A., Fowler, N., Hester, S., Neil, C., McIntyre, B., Ogilvy, E., Renouf, A., Stafford, J., Toothill, K., Wong, H. K., & Jones, A. (2023, May 11). The Labels and Models Used to Describe Problematic Substance Use Impact Discrete Elements of Stigma: A Registered Report. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*. Advance online publication. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/adb0000919>

The Labels and Models Used to Describe Problematic Substance Use Impact Discrete Elements of Stigma: A Registered Report

Charlotte R. Pennington^{1, 2}, Rebecca L. Monk^{3, 4}, Derek Heim^{3, 4}, Abigail K. Rose^{4, 5}, Thomas Gough⁶, Ross Clarke¹, Graeme Knibb^{3, 4}, Roshni Patel¹, Priya Rai¹, Halimah Ravat¹, Ramsha Ali³, Georgiana Anastasiou⁶, Fatemeh Asgari³, Eve Bate⁵, Tara Bourke⁵, Jayme Boyles³, Alix Campbell⁵, Nic Fowler⁵, Sian Hester⁶, Charlotte Neil⁷, Beth McIntyre⁵, Ellie Ogilvy³, Amie Renouf³, Joni Stafford⁶, Katie Toothill⁶, Hin Kok Wong³, and Andrew Jones^{4, 5}

¹ School of Psychology, College of Health and Life Sciences, Aston University

² Institute of Health and Neurodevelopment, Aston University

³ Department of Psychology, Edge Hill University

⁴ Liverpool Centre for Alcohol Research, Liverpool, United Kingdom

⁵ Faculty of Health, School of Psychology, Liverpool John Moores University

⁶ Department of Psychology, University of Liverpool

⁷ Department of Psychology, Liverpool Hope University



Objectives: Problematic substance use is one of the most stigmatized health conditions leading research to examine how the labels and models used to describe it influence public stigma. Two recent studies examine whether beliefs in a disease model of addiction influence public stigma but result in equivocal findings—in line with the mixed-blessings model, Kelly et al. (2021) found that while the label “chronically relapsing brain disease” reduced blame attribution, it decreased prognostic optimism and increased perceived danger and need for continued care; however, Rundle et al. (2021) conclude absence of evidence. This study isolates the different factors used in these two studies to assess whether health condition (drug use vs. health concern), etiological label (brain disease vs. problem), and attributional judgment (low vs. high treatment stability) influence public stigma toward problematic substance use. **Method:** Overall, 1,613 participants were assigned randomly to one of the eight vignette conditions that manipulated these factors. They completed self-report measures of discrete and general public stigma and an indirect measure of discrimination. **Results:** Greater social distance, danger, and public stigma but lower blame were ascribed to drug use relative to a health concern. Greater (genetic) blame was reported when drug use was labeled as a “chronically relapsing brain disease” relative to a “problem.” Findings for attributional judgment were either inconclusive or statistically equivalent. **Discussion:** The labels used to describe problematic substance use appear to impact discrete elements of stigma. We suggest that addiction is a functional attribution, which may explain the mixed literature on the impact of etiological labels on stigma to date.

Public Health Significance Statement

This research assesses whether descriptions of different health conditions (drug use vs. health concern), etiological labels (brain disease vs. problem), and attributional judgment (low vs. high treatment stability) influence public stigma toward problematic substance use. Such investigations are pertinent because use of incorrect terminology in this field can exacerbate stigma and increase barriers to support and treatment for individuals experiencing problematic substance use.

Keywords: problematic substance use, addiction, stigma, discrimination, models of addiction

Supplemental materials: <https://doi.org/10.1037/adb0000919.supp>

Charlotte R. Pennington  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5259-642X>

The authors would like to thank Daniël Lakens for his guidance on power analyses and equivalence tests in the Stage 1 version of this article. This study is supported by internal funding from Aston University awarded to Charlotte R. Pennington, Rebecca L. Monk, Derek Heim, Abigail K. Rose, Thomas

Gough, Graeme Knibb, and Andrew Jones. The authors have no known conflicts of interest to declare.

Charlotte R. Pennington played a lead role in conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, funding acquisition, investigation, methodology, project administration, resources, software, supervision, validation, visualization, writing—original draft and writing—review and editing.

continued

Problematic substance use is one of the most heavily stigmatized health conditions (Kilian et al., 2021; Room et al., 2001; Schomerus et al., 2011). Public stigma is defined as the endorsement of negative attitudes held by members of the public against a specific group, which manifests in discrimination toward its members (Corrigan & Rao, 2012; Corrigan & Watson, 2002). Individuals diagnosed with a substance use disorder (SUD) are routinely viewed as dangerous, unpredictable, helpless, and nonhuman (Dyregrov & Bruland-Selseng, 2022; Nieweglowski et al., 2018). Such public stigma can contribute to self-stigma for individuals with SUD, causing feelings of marginalization and social exclusion (Maurage et al., 2012; Pescosolido et al., 2010), hindering attempts to reduce consumption (Hammarlund et al., 2018), and acting as a barrier to help-seeking and treatment (Keyes et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2017). Research also suggests that health care practitioners can display stigmatizing attitudes toward those seeking treatment support for substance misuse (Janulis et al., 2013; Luoma et al., 2007), which may result in suboptimal care (van Boekel et al., 2013), diagnostic overshadowing (Palmer et al., 2009), and less efficacious treatment (Andréasson et al., 2013).

In an effort to inform public health strategies (i.e., public framing around “addiction”) and interventions (i.e., stigma reduction), research has examined the factors that may exacerbate or lessen perceptions of problematic substance use. Some of these efforts center on how the different etiological labels and models used to describe substance misuse (e.g., labeling addiction as a *brain disease* vs. *problem*) influence public stigma (e.g., Kruis et al., 2020; Lebowitz & Appelbaum, 2017; Wiens & Walker, 2015; see Hall et al., 2015; Kvaale et al., 2013, for reviews). Two recent studies by Kelly et al. (2021) and Rundle et al. (2021), however,

have resulted in somewhat equivocal findings, making it difficult to provide any clear recommendations and to end the use of stigmatizing terminology in the field (Atayde et al., 2021). A closer look at these studies reveals that while both aimed to assess how the brain disease model of addiction influences public stigma, they included different and additional methodological factors that could explain their discrepant findings. The present study aims to isolate these factors to examine how they may exacerbate or lessen stigmatizing perceptions of problematic substance use.


In the study conducted by Kelly et al. (2021), participants ($n = 3,635$) were presented with one of the 12 vignettes describing a man or woman being treated for opioid dependence, which was defined as either a “chronically relapsing brain disease,” “brain disease,” “disease,” “illness,” “disorder,” or “problem” (see File S1; <https://osf.io/dk694/>). In line with the “mixed-blessings” model (Haslam & Kvaale, 2015), findings indicated that while the label “chronically relapsing brain disease” was associated with lower stigmatizing blame attributions compared to all other labels, it was associated simultaneously with decreased prognostic optimism (personal agency) and increased perceptions of danger and need for continuing care. Findings from this study suggest that there may not be one single term that can reduce all dimensions of stigma. Kelly et al. state “to reduce stigmatizing blame, biomedical ‘chronically relapsing brain disease’ terminology may be optimal; to increase prognostic optimism and decrease perceived danger [...] use of non-medical terminology (e.g., ‘opioid problem’) may be optimal” (p. 1757).


Rundle et al. (2021) assessed whether public stigma differs for SUDs relative to other health conditions and if this was moderated by people’s preexisting beliefs about different etiological models


Rebecca L. Monk played an equal role in conceptualization, funding acquisition, methodology, project administration, resources, validation, writing—original draft and writing—review and editing. Derek Heim played an equal role in conceptualization, funding acquisition, methodology, project administration, resources, validation and writing—review and editing. Abigail K. Rose played an equal role in conceptualization, funding acquisition, methodology, project administration, validation and writing—review and editing. Thomas Gough played an equal role in funding acquisition, methodology, project administration, resources, validation and writing—review and editing. Ross Clarke played an equal role in investigation and writing—review and editing. Graeme Knibb played an equal role in project administration, resources, validation and writing—review and editing. Roshni Patel played an equal role in formal analysis, investigation, validation and writing—review and editing. Priya Rai played an equal role in formal analysis, investigation, validation and writing—review and editing. Halimah Ravat played an equal role in formal analysis, investigation, validation and writing—review and editing. Ramsha Ali played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and equal role in investigation. Georgiana Anastasiou played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Fatemeh Asgari played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Eve Bate played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Tara Bourke played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Jayme Boyles played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Alix Campbell played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Nic Fowler played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Sian Hester played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Charlotte Neil played a supporting role in

writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Beth McIntyre played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Ellie Ogilvy played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Amie Renouf played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Joni Stafford played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Katie Toothill played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Hin Kok Wong played a supporting role in writing—review and editing and an equal role in investigation. Andrew Jones played a lead role in software and an equal role in conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, funding acquisition, methodology, project administration, resources, supervision, validation, visualization and writing—review and editing.

The Stage 1 protocol was given In-Principle Acceptance on January 25, 2022, via the Peer Community In Registered Report (PCI RR) platform and can be found at: <https://osf.io/4vscg>. In this article, we report all manipulations, measures, and exclusions. This study meets Level 6 of the PCI RR bias control (https://tr.peercommunityin.org/help/guide_for_authors).

 The data are available at <https://osf.io/dk694/>.

 The experimental materials are available at <https://osf.io/dk694/>.

 The Stage 1 accepted protocol is available at <https://osf.io/4vscg>.

Open Access funding provided by School of Psychology, Aston University: This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY 4.0; <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>). This license permits copying and redistributing the work in any medium or format, as well as adapting the material for any purpose, even commercially.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Charlotte R. Pennington, School of Psychology, College of Health & Life Sciences, Aston University, Birmingham, B7 4ET, United Kingdom. Email: c.pennington@aston.ac.uk

of addiction. Participants ($n = 872$) were given a vignette that described an individual experiencing difficulty in their daily routine and who was diagnosed with one of four health conditions: an alcohol use disorder (AUD), major depressive disorder (MDD), co-occurring AUD and MDD, or diabetes. Findings indicated that public stigma was highest for the diagnosis of AUD followed by AUD/MDD compared to both the MDD and diabetes conditions. Furthermore, endorsement of the psychological and nature models of addiction was associated with lower public stigma, and endorsement of the moral model was related to higher stigma. However, against both the author's predictions and the findings from Kelly et al. (2021), endorsement of the disease model was not associated with public stigma. Rundle et al. suggest that "a straightforward interpretation of this finding is that disease beliefs do not relate to public stigma toward AUD," but "considering that this effect is null, we are unable to suggest that the disease [model] does in fact not relate to public stigma ratings" (p. 845).

These two studies therefore had a common goal—they aimed to examine whether beliefs in a disease model of addiction (whether manipulated or measured) influence public stigma, yet they come to different conclusions. While Kelly et al. (2021) demonstrate that the etiological label of "chronically relapsing brain disease" differentially affects stigmatizing attitudes toward problematic substance use, Rundle et al. (2021) conclude absence of evidence (but importantly not evidence of absence). A closer look at the vignettes used in both of these studies reveals that the "brain disease" model factor is not the only variable manipulated; in other words, additional methodological factors may have influenced stigmatizing perceptions.¹ We now describe each of these to provide a rationale for their inclusion in the present study.

The first difference is that the vignettes employed in each study differed based on the *health condition* described. Specifically, Rundle et al. (2021) compare the public stigma ascribed to problematic substance use (AUD) with other health conditions (e.g., diabetes), whereas this control comparison is absent within the study by Kelly et al. (2021). Indeed, research indicates that the general public ascribes greater stigma to problematic substance use compared to other mental and physical health conditions (Kilian et al., 2021; Room et al., 2001, 2009; Schomerus et al., 2011), and this comparison may therefore explain why Rundle et al. found larger effect sizes for stigmatizing perceptions compared to Kelly et al. (2021). We first aim to isolate this factor to examine whether the health condition of "drug use" compared to "health concern" influences public stigma.

A second difference is that Kelly et al. (2021) manipulate different *etiological labels* to describe substance misuse within the vignette itself (e.g., "chronically relapsing brain disease" vs. "disease" vs. "problem"), whereas Rundle et al. measure these beliefs indirectly through a general self-report questionnaire of addiction beliefs (e.g., "Addicts cannot control their addictive behaviour"). Providing an explicit explanation for the etiology of problematic substance misuse may therefore directly influence stigmatizing perceptions, and this may particularly be the case when participants believe that this messaging is relayed by a trusted professional (e.g., health care practitioner or scientist; Wiens & Walker, 2015; see also Bogren, 2019). Despite the brain disease model of addiction being contested and vehemently debated (see Hall et al., 2015; Hart, 2017; Heather et al., 2018; Heilig et al., 2021; Heim, 2014; Kuorikoski & Uusitalo, 2018; Leshner, 1997; Volkow

et al., 2016), it has gained prominence in public understanding (Vederhus et al., 2016), likely because it is commonly defined in such a way by national organizations (National Institute on Alcohol Abuse & Alcoholism, 2021; National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2021) and endorsed by health care professionals (Lawrence et al., 2013; see also Hickman, 2014; Russell et al., 2011). We therefore assess whether the explicit etiological label of "chronically relapsing brain disease" elicits public stigma relative to the "problem" label.

Third, although not considered in either of the studies, the vignettes include different information about treatment-seeking and outcome and therefore provide variable scope for *attributional judgment*. In the vignette employed by Kelly et al. the individual with problematic substance use is described as receiving treatment with a high likelihood of success ("Alex is committed to doing all that they can to ensure success following treatment"). Conversely, in Rundle et al. they are described as seeking treatment with a variable outcome ("The doctor tells John/Jane that this is potentially a long-term condition that could get worse over time, but that John's/Jane's condition could also improve if he/her starts treatment now"). While the former statement may initially seem innocuous, it ascribes some level of volitional control and temporal stability to problematic substance use ("high treatment stability"; for other examples, see Monk & Heim, 2011). In contrast, the statement in Rundle et al. is more circumspect, as it presents two possible outcomes—the behavior either abates or persists long term ("low stability"). It may therefore be suggested that the two studies elicit different attributional judgments about problematic substance use (see Davies, 1997; Kingree et al., 1999), with this treatment information impacting public stigma toward addiction (see Ashford et al., 2018; Cunningham & Godinho, 2022; McGinty et al., 2015; Romer & Bock, 2008).

Finally, both studies use different dependent measures to assess public stigma toward problematic substance use. Kelly et al. (2021) examined discrete elements of stigma, specifically social distance, perceived danger, prognostic optimism, blame attribution, and continued care. Conversely, Rundle et al. measured perceived public, treatment, personal, and discriminatory stigma but aggregated these into an index of general public stigma. The disease model of addiction, however, has been shown to differentially affect discrete elements of public stigma consistent with the mixed-blessings model (Haslam & Kvaale, 2015; Kvaale et al., 2013). For example, while it may lessen blame toward substance (mis)use, it appears to reduce ascriptions of agency and self-control. Furthermore, both studies are potentially limited by their reliance on self-report questionnaires, which are susceptible to social desirability biases when assessing socially sensitive attitudes (Nisbett & Wilson, 1977; Tourangeau & Yan, 2007). In order to overcome this limitation, the present study also employs an indirect measure of discrimination (Jones et al., 2022), which assesses the magnitude of financial rewards and punishments directed toward the person depicted in the vignette. Informing the inclusion of this measure, previous research has shown that the labels used to describe problematic substance use may induce cognitive biases that result in a perceived need for

¹ Another difference is that the two studies include different *substances* within the vignette: While Kelly et al. (2021) focus on problematic opioid use, Rundle et al. (2021) focus on alcohol use. Research has consistently shown that both alcohol use and substance use disorder are heavily stigmatized (Kilian et al., 2021; see also Room, 2009), so we do not expect this to explain the different findings. In the present study, we therefore do not manipulate the substance itself.

punishment rather than support (Ashford et al., 2019; Kelly et al., 2010; Kelly & Westerhoff, 2010).

Study Overview and Hypotheses

The present study aims to isolate factors that may exacerbate or lessen public stigma toward problematic substance use and explain further the different findings between Kelly et al. (2021) and Rundle et al. (2021). Specifically, it examines whether *health condition* (drug use vs. health concern), *etiological label* (brain disease vs. problem), and *attributional judgment* (low vs. high treatment stability) influence public stigma and discrimination toward problematic substance use. Given the mixed literature regarding whether the “brain disease” label lessens or exacerbates public stigma and the novel inclusion of the attributional judgment factor, we do not make any directional predictions. Instead, we have the following research questions:

Research Question 1: Does the health condition of “drug use” or “health concern” influence public stigma and discrimination?

Research Question 2: Does the etiological label of “chronically relapsing brain disease” or “problem” influence public stigma and discrimination toward problematic substance use?

Research Question 3: Does attributional judgment—low versus high treatment stability—influence public stigma and discrimination toward problematic substance use?

Allowing for comparisons between Kelly et al. (2021) and Rundle et al. (2021), we examine whether these findings are dependent on stigma being measured using discrete (Stigma & Attribution Assessment; Kelly et al., 2021) or aggregate measures (Personal & Perceived Public Stigma Measure; Rundle et al., 2021), as well as employing an indirect measure of discrimination (Financial Discrimination Task; Jones et al., 2022).

Method

Transparency and Openness

The Stage 1 protocol was given In-Principle Acceptance on January 25, 2022, via the Peer Community In Registered Report (PCI RR) platform and can be found at: <https://osf.io/4vscg>. All materials, code, and raw data are publicly available on the Open Science Framework: <https://osf.io/dk694/>. In the sections below, we report all manipulations, measures, and exclusions. This study meets Level 6 of the PCI RR bias control (https://rr.peercommunityin.org/help/guide_for_authors).

Design and Participants

This study comprised a 2 (health condition: drug use vs. health concern) \times 2 (etiological label: chronically relapsing brain disease vs. problem) \times 2 (attributional judgment: low vs. high treatment stability) between-participants design. To be eligible to take part, participants confirmed that they were aged 18 or above and that they did not have or know any close relatives with a previous or current substance use or psychiatric diagnosis. They were recruited via research participation schemes (SONA Systems Ltd.), Prolific Academic (<https://prolific.co/>; see Peer et al., 2017), and social

media platforms (e.g., Twitter, LinkedIn). Participants were recompensed with either university course credits or £5.00 per hour.

Our planned sample size was informed by the effect sizes obtained from Kelly et al. (2021) and Rundle et al. (2021). For our main effects of interest (see “Vignette development” below), Kelly et al. observed a significant effect of Cohen’s $d_s \sim .15$ for perceived danger, $d_s \sim .20$ for prognostic optimism, $d_s \sim .30$ for continuing care, and $d_s \sim .43$ for blame, while Rundle et al. observed an effect of $d_s \sim 1.03$ for stigma ratings.² We conducted a series of sensitivity power analyses based on the two one-sided tests procedure for equivalence testing (see Dienes, 2021; Lakens, 2017). In the first, we input the smallest significant effect of $-\Delta L = -.15$ and $\Delta U = .15$ from Kelly et al., which required 2,804 participants to achieve 90% statistical power with α set at .01. However, this was outside of our funding resources (see Lakens, 2022a, 2022b). For this reason, we then input the second smallest effect of $-\Delta L = -.20$ and $\Delta U = .20$, again from Kelly et al., which required 1,578 participants ($n = 789$ per factor): Given that this was within our resources, this determined our planned sample size. Note that effect sizes of $d_s \geq .20$ have also been found in meta-analyses assessing the influence of the brain disease model on public stigma (Kvaale et al., 2013) meaning that this sample size would yield informative results with respect to the presence or absence of effect size estimates provided by this meta-analysis.

A total of 1,622 participants were recruited to ensure approximately balanced cell sizes in each experimental condition. Nine participants were excluded due to failed attention checks ($n = 6$), withdrawn data ($n = 2$), and implausible response time ($n = 1$). The final sample size comprised 1,613 participants, with the majority aged between 18 and 25 years (36.5%), female (55.9%), and White (77.1%). Detailed demographic characteristics can be found in File S2 (<https://osf.io/4vscg>). Sensitivity power analyses indicated that, based on the lowest cell size, we were able to detect an equivalence range of $-\Delta L = -.21$ and $\Delta U = .21$ for Research Question 1 ($n = 741$), $-.28$ and $.28$ for Research Question 2 ($n = 392$), and $-.30$ to $.30$ for Research Question 3 ($n = 362$). The study was ethically approved by each institution and all participants provided informed consent.

Measures

Vignette Development

To decide on the independent factors to manipulate in the present study, we evaluated the largest mean difference between the vignette conditions used in the two previous studies’s respective dependent measures (i.e., vignettes eliciting the highest relative to lowest public stigma). In Rundle et al. the largest difference was between the health condition “alcohol use disorder” relative to “diabetes.” In Kelly et al. this was between the etiological label chronically relapsing brain disease” relative to “problem.” Each vignette also differed on attributional judgment, providing either low or high stability for treatment-seeking and outcome, so we also included this factor. We therefore selected the vignette from Kelly et al. and incorporated additional manipulations by

² d_s from Kelly et al. (2021) are perceived danger, $0.13/0.87 = 0.15$; prognostic optimism, $0.18/0.87 = 0.21$; continuing care, $0.26/0.87 = 0.30$; and blame, $0.37/0.87 = 0.43$ (pooled SD was calculated as $SQRT$ of $N = 300 \times SE = .05$). d_s from Rundle et al. (2021) stigma ratings = $11.49/11.12$, pooled $SD = (10.98 + 11.26)/2$.

Rundle et al. (2021)³ Participants were randomized to one of eight conditions with the manipulated factors of health condition (italics/green), etiological label (italics/red), and attributional judgment (italics/purple):

Alex was having serious trouble at home and work because of their increasing *drug use/health concern*. They *are now in a treatment program/have now visited a doctor* where they are learning from staff that their *drug use/health concern* is best understood as a *chronically relapsing brain disease/problem* that often impacts multiple areas of one's life. *Alex is committed to doing all that they can to ensure success following treatment/The doctor tells Alex that this is potentially long-term and could get worse over time, but could also improve if they start treatment now.* In the meantime, they have been asked to think about what they have learned with regard to understanding their *drug use/health concern* as a *chronically relapsing brain disease/problem*.

Stigma and Attribution Assessment

The Stigma and Attribution Assessment (Kelly et al., 2021) assessed multiple dimensions of stigma toward problematic substance use. This 22-item questionnaire comprises five subscales including social distance (e.g., “I would be happy to have Alex as a neighbour”), perceived danger (“I believe Alex is dangerous”), prognostic optimism (“Alex will be able to maintain recovery over the next three months”), blame attribution (“Alex’s opioid addiction is definitely genetic in origin”), and need for continued care (“Alex will need lifelong support to sustain their recovery”). Kelly et al. found that all subscales resulted in acceptable internal reliability ($a > 0.70$), as did the present study ($a = .88, .79, .70$, and $.69$, respectively). Responses are recorded on a scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*) and summed to create a total score for each subscale. Four questions were adapted for the “health concerns” vignette condition (i.e., removal of the term opioid addiction). Higher scores correspond to greater danger and continued care, whereas lower scores correspond to greater social distance, lower blame, and lower prognostic optimism.

Personal and Perceived Public Stigma Measure

The Personal and Perceived Public Stigma Measure (Rundle et al., 2021) measured public stigma. This 23-item questionnaire comprises four subscales including perceived public stigma (“People like them should feel embarrassed about their situation”), perceived treatment stigma (“Opportunities would be limited if people knew they received treatment”), personal stereotypical/prejudicial stigma (“How likely is it they would do something violent to themselves?”), and personal discriminatory stigma (“I would be willing to befriend them” [reverse scored]). Rundle et al. found that these subscales resulted in acceptable internal reliability ($a > .70$), as did the present study ($a = .70, .73, .80$, and $.91$, respectively). Responses are recorded on a scale of 1 (*lower endorsement*) to 4 (*higher endorsement*) and summed to create a total score. Responses are scored in line with the original questionnaire by Holman (2015), so that higher scores correspond to greater stigmatizing perceptions.

Financial Discrimination Task

The Financial Discrimination Task (Jones et al., 2022) assessed whether participants discriminated against “Alex” based on their assigned vignette condition. This task mimics a learning platform named “Psy-Learn,” which informs participants that they will observe the cognitive performance of a “learner” and provide small financial rewards or punishments depending on their performance.

Participants can also decide whether learners should be permitted to continue to the next stage of the course (akin to the denial or progression of a service, often used in hypothetical stigma paradigms: see Swami & Monk, 2013). This sham platform shows the performance of the individual in the vignette on six cognitive trials, which include an assessment of speeded-reaction time, a word anagram, and a memory test. After each question, the participant is then shown the correct answer, the learner’s response, and a statement highlighting whether the learner was “correct” or “incorrect.” Participants are instructed to distribute a monetary reward for correct performance and a punishment for incorrect performance ranging from 0 to 100 pence on a sliding scale (see Figure 1). The task is programmed so that the learner always gets 50% of the answers correct. Two dependent variables are computed from the task: monetary reward summed across the three correct answers (+0 pence, 300 pence) and punishment summed across the three incorrect answers (–0 pence, 300 pence). Lower rewards and greater punishment correspond to greater discriminatory behavior, respectively. Our team’s previous research indicates that participants are more likely to discriminate learners from stigmatized groups (weight-related bias, addiction-related bias; Jones et al., 2022; Pennington et al., 2023).

Manipulation and Attention Checks

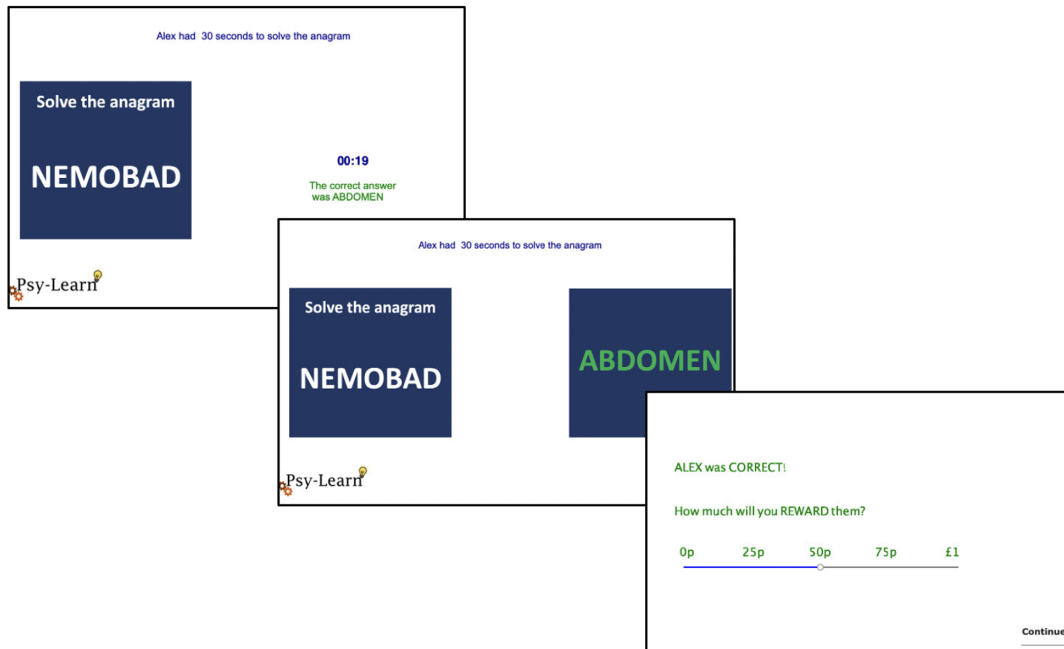
Following the Financial Discrimination Task, participants were asked three manipulation check questions relating to their assigned vignette condition. Specifically, they were asked, “At the start of this study, you were given a description of a person named Alex. Was Alex described as having: (a) ‘drug use’ or ‘health concerns’? (b) a ‘chronically relapsing brain disease’ or ‘problem’? and were they (c) ‘now in a treatment program’ or ‘visiting a doctor’?”, selecting their answers via a drop-down box. To disguise this manipulation check, participants were also asked, “what gender was the person described?” (male/female). To control for careless responding (see Jones et al., 2022), two attention checks were employed. First, participants answered the multiple-choice question “What planet do you live on?” (Earth, Mars, Mercury, Saturn: see Robinson et al., 2022), which is endorsed by Prolific Academic as an ethically viable question (see also Curran & Hauser, 2019). This occurred as part of the demographic assessment of participants. Second, implausible completion times were monitored by assessing any responses that were $</>3 SD$ of the average completion time. Any participant who failed either of the two attention checks was excluded from the data set, and any participant who failed a manipulation check relevant to the research question being tested (e.g., manipulation check 1 for Research Question 1) was excluded for that particular analysis.

Procedure

Participants were instructed to complete the study in a quiet space without distractions and the entire experiment was hosted by Inquisit Web (v.5 Millisecond, Seattle). After providing informed consent, participants were assigned randomly (via Inquisit) to one of the eight vignette conditions, which remained on screen for a

³ We use the gender-neutral pronouns of they/them compared to he/she from Kelly et al. (2021) (as Kelly et al. also manipulated the gender of the person depicted in the vignette).

Figure 1
An Example of the Trial Procedure From the Financial Discrimination Task



Note. See the online article for the color version of this figure.

minimum of 60s. They then completed the Stigma and Attribution Assessment (Kelly et al., 2021) and the Personal and Perceived Stigma Measure (Rundle et al., 2021), which were administered in a randomized order between participants, and finally the Financial Discrimination Task (Jones et al., 2022).

Analytic Strategy

Table S1 provides our Stage 1 design summary. Data were analyzed using R, Version 4.0.2 (R Core Team, 2020). Independent samples equivalence tests (see Dienes, 2021; Lakens, 2017; Lakens et al., 2020) were conducted using the TOSTER R-package (Lakens, 2017) on each of the Research Questions. Allowing for direct comparisons between the present study and that of Kelly et al. (2021) and Rundle et al. (2021), these were conducted on the five discrete subscales of the Stigma and Attribution Assessment and the total score from the Personal and Perceived Public Stigma Measure. The same analyses were then conducted on the reward and punishment indices of the Financial Discrimination Task. Equivalence tests use the two one-sided tests procedure to statistically reject the presence of effects large enough to be considered worthwhile. We used the upper and lower equivalence range of $-\Delta L = -.20$ and $\Delta U = .20$ based on our sample size justification and set a conservative α ($p < .01$) given the number of analyses.⁴ We interpret an effect as *meaningful* if, given $\alpha = .01$, the mean difference is significantly different from zero and the 99% confidence interval (99% CI) falls outside of the equivalence range; *equivalent* if the mean difference is not significantly different from zero and the 99% CI falls within this equivalence range; and *inconclusive* if the 99% CI overlaps both the equivalence range and the range of values

deemed meaningful. Effect sizes are reported as Cohen's d , with a positive sign corresponding to a greater value for the reference condition and a negative sign corresponding to a lower value. The below results are fully detailed in File S3, along with additional exploratory analyses documenting that the interpretation of results for Research Questions 2 and 3 does not change when using the equivalence range that the final sample size had 90% power to detect.

Results

Research Question 1: Does the health condition (“drug use” vs. “health concern”) influence public stigma and discrimination?

Fifty-three participants (3.29%) failed the manipulation check for Research Question 1, with the remaining total of 819 assigned to the “drug use” and 741 to the “health concern” condition. On the Stigma and Attribution Assessment, participants in the drug use condition reported significantly greater social distance ($d = .87$, 99% CI [.74, .99]), perceived danger ($d = .78$, CI [.66, .90]) but lower blame ($d = -.35$, CI [-.47, -.23]) compared to those in the health concern condition, with the observed effect sizes significantly outside of the equivalence range of $-.20$ to $.20$. The difference for prognostic optimism ($d = -.06$, CI [-.18, .06]) was not significantly different from zero and equivalent, and the difference for continued care ($d = .09$, CI [-.03, .21]) was inconclusive. On the Personal and Perceived Public Stigma Measure, participants in the drug use condition reported significantly

⁴ Note therefore that other researchers may specify a different smallest effect size of interest that they perceive is meaningful.

greater public stigma compared to the health concern condition ($d = .95$, CI [.82, 1.07]), which was significantly outside of the equivalence range. For the Financial Discrimination Task, the difference in reward ($d = -.03$, CI [-.14, .09]) was not significantly different and equivalent, and for punishment ($d = .14$, CI [.02, .26]) was inconclusive. Table 1 provides both the descriptive statistics and inferential results.

Research Question 2: Does etiological label (“chronically relapsing brain disease” vs. “problem”) influence public stigma and discrimination toward problematic substance use?

This analysis focuses on the “drug use” health condition only. Thirty-two participants (3.78%) failed the manipulation check for Research Question 2, with a total of 392 assigned to the “chronically

Table 1
Descriptive (M, SD) and Inferential Statistics for the Three Research Questions

Measures	RQ1 Health condition		RQ2 Aetiological label		RQ3 Treatment stability	
	Drug use (<i>n</i> = 819)	Concern (<i>n</i> = 741)	Disease (<i>n</i> = 392)	Problem (<i>n</i> = 423)	Low (<i>n</i> = 362)	High (<i>n</i> = 383)
Social distance	18.84 (5.46) ¹ <i>t</i> (1512.82) = -17.07, <i>p</i> < .001 <i>t</i> (1512.82) = -13.13, <i>p</i> = 1.00.	23.76 (5.87)	19.46 (5.50) <i>t</i> (806.22) = 2.82, <i>p</i> = .004. <i>t</i> (806.22) = -.03, <i>p</i> = .49.	18.38 (5.41)	18.14 (5.25) <i>t</i> (742.93) = 3.15, <i>p</i> = .002. <i>t</i> (742.82) = 0.35, <i>p</i> = .36.	19.38 (5.50)
Perceived danger	17.37 (5.61) <i>t</i> (1553.09) = 15.38, <i>p</i> < .001 <i>t</i> (1553.09) = 11.42, <i>p</i> = 1.00.	13.32 (4.80)	16.94 (5.62) <i>t</i> (806.15) = -1.64, <i>p</i> = .10. <i>t</i> (806.15) = 1.21, <i>p</i> = .11	17.58 (5.53)	18.00 (5.72) <i>t</i> (753.49) = 2.71, <i>p</i> = .006. <i>t</i> (735.49) = -.02, <i>p</i> = .49.	16.89 (5.47)
Prognostic optimism	18.84 (3.63) <i>t</i> (1477.04) = -1.12, <i>p</i> = .26 <i>t</i> (1477.04) = 2.81, <i>p</i> = .002.	19.06 (4.16)	18.71 (3.60) <i>t</i> (811.23) = -1.03, <i>p</i> = .30. <i>t</i> (811.23) = 1.83, <i>p</i> = .03.	18.98 (3.70)	18.47 (3.44) <i>t</i> (742.82) = -2.38, <i>p</i> = .02. <i>t</i> (742.82) = 0.35, <i>p</i> = .36.	19.09 (3.69)
Blame attribution	7.88 (2.66) <i>t</i> (1541.51) = -6.83, <i>p</i> < .001 <i>t</i> (1541.51) = -2.89, <i>p</i> = 1.00.	8.81 (2.67)	8.61 (2.63) <i>t</i> (801.02) = 7.71, <i>p</i> < .01. <i>t</i> (801.02) = 4.86, <i>p</i> = 1.00.	7.22 (2.51)	7.73 (2.61) <i>t</i> (739.90) = -1.39, <i>p</i> = .16. <i>t</i> (739.90) = -1.34, <i>p</i> = .09.	7.99 (2.59)
Continued care	4.24 (1.18) <i>t</i> (1557.77) = 1.78, <i>p</i> = .08. <i>t</i> (1557.77) = -2.18, <i>p</i> = .01.	4.13 (1.08)	4.25 (1.17) <i>t</i> (811.09) = 0.13, <i>p</i> = .89. <i>t</i> (811.09) = -2.72, <i>p</i> = .003.	4.24 (1.20)	4.33 (1.14) <i>t</i> (742.66) = 1.53, <i>p</i> = .13. <i>t</i> (742.66) = -1.20, <i>p</i> = .12.	4.20 (1.23)
Public stigma	50.59 (8.86) <i>t</i> (1537.61) = 18.65, <i>p</i> < .001. <i>t</i> (1537.61) = 14.71, <i>p</i> = 1.00.	42.15 (8.99)	49.62 (8.89) <i>t</i> (806.59) = -2.55, <i>p</i> < .01. <i>t</i> (806.59) = 0.30, <i>p</i> = .38.	51.20 (8.78)	52.15 (8.40) <i>t</i> (742.93) = 4.24, <i>p</i> < .001. <i>t</i> (742.93) = 1.51, <i>p</i> = .93.	49.48 (8.80)
Reward	248.11 (62.63) <i>t</i> (1542.61) = -0.51, <i>p</i> = .61 <i>t</i> (1542.61) = 3.44, <i>p</i> < .001.	249.72 (62.61)	253.39 (59.98) <i>t</i> (812.93) = 2.11, <i>p</i> = .03. <i>t</i> (812.93) = -0.74, <i>p</i> = .23.	244.20 (64.13)	245.76 (62.69) <i>t</i> (734.04) = -1.78, <i>p</i> = .08. <i>t</i> (734.04) = .95, <i>p</i> = .17.	253.74 (59.38)
Punishment	62.05 (59.59) <i>t</i> (1557.96) = 2.81, <i>p</i> = .005. <i>t</i> (1557.96) = -1.14, <i>p</i> = .13.	53.96 (54.18)	62.18 (58.01) <i>t</i> (812.96) = 0.10, <i>p</i> = .92. <i>t</i> (812.96) = -2.75, <i>p</i> = .003.	61.74 (63.02)	62.21 (63.12) <i>t</i> (731.87) = 0.21, <i>p</i> = .83 <i>t</i> (731.87) = 2.51, <i>p</i> = .006	63.16 (59.02)

Note. The first reported result is Welch’s *t* test and the second is the equivalence test based on the range of $-.20$ to $.20$. Based on this equivalence range, green cells = meaningful, yellow = equivalent, and red = inconclusive. See the online article for the color version of this table.

^aRecall that for the Stigma Attribution Assessment, lower and higher values have different meanings: Higher scores correspond to greater danger and continued care, whereas lower scores correspond to greater social distance, lower blame, and lower prognostic optimism.

relapsing brain disease” and 423 to the “problem” condition. Participants in the brain disease condition reported significantly greater blame ($d = .54$, CI [.38, .71]) compared to those in the problem condition, with the observed effect size significantly outside of the equivalence range. The difference for continued care ($d = .01$, CI [−.15, .17]) was not statistically different from zero and equivalent. The differences for social distance ($d = -.20$, CI [−.36, −.03]), prognostic optimism ($d = -.07$, CI [−.24, .09]), danger ($d = -.11$, CI [−.28, .05]), and public stigma ($d = -.18$, CI [−.34, −.02]) were inconclusive. The difference for rewards ($d = .15$, CI [−.02, .31]) was inconclusive and for punishment ($d = .007$, 99% CI [−.16, .17]) was equivalent.

Research Question 3: Does attributional judgment (low vs. high treatment stability) influence public stigma and discrimination toward problematic substance use?

This analysis focuses on the “drug use” health condition only. One hundred and two (11.96%) participants failed the manipulation check for Research Question 3, with a total of 362 assigned to the “low” and 383 to the “high” treatment stability condition. The differences for social distance ($d = -.23$, CI [−.40, −.06]), danger ($d = .19$, CI [.03, .37]), blame, ($d = -.11$, CI [−.27, .07]), prognostic optimism ($d = -.17$, CI [−.35, −.004]) and continued care ($d = .11$, CI [−.06, .28]) were all inconclusive. Similarly, the difference for public stigma ($d = .31$, CI [.14, .48]) was inconclusive, as although the effect size estimate was outside of the equivalence range, the CIs included values that were within it. The difference for reward ($d = -.13$, CI [−.30, .04]) was also inconclusive and for punishment ($d = -.02$, CI [−.19, .16]) was equivalent.

Discussion

The choice of etiological labels and models used to describe problematic substance use is important because they can exacerbate the perpetuation of stigmatizing attitudes and influence both help-seeking behaviors and selection of public health policy (Kelly, 2004; Kelly et al., 2021). Two recent studies by Kelly et al. (2021) and Rundle et al. (2021) are laudable for bringing these discussions to the fore, but their equivocal findings may lead to contrasting recommendations as to which terms to use or avoid. The present study isolated the different factors manipulated in these studies to assess whether health condition (drug use vs. health concern), etiological label (“chronically relapsing brain disease” vs. “problem”), and attributional judgment (low vs. high treatment stability) influence public stigma and discrimination toward problematic substance use.

In line with Rundle et al. (2021), participants assigned to the drug use relative to the health concern condition reported significantly greater public stigma on the Personal and Perceived Public Stigma Measure, with a similarly large effect size (Rundle $d = 1.03$; present study $d = .95$). This is in line with research suggesting that problematic substance use is one of the most heavily stigmatized health conditions (Kilian et al., 2021; Room et al., 2001; Schomerus et al., 2011). A more nuanced pattern of findings was found, however, when assessing the subscales of the Stigma and Attribution Assessment used by Kelly et al. (2021): on this measure, participants in the drug use condition reported significantly greater social distance and perceived danger but lower blame relative to the health concern

condition. Findings relating to prognostic optimism were statistically equivalent, and those relating to continued care were inconclusive. These findings highlight how the use of different dependent measures can lead to divergent findings and interpretations. Using the aggregated measure from Rundle et al. (2021) leads to the suggestion that greater public stigma is ascribed to drug use, while the multidimensional measure used by Kelly et al. (2021) suggests distinct elements of stigma may be differentially drawn upon in lay perceptions of substance use. Such differences in measurement approach are an important consideration for future research, particularly given their resulting implications for stigma-reduction interventions, and their selection should be informed by theory.

When drug use was labeled as a “chronically relapsing brain disease” relative to a “problem,” participants attributed greater blame, but the findings for continued care were equivalent and those concerning social distance, perceived danger, prognostic optimism, and public stigma were inconclusive. Despite being similar to Rundle et al. (2021), these results contrast with Kelly et al. (2021) who, in line with the mixed-blessings model (Haslam & Kvaale, 2015), found that this label was associated with lower blame attributions and decreased prognostic optimism and increased danger and continued care. While Kelly et al. were able to detect smaller effect sizes than the present study (e.g., perceived danger, $d = .15$), and some of our confidence intervals include effect sizes around this region that others may deem meaningful, the direction of these findings for all but one of the subscales (prognostic optimism) is contrary. The significant finding for blame attribution in the present study may be explained by looking closely at the phrasing of this subscale in the Stigma and Attribution Assessment. All three of the questions in this subscale attribute blame to the disease process (e.g., “Alex’s opioid addiction is definitely genetic in origin”), thus denoting that the behavior is outside of an individual’s control. From this perspective, labeling drug use as a “chronically relapsing brain disease” may absolve *personal* blame by shifting this to underlying brain pathology (Clark, 2021; Pickard, 2022; also see Davies, 1997). Recent research has proposed an alternative “choice” model, which emphasizes that individuals experiencing problematic substance use can make choices, some of which may cause harm. Using a “responsibility without blame” framework is suggested to increase a sense of agency, empowerment, self-understanding, and personal growth (Clark, 2021; Pickard, 2022).

Although not considered explicitly within either, a key difference between the two previous studies relates to the scope for attributional judgments afforded by the vignettes (see Davies, 1997; Kingree et al., 1999): In Kelly et al. the individual with problematic substance use is described as receiving treatment with a high likelihood of success (high stability condition), whereas, in Rundle et al. they are described as seeking treatment with a variable outcome (low stability condition). When manipulating these factors in the present study, we found that the differences for social distance ($d = -.23$), danger ($d = .19$), blame ($d = -.11$), prognostic optimism ($d = -.17$), continued care ($d = .11$), and public stigma ($d = .31$) were inconclusive. As such, while the effect size estimates for some of these effects were outside of our equivalence range and align with that of previous research (Kelly et al., 2021; Rundle et al., 2021; see also Kvaale et al., 2013), their confidence intervals overlapped both the equivalence range and values deemed meaningful. Future work in this area should therefore explicitly define their smallest effect size of interest, justify which effects are

practically meaningful (see Anvari et al., 2023), and ensure that they have sufficient statistical power to reliably detect these effects. Furthermore, researchers should scrutinize whether the vignettes they use inadvertently manipulate other potentially confounding factors that may impact results.

Finally, in a bid to overcome potential issues of social desirability when assessing sensitive attitudes toward substance use (Nisbett & Wilson, 1977; Tourangeau & Yan, 2007), we employed an indirect measure of discrimination (Jones et al., 2022) that assessed the magnitude of financial rewards and punishments allocated to the person depicted in the vignette. The influence of health condition was inconclusive for punishment and equivalent for reward indices on this task, and the influence of both etiological label and attributional judgment was equivalent for punishment and inconclusive for reward. Offering perhaps a more optimistic perspective, the current results may suggest that while problematic substance use elicits self-reported public stigma and the label “chronically relapsing brain disease” elicits greater blame, these attitudes do not appear to manifest reliably in overt discriminatory behavior. Other research has nevertheless found that problematic substance use is associated with a perceived need for punishment rather than support, which extends to punitive measures for treatment and recovery (Ashford et al., 2019; Kelly et al., 2010; Kelly & Westerhoff, 2010). Further research that assesses this and expands on the use of similar tasks as employed in the present study is therefore recommended.

Taken together, the outcomes from three recent, large-scale studies—those of Kelly et al. (2021), Rundle et al. (2021), and our own—concur that problematic substance use is one of the most stigmatized health conditions. However, the findings from these three studies appear to be somewhat contradictory with regard to how they contribute to the important ongoing debate as to whether the brain disease model of addiction exacerbates or lessens public stigma (see Hall et al., 2015; Kvaale et al., 2013; Pickard, 2022, for reviews). How do we reconcile this? We put forth the notion that the construct of addiction (including the models and labels used to describe it) is a *functional attribution* in which its different explanatory components may be deployed, as required, by both the observer and the observed in a context-dependent fashion to attribute or displace responsibility, accountability, and blame (see also Davies, 1997; Heim et al., 2001; Heim & Monk, 2022; Shaver, 2012). The way in which this functional attribution is used varies both within and between individuals, populations (e.g., general public, clinicians, and individuals with AUD; see Pickard, 2022), the context in which problematic substance use occurs (Monk & Heim, 2011), and how a “disease” is defined (Murphy, 2021). A recent review suggests that while many researchers consider the disease model to be the dominant view in addiction science, they also believe that it is an oversimplification of a complex bio-psychosocial phenomenon (Ochterbeck & Forberger, 2022). Future research should therefore seek to better understand in which contexts particular explanations of substance use impact stigma and discrimination, and how this may vary dependent on the attributional functions that these models and labels serve.

Conclusions

This study isolated the methodological factors used in two recent studies examining substance-use-related stigma (Kelly

et al., 2021; Rundle et al., 2021) to assess how health condition, etiological label, and attributional judgment influence public stigma and discrimination toward problematic substance use. Findings indicate that when an individual’s health concern was described as drug-specific, participants reported greater public stigma, perceived danger, and social distance, though less blame was attributed to their situation. When this drug use was labeled as a “chronically relapsing brain disease,” participants expressed greater blame (on genetic factors as the cause of the behavior). The effects were less clear cut, however, for the impact of attributional judgment on stigmatizing perceptions. These findings offer further evidence that problematic substance use is one of the most stigmatized health conditions while adding further to the mixed evidence base regarding the impact of the brain disease model on public stigma. We highlight how different methodological approaches (i.e., manipulating etiological models experimentally vs. measuring preexisting beliefs) and measures (i.e., aggregated or multidimensional measures of stigma) result in different findings and interpretations. We further suggest that the differential and paradoxical effects of etiological labels observed in research to date may reflect the complex *functional* value of the addiction construct and call for research to make the explanatory contexts in which stigmatization occurs a focus of future work. Such efforts could aid the development of more nuanced and context-appropriate approaches to tackling substance-use-related (self) stigmatization.

References

- Andréasson, S., Danielsson, A. K., & Wallhed-Finn, S. (2013). Preferences regarding treatment for alcohol problems. *Alcohol and Alcoholism*, 48(6), 694–699. <https://doi.org/10.1093/alcalc/agt067>
- Anvari, F., Kievit, R., Lakens, D., Pennington, C. R., Przybylski, A. K., Tiokhin, L., Wiernik, B. M., & Orben, A. (2023). Not all effects are indispensable: Psychological science requires verifiable lines of reasoning for whether an effect matters. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 18(2), 503–507. <https://doi.org/10.1177/17456916221091565>
- Ashford, R. D., Brown, A. M., & Curtis, B. (2018). Substance use, recovery, and linguistics: The impact of word choice on explicit and implicit bias. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 189, 131–138. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2018.05.005>
- Ashford, R. D., Brown, A. M., & Curtis, B. (2019). The language of substance use and recovery: Novel use of the Go/No-Go Association Task to measure implicit bias. *Health Communication*, 34(11), 1296–1302. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10410236.2018.1481709>
- Atayde, A. M. P., Hauc, S. C., Bessette, L. G., Danckers, H., & Saitz, R. (2021). Changing the narrative: A call to end stigmatizing terminology related to substance use disorders. *Addiction Research and Theory*, 29(5), 359–362. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16066359.2021.1875215>
- Bogren, A. (2019). ‘But I’m not a doctor’: Pending trust in science among laypeople discussing the brain disease model of addiction. *Addiction Research and Theory*, 27(4), 337–346. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16066359.2018.1524880>
- Clark, T. W. (2021). Determinism and destigmatization: Mitigating blame for addiction. *Neuroethics*, 14(2), 219–230. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12152-020-09440-w>
- Corrigan, P. W., & Rao, D. (2012). On the self-stigma of mental illness: Stages, disclosure, and strategies for change. *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, 57(8), 464–469. <https://doi.org/10.1177/070674371205700804>
- Corrigan, P. W., & Watson, A. C. (2002). The paradox of self-stigma and mental illness. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, 9(1), 35–53. <https://doi.org/10.1093/clipsy.9.1.35>

- Cunningham, J. A., & Godinho, A. (2022). The impact of describing someone as being in recovery from alcohol problems on the general public's beliefs about their life, use of treatment, and drinking status. *Addiction Research and Theory*, *30*(3), 180–185. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16066359.2021.1982910>
- Curran, P. G., & Hauser, K. A. (2019). I'm paid biweekly, just not by leprechauns: Evaluating valid-but-incorrect response rates to attention check items. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *82*, Article e103849. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2019.103849>
- Davies, J. B. (1997). *The myth of addiction* (2nd ed.). Harwood Academic Publishers.
- Dienes, Z. (2021). Obtaining evidence for no effect. *Collabra: Psychology*, *7*(1), Article e28202. <https://doi.org/10.1525/collabra.28202>
- Dyregrov, K., & Bruland-Selseng, L. (2022). "Nothing to mourn, he was just a drug addict": Stigma towards people bereaved by drug-related death. *Addiction Research and Theory*, *30*(1), 5–15. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16066359.2021.1912327>
- Hall, W., Carter, A., & Forlini, C. (2015). The brain disease model of addiction: Is it supported by the evidence and has it delivered on its promises? *The Lancet. Psychiatry*, *2*(1), 105–110. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(14\)00126-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(14)00126-6)
- Hammarlund, R., Crapanzano, K. A., Luce, L., Mulligan, L., & Ward, K. M. (2018). Review of the effects of self-stigma and perceived social stigma on the treatment-seeking decisions of individuals with drug- and alcohol-use disorders. *Substance Abuse and Rehabilitation*, *9*, 115–136. <https://doi.org/10.2147/SAR.S183256>
- Hart, C. L. (2017). Viewing addiction as a brain disease promotes social injustice. *Nature Human Behaviour*, *1*, Article e0055. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-017-0055>
- Haslam, N., & Kvaale, E. P. (2015). Biogenetic explanations of mental disorder: The mixed-blessings model. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *24*(5), 399–404. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721415588082>
- Heather, N., Best, D., Kawalek, A., Field, M., Lewis, M., Rotgers, F., Wiers, R. W., & Heim, D. (2018). Challenging the brain disease model of addiction: European launch of the addiction theory network. *Addiction Research and Theory*, *26*(4), 249–255. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16066359.2017.1399659>
- Heilig, M., MacKillop, J., Martinez, D., Rehm, J., Leggio, L., & Vanderschuren, L. J. M. J. (2021). Addiction as a brain disease revised: Why it still matters, and the need for concision. *Neuropsychopharmacology*, *46*(10), 1715–1723. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41386-020-00950-y>
- Heim, D. (2014). Addiction: Not just brain malfunction. *Nature*, *507*(7490), Article e40. <https://doi.org/10.1038/507040e>
- Heim, D., Davies, J. B., Cheyne, B., & Smallwood, J. (2001). Addiction as a functional representation. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, *11*(1), 57–62. <https://doi.org/10.1002/casp.575>
- Heim, D., & Monk, R. L. (2022). Recovery is possible: Overcoming 'addiction' and its rescue hypotheses. In N. Heather, M. Field, A. C. Moss, & S. Satel (Eds.), *Evaluating the brain disease model of addiction* (pp. 144–153). Routledge.
- Hickman, T. A. (2014). Target America: Visual culture, neuroimaging, and the 'hijacked brain' theory of addiction. *Past & Present*, *222*(Suppl. 9), 207–226. <https://doi.org/10.1093/pastj/gtt021>
- Holman, D. (2015). Exploring the relationship between social class, mental illness stigma and mental health literacy using British national survey data. *Health*, *19*(4), 413–429. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1363459314554316>
- Janulis, P., Ferrari, J. R., & Fowler, P. (2013). Understanding public stigma toward substance dependence. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *43*(5), 1065–1072. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12070>
- Jones, A., Hardman, C. A., Devlin, N., Pennington, C. R., & Robinson, E. (2022). Weight-based discrimination in financial reward and punishment decision making: Causal evidence using a novel experimental paradigm. *International Journal of Obesity*, *46*(7), 1288–1294. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41366-022-01109-z>
- Kelly, J. F. (2004). Toward an addictionary: A proposal for more precise terminology. *Alcoholism Treatment Quarterly*, *22*(2), 79–87. https://doi.org/10.1300/J020v22n02_07
- Kelly, J. F., Dow, S., & Westerhoff, C. (2010). Does our choice of substance-related terminology influence perceptions of treatment need? An empirical investigation with two commonly used terms. *Journal of Drug Issues*, *40*(4), 805–818. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002204261004000403>
- Kelly, J. F., Greene, M. C., & Abry, A. (2021). A US national randomized study to guide how best to reduce stigma when describing drug-related impairment in practice and policy. *Addiction*, *116*(7), 1757–1767. <https://doi.org/10.1111/add.15333>
- Kelly, J. F., & Westerhoff, C. M. (2010). Does it matter how we refer to individuals with substance-related conditions? A randomized study of two commonly used terms. *The International Journal on Drug Policy*, *21*(3), 202–207. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2009.10.010>
- Keyes, K. M., Hatzenbuehler, M. L., McLaughlin, K. A., Link, B., Olfson, M., Grant, B. F., & Hasin, D. (2010). Stigma and treatment for alcohol disorders in the United States. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, *172*(12), 1364–1372. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwq304>
- Kilian, C., Manthey, J., Carr, S., Hanschmidt, F., Rehm, J., Speerforck, S., & Schomerus, G. (2021). Stigmatization of people with alcohol use disorders: An updated systematic review of population studies. *Alcoholism, Clinical and Experimental Research*, *45*(5), 899–911. <https://doi.org/10.1111/acer.14598>
- Kingree, J. B., Sullivan, B. F., & Thompson, M. P. (1999). Attributions for the development of substance addiction among participants in a 12-step oriented treatment program. *Journal of Psychoactive Drugs*, *31*(2), 129–135. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02791072.1999.10471735>
- Kruis, N. E., Choi, J., & Donohue, R. H. (2020). Police officers, stigma, and the opioid epidemic. *International Journal of Police Science & Management*, *22*(4), 393–406. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461355720962524>
- Kuorikoski, J., & Uusitalo, S. (2018). Re-socialising the vulnerable brain: Building an ethically sustainable brain disease model of addiction. *Frontiers in Sociology*, *3*, Article e39. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fsoc.2018.00039>
- Kvaale, E. P., Haslam, N., & Gottdiener, W. H. (2013). The 'side effects' of medicalization: A meta-analytic review of how biogenetic explanations affect stigma. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *33*(6), 782–794. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2013.06.002>
- Lakens, D. (2017). Equivalence tests: A practical primer for *t* tests, correlations, and meta-analyses. *Social Psychological & Personality Science*, *8*(4), 355–362. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1948550617697177>
- Lakens, D. (2022a). Sample size justification. *Collabra: Psychology*, *8*(1), Article e33267. <https://doi.org/10.1525/collabra.33267>
- Lakens, D. (2022b). *Improving your statistical inferences* (v 2022-11-17). https://lakens.github.io/statistical_inferences/index.html
- Lakens, D., McLatchie, N., Isager, P. M., Scheel, A. M., & Dienes, Z. (2020). Improving inferences about null effects with Bayes Factors and Equivalence Tests. *The Journals of Gerontology: Series B*, *75*(1), 45–57. <https://doi.org/10.1093/geronb/gby065>
- Lawrence, R. E., Rasinski, K. A., Yoon, J. D., & Curlin, F. A. (2013). Physicians' Beliefs about the nature of addiction: A survey of primary care physicians and psychiatrists. *The American Journal on Addictions*, *22*(3), 255–260. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1521-0391.2012.00332.x>
- Lebowitz, M. S., & Appelbaum, P. S. (2017). Beneficial and detrimental effects of genetic explanations for addiction. *The International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, *63*(8), 717–723. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0020764017737573>
- Leshner, A. I. (1997). Addiction is a brain disease, and it matters. *Science*, *278*(5335), 45–47. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.278.5335.45>
- Luoma, J. B., Twohig, M. P., Waltz, T., Hayes, S. C., Roget, N., Padilla, M., & Fisher, G. (2007). An investigation of stigma in individuals receiving treatment for substance abuse. *Addictive Behaviors*, *32*(7), 1331–1346. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2006.09.008>
- Maurage, P., Joassin, F., Philippot, P., Heeren, A., Vermeulen, N., Mahau, P., Delperdange, C., Corneille, O., Luminet, O., & de Timary, P. (2012).

- Disrupted regulation of social exclusion in alcohol-dependence: An fMRI study. *Neuropsychopharmacology*, 37(9), 2067–2075. <https://doi.org/10.1038/npp.2012.54>
- McGinty, E. E., Goldman, H. H., Pescosolido, B., & Barry, C. L. (2015). Portraying mental illness and drug addiction as treatable health conditions: Effects of a randomized experiment on stigma and discrimination. *Social Science & Medicine*, 126, 73–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2014.12.010>
- Monk, R. L., & Heim, D. (2011). Self-image bias in drug use attributions. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 25(4), 645–651. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0025685>
- Murphy, D. (2021). Concepts of disease and health. In E. N. Zalta (Ed.), *The Stanford encyclopedia of philosophy* (Spring 2021 ed.). Stanford University. <https://plato.stanford.edu/ENTRIES/health-disease/>
- National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism. (2021). *Understanding alcohol use disorder*. <https://www.niaaa.nih.gov/publications/brochures-and-fact-sheets/understanding-alcohol-use-disorder#:~:text=%20The%20National%20Institute%20on%20Alcohol,alcohol%20per%20deciliter%E2%80%94or%20higher%20on%2020%2010%2021>
- National Institute on Drug Abuse. (2021). *Frequently asked questions*. <https://nida.nih.gov/about-nida/frequently-asked-questions>
- Nieweglowski, K., Corrigan, P. W., Tyas, T., Tooley, A., Dubke, R., Lara, J., Washington, L., Sayer, J., Sheehan, L., & the Addiction Stigma Research Team. (2018). Exploring the public stigma of substance use disorder through community-based participatory research. *Addiction Research and Theory*, 26(4), 323–329. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16066359.2017.1409890>
- Nisbett, R. E., & Wilson, T. (1977). Telling more than we know: Verbal reports on mental processes. *Psychological Review*, 84(3), 231–259. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.84.3.231>
- Ochterbeck, D., & Forberger, S. (2022). Is a brain-based understanding of addiction predominant? An assessment of addiction researchers' conceptions of addiction and their evaluation of brain-based explanations. *Drug and Alcohol Review*, 41(7), 1630–1641. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dar.13520>
- Palmer, R. S., Murphy, M. K., Piselli, A., & Ball, S. A. (2009). Substance user treatment dropout from client and clinician perspectives: A pilot study. *Substance Use & Misuse*, 44(7), 1021–1038. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10826080802495237>
- Peer, E., Brandimarte, L., Samat, S., & Acquisti, A. (2017). Beyond the Turk: Alternative platforms for crowdsourcing behavioral research. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 70, 153–163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2017.01.006>
- Pennington, C. R., Clarke, R., Earnest, J., & Jones, A. (2023). *The influence of addiction priming on social stigma and discrimination towards heavy drinkers* [Manuscript in preparation]. <https://osf.io/md9xw/registrations>
- Pescosolido, B. A., Martin, J. K., Long, J. S., Medina, T. R., Phelan, J. C., & Link, B. G. (2010). “A disease like any other”? A decade of change in public reactions to schizophrenia, depression, and alcohol dependence. *The American Journal of Psychiatry*, 167(11), 1321–1330. <https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.ajp.2010.09121743>
- Pickard, H. (2022). Is addiction a brain disease? A plea for agnosticism and heterogeneity. *Psychopharmacology*, 239(4), 993–1007. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00213-021-06013-4>
- R Core Team. (2020). *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. R Foundation for Statistical Computing. <https://www.R-project.org/>
- Robinson, E., Smith, J., & Jones, A. (2022). The effect of calorie and physical activity equivalent labelling of alcoholic drinks on drinking intentions in participants of higher and lower socioeconomic position: An experimental study. *British Journal of Health Psychology*, 27(1), 30–49. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bjhp.12527>
- Romer, D., & Bock, M. (2008). Reducing the stigma of mental illness among adolescents and young adults: The effects of treatment information. *Journal of Health Communication*, 13(8), 742–758. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10810730802487406>
- Room, R. (2009). Stigma, social inequality and alcohol and drug use. *Drug and Alcohol Review*, 24(2), 143–155. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09595230.500102434>
- Room, R., Rehm, J., Trotter, R. T., Paglia, A., & Ustun, T. B. (2001). Cross cultural views on stigma valuation parity and societal attitudes towards disability. In T. B. Ustun, S. Chatterji, J. E. Bickenbach, R. T. Trotter II, R. Room, J. Rehm, & S. Saxena (Eds.), *Disability and culture: Universalism and diversity* (pp. 247–291). Hogrefe & Huber.
- Rundle, S. M., Cunningham, J. A., & Hendershot, C. S. (2021). Implications of addiction diagnosis and addiction beliefs for public stigma: A cross-national experimental study. *Drug & Alcohol Review*, 40(5), 842–846. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dar.13244>
- Russell, C., Davies, J. B., & Hunter, S. C. (2011). Predictors of addiction treatment providers' beliefs in the disease and choice models of addiction. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment*, 40(2), 150–164. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsat.2010.09.006>
- Schomerus, G., Lucht, M., Holzinger, A., Matschinger, H., Carta, M. G., & Angermeyer, M. C. (2011). The stigma of alcohol dependence compared with other mental disorders: A review of population studies. *Alcohol and Alcoholism*, 46(2), 105–112. <https://doi.org/10.1093/alcalc/agq089>
- Shaver, K. G. (2012). *The attribution of blame: Causality, responsibility, and blameworthiness*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- Swami, V., & Monk, R. (2013). Weight bias against women in a university acceptance scenario. *The Journal of General Psychology*, 140(1), 45–56. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00221309.2012.726288>
- Tourangeau, R., & Yan, T. (2007). Sensitive questions in surveys. *Psychological Bulletin*, 133(5), 859–883. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.133.5.859>
- van Boekel, L. C., Brouwers, E. P., van Weeghel, J., & Garretsen, H. F. (2013). Stigma among health professionals towards patients with substance use disorders and its consequences for healthcare delivery: Systematic review. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 131(1–2), 23–35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2013.02.018>
- Vederhus, J.-K., Clausen, T., & Humphreys, K. (2016). Assessing understandings of substance use disorders among Norwegian treatment professionals, patients and the general public. *BMC Health Services Research*, 16(1), Article 52. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-016-1306-9>
- Volkow, N. D., Koob, G. F., & McLellan, A. T. (2016). Neurobiologic advances from the brain disease model of addiction. *The New England Journal of Medicine*, 374(4), 363–371. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMra1511480>
- Wiens, T. K., & Walker, L. J. (2015). The chronic disease concept of addiction: Helpful or harmful? *Addiction Research and Theory*, 23(4), 309–321. <https://doi.org/10.3109/16066359.2014.987760>
- Yang, L. H., Wong, L. Y., Grivel, M. M., & Hasin, D. S. (2017). Stigma and substance use disorders: An international phenomenon. *Current Opinion in Psychiatry*, 30(5), 378–388. <https://doi.org/10.1097/YCO.0000000000000351>

Received February 15, 2023

Accepted February 16, 2023 ■