



This is a repository copy of *The unacceptability of evidence on acceptable risks*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:

<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/205529/>

Version: Published Version

Article:

Holmes, J. orcid.org/0000-0001-9283-2151 and Angus, C.R. orcid.org/0000-0003-0529-4135 (2023) The unacceptability of evidence on acceptable risks. *Addiction*. ISSN 0965-2140

<https://doi.org/10.1111/add.16381>

Reuse

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial (CC BY-NC) licence. This licence allows you to remix, tweak, and build upon this work non-commercially, and any new works must also acknowledge the authors and be non-commercial. You don't have to license any derivative works on the same terms. More information and the full terms of the licence here: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

The unacceptability of evidence on acceptable risks

The new Canadian drinking guidelines offer important steps forward in considering the extent of life lost to alcohol and recognizing that risks from alcohol increase continuously with rising consumption. However, the continued reliance upon questionable evidence to underpin decisions on the acceptability of alcohol-related risks needs addressing by future studies.

In 2012, Room & Rehm wrote that the process by which health authorities set alcohol drinking guidelines suggested that those involved had ‘drawn a deep collective breath and simply voted for specific cut-off levels’ ([1], p. 137). More famously, Richard Smith described the 1995 UK guidelines that he helped to set as ‘plucked out of the air’ [2]. Since then, there have been significant efforts to impose greater rigour on the development of guidelines, particularly by using epidemiological models to identify levels of alcohol consumption that correspond to a level of ‘acceptable risk’ that is identified a priori. This approach has now been used in countries including Denmark, Australia, the United Kingdom and France [3].

The Canadian process described by Shield *et al.* builds usefully upon this by describing a continuum of risk, separated into zones, rather than a single guideline level [4]. This shift is a welcome and long overdue development, given plentiful evidence of risks at all levels of alcohol consumption and no clear threshold above which risks increase especially rapidly [5]. However, there are practical challenges to this approach which Shield *et al.* do not address. It is unclear what numerical guideline(s) should appear in the limited space provided for health messages on bottles and cans. Media focus on the low-risk level of two standard drinks a week also raised eyebrows internationally, and perhaps also in Canada, as a rather prohibitive message; although it partly reflects Canada’s generous definition of a standard drink (i.e. 13.5 g of pure alcohol compared to 10.0 g in Australia and 7.9 g in the United Kingdom). Future guideline developers may wish to consider the adjectives they use to describe different levels of risk (e.g. low, increasing, moderate and little), which media messages ensure that the public consider the full range of the continuum, and whether the continuum leads to better understanding of alcohol-related risks than the traditional single guideline.

Despite the potential advantages of this new approach, an important problem remains at the heart of the guideline development

process. The new Canadian low- and moderate-risk thresholds are still based, broadly, on the level of alcohol consumption that corresponds respectively to a 1 in 100 and 1 in 1000 life-time risk of death from alcohol. These figures in turn come from: (i) the observation that a 1 in 1 000 000 risk of premature death is an international standard for regulation of environmental hazards and (ii) work by Starr published in 1969 suggesting that people will accept 1000 times greater risk when engaging with a hazard voluntarily rather than involuntarily [6]. The reliance upon Starr’s work seems to date back to the 2009 Australian guidelines [7], but is explained more fully by Rehm *et al.* [8]. The reason for relying upon Starr’s work is unclear, as he describes his analyses as exploratory and his conceptualization of risk as incomplete [6], limitations that should be immediately obvious to anyone who reads it. More recent research on risk extends far beyond consideration of voluntariness to also encompass consequences, emotional states, perceived control, novelty and knowledge [9]. It is also highly questionable whether a 1969 analysis of general risks provides valid evidence for setting acceptable risk thresholds for alcohol in a different country half a century later.

This problem is further complicated by the fact that the new Canadian modelling focuses upon years of life lost (YLLs) rather than deaths as their key outcome. In many ways this development is welcome, as it allows recognition of the fact that alcohol deaths often occur early in the life-course, due to both the acute consequences of intoxication and the relatively low average age of death for major alcohol-attributable conditions such as liver cirrhosis. To our knowledge, however, while the evidence on acceptable levels of mortality risk may be outdated and limited, evidence regarding the acceptability of lost years of life is non-existent. The Canadian modelling attempts to address this by converting YLLs into an equivalent number of deaths, but this relies upon a number of strong assumptions that still require testing, including regarding whether risk acceptability varies across different outcomes.

There is much to commend about the new Canadian drinking guidelines, but further evidence on the acceptability of alcohol-related risks and how these might differ between populations and across outcomes is urgently needed if we are to continue improving the empirical basis for low-risk drinking guidelines. Otherwise, we risk simply transferring the power of opaque decision-making away from those developing guidelines and into the hands of the modellers who provide them with evidence.

This is an open access article under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/) License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited and is not used for commercial purposes.

© 2023 The Authors. *Addiction* published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd on behalf of Society for the Study of Addiction.

KEYWORDS

Alcohol, drinking guidelines, epidemiology, epidemiological modelling, guideline development, risk acceptability

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

John Holmes: Writing—original draft (equal); writing—review and editing (equal). **Colin Robert Angus:** Writing—original draft (equal); writing—review and editing (equal).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are no funders to report.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

None.

John Holmes 

Colin Robert Angus 

*Sheffield Centre for Health and Related Research, University of Sheffield,
Sheffield, UK*

Correspondence

John Holmes, Sheffield Centre for Health and Related Research,
University of Sheffield, Sheffield, UK.

Email: john.holmes@sheffield.ac.uk

ORCID

John Holmes  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9283-2151>

Colin Robert Angus  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0529-4135>

REFERENCES

1. Room R, Rehm J. Clear criteria based on absolute risk: reforming the basis of guidelines on low-risk drinking. *Drug Alcohol Rev.* 2012;31:135–40.
2. Smith R. A row plucked out of the air. 2007. Available from: <http://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2007/oct/22/arrowpluckedoutoftheair>. Accessed 22 May 2015.
3. Holmes J, Angus C, Meier PS, Buykx P, Brennan A. How should we set consumption thresholds for low risk drinking guidelines? Achieving objectivity and transparency using evidence, expert judgement and pragmatism. *Addiction.* 2019;114:590–600.
4. Shield K, Paradis C, Butt P, Naimi T, Sherk A, Asbridge M, et al. New perspectives on how to formulate alcohol drinking guidelines. *Addiction.* 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1111/add.16316>
5. Rehm J, Gmel GE, Gmel G, Hasan OSM, Imtiaz S, Popova S, et al. The relationship between different dimensions of alcohol use and the burden of disease—an update. *Addiction.* 2017;112:968–1001.
6. Starr C. Social benefit versus technological risk. *Science.* 1969;165:1232–8.
7. National Health and Medical Research Council. Australian guidelines to reduce health risks from drinking alcohol. 2009. Available from: <https://www.nhmrc.gov.au/guidelines/publications/ds10>. Accessed 22 December 2014.
8. Rehm J, Lachenmeier DW, Room R. Why does society accept a higher risk for alcohol than for other voluntary or involuntary risks? *BMC Med.* 2014;12. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12916-014-0189-z>
9. Fischhoff B, Kadavy J. Risk: A Very Short Introduction. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press; 2011.