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## MEDICAL HUMANITIES

**Is the agenda for global mental health a form of cultural imperialism?**

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4 Abstract: The contemporary agenda for global mental health has been criticized by some  
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6 commentators as a form of cultural imperialism that extinguishes non-Western cultures of  
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8 mental illness and healing. However, while cultures of mental illness and therapeutics may  
9  
10 indeed be globally converging, models of cultural extinction (and their corresponding  
11  
12 preservationist ethic) are highly problematic, particularly with regard to culturally dependent  
13  
14 psychopathology. The more important issue is the possibility of a mutually enriching  
15  
16 dialogue between various Western and non-Western cultures of mental illness and healing,  
17  
18 rather than the desire to preserve difference *simpliciter*, whether in the name of cultural  
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20 essentialism, or as part of a commitment to a global mosaic of cultural diversity.  
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26 The contemporary agenda for global mental health has met with sustained criticism from  
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28 some commentators. This article evaluates one important strand of such appraisal: that in  
29  
30 which the dissemination of Western mental health expertise is disparaged as a form of  
31  
32 cultural imperialism. Derek Summerfield has vigorously criticised the contemporary global  
33  
34 mental health agenda – a manifesto exemplified by the WHO's 2008 document *mhGAP*, an  
35  
36 'action programme developed for countries especially with low and lower middle incomes for  
37  
38 scaling up services for mental, neurological, and substance use disorders'[1]. The programme  
39  
40 proposes interventions designed to close various 'treatment gaps' between High Income  
41  
42 Countries and Low or Middle Income Countries. *mhGAP* cites, for example, a survey  
43  
44 showing that around 80% of people with serious mental, neurological, and substance abuse  
45  
46 disorders in so-called 'less-developed countries' had received no treatment in the previous 12  
47  
48 months, set against a proportion of '35-50%' for the same group in 'developed countries' (p.  
49  
50 7 in World Health Organization[1]). Summerfield stringently criticises this kind of manifesto,  
51  
52 arguing that such 'psychiatric universalism risks being imperialistic'[2]. Scaling up  
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54 psychiatric services to close the presumed gap in mental health provision extinguishes local  
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4 ways of expressing and dealing with distress, replacing them with particularly Western ways:  
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6 'in globalising Western mental health, we are globalising a contemporary Western way of  
7  
8 being a person' (p. 5 in Summerfield[2]).  
9

10 In a similar vein, Ethan Watters objects to the spread of Western psychiatric models:  
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14  
15 Americans have been industriously exporting their ideas about mental illness. ... they've  
16  
17 failed to foresee the full impact of these efforts. It turns out that how a people in a culture  
18  
19 think about mental illnesses – how they categorize and prioritize the symptoms, attempt to  
20  
21 heal them, and set expectations for their course and outcome – influences the diseases  
22  
23 themselves. In teaching the rest of the world to think, they have been, for better and worse,  
24  
25 homogenizing the way the world goes mad.[3]  
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30  
31 Watters argues that Western psychiatry is a culturally dependent therapeutics fitted to  
32  
33 culturally dependent Western psychopathologies such as (he believes) depression and  
34  
35 anorexia. He therefore declares that, because of the globalization of US psychiatry, 'Modes of  
36  
37 healing and culturally specific beliefs about how to achieve mental health can be lost to  
38  
39 humanity with the grim finality of an animal or plant lapsing into extinction' (p. 8 in  
40  
41 Watters[3]).  
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43

44 Although this article addresses a particular conceptual problem in contemporary  
45  
46 critique of the global mental health agenda, there are potentially empirical challenges to  
47  
48 Watters's thesis and its various analogues. Like Watters, Suman Fernando laments 'the  
49  
50 imposition of bio-medical psychiatry across the world and opening of markets for Big  
51  
52 Pharma that would follow'[4]. This remark betrays a rather homogeneous vision of Western  
53  
54 psychiatry. The biomedical model of psychiatry may indeed be dominant in the West, but it is  
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56 certainly not universally accepted: from anti-psychiatry to recent calls for a move beyond the  
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4 current, putatively ‘technological’ paradigm in biomedical psychiatry[5], Western mental  
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6 health care continues to be characterised as much by debate as by consensus. The extent to  
7  
8 which such oppositional models have also been exported to LMICs remains unclear. More  
9  
10 generally, there is much empirical research to be done before it can be concluded that Watters’s  
11  
12 case studies, and others like them, typify the reception of Western psychiatry in LMICs. One  
13  
14 might wonder, for instance, whether partnerships such as the Toronto Addis Ababa  
15  
16 Psychiatry Project (TAAPP) lead to a different, more mutually reflexive and negotiated  
17  
18 relationship between Western psychiatry and indigenous expertise. One of TAAPP’s explicit  
19  
20 aims, after all, is ‘to creatively and usefully challenge the relative cultural isolation of western  
21  
22 models of psychiatry’[6].  
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26  
27 Thorough empirical investigation of the global mental health agenda and its  
28  
29 consequences, extending to cultural impact, systemic outcomes, and patient outcomes, is  
30  
31 surely essential. However, to the extent that cultures of mental illness and therapeutics are  
32  
33 indeed globally converging on a Western and predominantly biomedical model, I shall argue  
34  
35 that this should not be viewed as loss or extinction of non-Western ethnopsychiatries. (I use  
36  
37 the term ‘extinction’, of course, without implying any broader analogy with biological  
38  
39 evolution.) Concepts such as ‘cultural extinction’ (and even ‘culture’ itself) are, I believe,  
40  
41 highly problematic, and should be removed from the terms of the debate. This would allow a  
42  
43 more coherent critique to emerge in which the focus is not upon preserving diversity, but  
44  
45 upon promoting the best forms of dialogue and interchange.  
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48  
49 It is helpful to distinguish allies to the cultural extinction argument. A distinct, but  
50  
51 aligned, argument highlights the wisdom of non-Western traditions. Alongside his concern at  
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53 the opening of new markets for Big Pharma, Fernando calls for  
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4 a framework of mental health care that is respectful of cultural diversity, acknowledging that  
5  
6 there is much wisdom in non-western countries, that we can learn much from how other  
7  
8 cultures handle human problems.[4]  
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10  
11  
12 There are at least two thoughts here. One is that we should protect cultural difference in itself  
13  
14 – the request to be ‘respectful of cultural diversity’. The other is that by so doing we preserve  
15  
16 a reservoir of indigenous knowledge which one day might inform our own expertise. The  
17  
18 demand to liberalise the global marketplace in psychiatric ideas (and practices), and to have  
19  
20 genuinely reciprocal dialogue between forms of expertise, is particularly imperative given  
21  
22 additional concerns about the risks of Western intervention. Watters, for instance, gives a  
23  
24 social constructionist analysis of the way in which post-disaster counselling in LMICs may  
25  
26 inadvertently make things worse by promoting psychological vulnerability (p. 131 in  
27  
28 Watters[3]).  
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33 Opposition to Big Pharma, reciprocal recognition of non-Western expertise, and  
34  
35 commendable clinical caution, are, however, quite distinct from the thesis that cultural  
36  
37 diversity in mental illness and therapeutics is, in itself, desirable. Such a position is part of  
38  
39 wider concern about so-called cultural imperialism. John Tomlinson notes that while  
40  
41 ‘cultures have always influenced one another and that this influence has often enriched the  
42  
43 interacting communities’, contemporary ‘cultural synchronisation’ is an ‘unprecedented  
44  
45 feature of global modernity’[7]. Cees Hamelink refers accordingly to an ongoing process of  
46  
47 ‘cultural synchronization’ in which ‘decisions regarding the cultural development in a given  
48  
49 country are made in accordance with the interests and needs of a powerful central nation’[8].  
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52  
53 Debates about cultural synchronization commonly centre on language, religion, art  
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55 forms, and so forth. Hamelink complains, for instance, that ‘the incredibly rich local musical  
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57 tradition of many Third World countries is rapidly disappearing under the onslaught of dawn-  
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4 to-dusk North American pop music' (p. 2 in Hamelink[8]). Such debates transpose to cultural  
5  
6 difference in psychopathology and therapeutics. The most obvious relevant phenomena are  
7  
8 culturally bound syndromes, where cultural difference itself is the fundamental pathogenic  
9  
10 factor. These need little or no introduction: culturally specific conditions such as *koro* (penis-  
11  
12 retraction/shrinking) are recognised by official nosology. There are also more subtle cultural  
13  
14 differences, such as variation in 'idioms of distress' – 'socially and culturally resonant means  
15  
16 of experiencing and expressing distress in local worlds'[9]. Idioms may range from various  
17  
18 psychological and somatic complaints, to seeking out healthcare and diagnosis, or even to  
19  
20 just smoking more (pp. 405-6 in Nichter[9]). (There are also broadly similar concepts such as  
21  
22 variation in the 'symptom pool', those 'templates, or different ways of presenting illness'  
23  
24 held in a 'culture's collective memory of how to behave when ill'[10]). So it may be argued  
25  
26 that the global mental health agenda promotes a psychiatrically-led homogenization in  
27  
28 culturally dependent psychopathology, ranging from gross features such as culturally bound  
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30 syndromes, to the particularities of idioms of distress.  
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35 But a fundamental question remains: why is such cultural convergence in itself a loss  
36  
37 or destruction, analogous (following Watters), to 'an animal or plant lapsing into extinction'?  
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39 This is a problem faced generally by what Anthony Appiah calls the 'preservationist  
40  
41 ethic'[11], by which 'assimilation is figured as annihilation' (p. 130 in Appiah[11]).  
42  
43 However, to defend the view of cultural synchronisation as extinction is harder than it might  
44  
45 at first appear.  
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49 One could regard convergence as the loss to persons of what is culturally proper to  
50  
51 them. Expressed in the first person, what is at stake is a loss of 'my' way of life, what is good  
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53 'for me', even – we suppose – right down to ways of being ill that are good 'for me'. The  
54  
55 problem facing this account, however, is that 'one's culture could only be whatever it was  
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57 that one actually practiced, and couldn't be lost or retrieved or preserved or betrayed' (p. 137  
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4 in Appiah[11]). Walter Benn Michaels (whom Appiah follows) explains this argument in  
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6 greater length:

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10 that something belongs to our culture cannot count as a motive for our doing it since, if it  
11  
12 does belong to our culture, we already do it and if we don't do it (if we've stopped or haven't  
13  
14 yet started doing it), it doesn't belong to our culture. ... It is only if we think that our culture  
15  
16 is not whatever beliefs and practices we actually happen to have but is instead the beliefs and  
17  
18 practices that should properly go with the sort of people we happen to be that the fact of  
19  
20 something belonging to our culture can count as a reason for doing it.[12]  
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26 Michaels and Appiah tend to exemplify with cultural features such as teaching Shakespeare  
27  
28 in school. But their argument can be illustrated with ethnopsychiatric materials. If Consuelo  
29  
30 from South America reads English-language pop psychology, and stops having *ataques de*  
31  
32 *nervios* and starts having depression, then her depression is as much her idiom of distress as  
33  
34 *nervios* used to be. If this change is to count as a loss of Consuelo's culture, then we need  
35  
36 some sense of what Consuelo's idioms of distress should be – her 'real' or 'authentic' culture,  
37  
38 as opposed to the one she actually has. As both Michaels and Appiah remark, this used to be  
39  
40 done by categorizing people through explicitly racial or ethnic concepts (one might in  
41  
42 Consuelo's case have invoked some kind of racial psychology). But now such categorization  
43  
44 seems to be done merely by *implicitly* racial or ethnic thinking – there needs to be some  
45  
46 conception of Consuelo's proper group (and its typical culture), for her changed idiom to  
47  
48 count as loss rather than change. But what this might be is unclear. For commentators who  
49  
50 view homogenization of culturally dependent psychopathology as extinction, the onus is on  
51  
52 them to find an answer that avoids cultural essentialism – that does not posit a racial, ethnic,  
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54 or national 'essence' lurking within Consuelo's soul, and which must find proper expression  
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4 in her culture. (For the sake of brevity, I have expressed this counterargument in  
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6 individualistic ethical terms. One might of course reframe the debate in terms of benefit or  
7  
8 harm not to individuals but to groups. The problem still applies of trying to identify the ‘real’  
9  
10 culture of a group as opposed to the one it actually has. Indeed, group heterogeneity further  
11  
12 erodes the preservationist view. Even if *ataque de nervios* happens to be culturally  
13  
14 hegemonic, why is the subgroup consisting of Consuelo and others – her pop-psychology  
15  
16 book club perhaps – in some sense untrue to their culture?)  
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19  
20 But perhaps there is another way of seeing such change as loss. Might one think of  
21  
22 Consuelo’s changed idiom not as a loss ‘for her’ (or ‘for them’), but rather as a loss to global  
23  
24 cultural diversity – to the ‘external diversity’ apparent when the world is viewed as ‘a grid of  
25  
26 communities hewing each to its own customs and creed’ (p. 149 in Appiah[11])? Such  
27  
28 preservationism is not motivated by a sense of cultural propriety, but by the desire to protect  
29  
30 a mosaic of differences, including even the difference between distress as *ataque de nervios*  
31  
32 and distress as depression. This model, which resonates with ideas of biodiversity, is,  
33  
34 however, vulnerable to the charge of ethnocentrism, and may be viewed as an extension of  
35  
36 Western global dominance. The Western expert speaks on behalf of the putatively threatened  
37  
38 ‘other’, demanding ‘preservation’ much as the earlier imperialists demanded ‘education’ and  
39  
40 ‘enlightenment’. As Tomlinson remarks, ‘the problem of homogenisation is likely to present  
41  
42 itself to the Western intellectual who has a sense of the diversity and “richness” of global  
43  
44 culture as a particular threat’; but ‘we cannot, without irony, argue that the Western  
45  
46 intellectual’s (informed?) concern is more valid’ (p. 109 in Tomlinson[7]). Why should we  
47  
48 discourage Consuelo from being depressed, as opposed to having an *ataque de nervios*?  
49  
50 Appiah allows that there may be an aesthetic (or even curiosity) value to the Western  
51  
52 spectator in preserving external diversity, but ‘it would be a moral error to take measures ...  
53  
54 to discourage members of these picturesque communities from leaving and joining ours’ (p.  
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4 150 in Appiah[11]). Consuelo deserves better than being urged to stay in her niche in some  
5  
6 great cabinet of ethnopsychiatric curiosities.  
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8 A further problem should be noted. While idioms of distress will presumably always  
9  
10 be needed, things are different with culturally bound syndromes, where culture itself is the  
11  
12 fundamental cause (analogous to a biological pathogen). If *koro* dies out, then this cultural  
13  
14 extinction, as with the extinction of the smallpox virus, simply means one less ill (or illness)  
15  
16 in the world. We can speculate about the consequences of such an extinction, and whether  
17  
18 they might be better or worse (perhaps *koro* prevents something even worse from happening).  
19  
20 But all other things being equal, it is hard to see why the world is better for the existence of  
21  
22 *koro*, or would not be improved without it. In other words, where cultural convergence in  
23  
24 psychopathology does have axiological significance, it may be precisely as a benefit.  
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28 Given such objections, why do critics of the global mental health agenda allude to  
29  
30 cultural extinction? One answer lies in what Tomlinson regards as the ‘constant temptation  
31  
32 for the Western cultural critic to displace their own cultural dilemmas on to concern for other  
33  
34 cultures’ (p. 120 in Tomlinson[7]). When Summerfield warns that ‘in globalising Western  
35  
36 mental health, we are globalising a contemporary Western way of being a person’ what  
37  
38 worries him is perhaps not the loss of other ways of being a person *simpliciter*, so much as  
39  
40 the replacement of a more socially embedded and resilient selfhood by a Western model in  
41  
42 which ‘citizens are invited to see a widening range of experiences in life as inherently risky  
43  
44 and liable to make them ill’ (p. 520 in Summerfield[2]). In other words, what is at stake is not  
45  
46 the loss of any old difference, but rather the loss of a more resilient way of life, and a  
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48 corresponding local wisdom.  
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52 That the real concern of Summerfield and others is – or should be – not diversity in  
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54 itself, but the failings of biomedical psychiatry, and the merits of non-Western  
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56 ethnopsychiatry, becomes apparent when one extrapolates from the preservationist ethic. If  
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4 we are indeed to view convergence in culturally dependent psychopathology as extinction,  
5  
6 then this must also – in principle – apply to Western ethnopsychiatry. Summerfield provides  
7  
8 the example of a local healer at work in a South African township; this gentleman ‘would  
9  
10 doubtless have no problem in accepting the statement that his was merely one of many  
11  
12 ethnopsychiatries in the world’ (p. 527 in Summerfield[2]). The difficulty, Summerfield  
13  
14 continues, is that ‘Western psychiatry simply refuses to do the same’ (p. 527 in  
15  
16 Summerfield[2]). Accept, for the sake of argument, that Western psychiatry is indeed one  
17  
18 ethnopsychiatry amongst others. We could imagine some hypothetical science-fiction  
19  
20 scenario in which Western ethnopsychiatry becomes the property of an embattled society –  
21  
22 perhaps global warming has brought about a decline in Western dominance. An ethnographer  
23  
24 in this new world might record the British natives’ peculiar rituals and idioms of distress:  
25  
26 consulting the *jeepee* or the *sike-a-trist* to request conversational therapy or pills, and locating  
27  
28 suffering in an internal, personal spirit-ghost, rather than in their body. Such an account  
29  
30 might end with an echo of Watters’s warning that ‘modes of healing and culturally specific  
31  
32 beliefs about how to achieve mental health can be lost to humanity with the grim finality of  
33  
34 an animal or plant lapsing into extinction’. Yet such a call for preservation is of course very  
35  
36 much in tension with critique of Western psychiatry, even if it is a coherent extrapolation  
37  
38 from the preservationist position towards non-Western psychiatries.  
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44 There is then a clear strand of criticism of the global mental health agenda that is  
45  
46 willing to evaluate different ethnopsychiatries, and their relative merits, and such appraisal is  
47  
48 quite distinct from the preservationist ethic, even if the two positions are frequently muddled.  
49  
50 This equivocation arises, I suspect, because critique has been informed by transcultural  
51  
52 psychiatry, a field which saw a treaty, as it were, between psychiatry and anthropology to  
53  
54 share ‘epistemic authority’ – ‘the legitimate power to define, describe, and explain bounded  
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56 domains of reality’[13] – over a particular domain of mutual interest. This epistemological  
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4 dual sovereignty imported into psychiatric discourse the anthropological notion of culture,  
5  
6 succinctly defined by Laurence Kirmayer as ‘a way of life: the values, customs, beliefs and  
7  
8 practices that form a complex system’ [14]. However, as Adam Kuper explains,  
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11  
12 appeals to culture can offer only a partial explanation of why people think and behave as they  
13  
14 do, and of what causes them to alter their ways. Political and economic forces, social  
15  
16 institutions, and biological processes cannot be wished away, or assimilated to systems of  
17  
18 knowledge and belief. [15]  
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24 To the question ‘Why do these people do things differently?’, the concept of culture furnishes  
25  
26 the answer, ‘Because they have a different way of doing things’.  
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28  
29 As noted above, few informed commentators would apply such a limited analysis to  
30  
31 Western psychiatry. Summerfield, Fernando, and Watters, are all aware that an adequate  
32  
33 understanding of biomedical psychiatry requires more than just description of a particular  
34  
35 culture, without reference to wider social, historical, and political context. But while one may  
36  
37 well plausibly argue that Western psychiatry is bound up with a neoliberal capitalist system,  
38  
39 this should not prevent inquiry into the ideologies of non-Western ethnopsychiatry. Can we  
40  
41 not turn to the South African township healer – or other equivalent – and ask not about  
42  
43 cultural difference, but about the inequalities, ideologies and untruths of such practices?  
44  
45 There is comparatively little discussion of such concerns in critique of the global mental  
46  
47 health agenda, where the hermeneutics of suspicion are generally turned back upon the West.  
48  
49 Indeed, there is a risk of recapitulating the old civilization-culture binary. *We* have critique of  
50  
51 a psychiatric ideology that accommodates and legitimizes our complex neoliberal economic,  
52  
53 social, and political system. *They* have an ethnopsychiatry that exists in a complex, fragile,  
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55 but ultimately harmonious cultural ecosystem. To express the contrast more concretely:  
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4 Oppositional Defiant Disorder is a daft, downright harmful myth promulgated by the  
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6 American Psychiatric Association; but *koro* is an imperilled resource for expressing distress  
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8 within local systems of meaning.  
9

10  
11 There is much that is convincing in contemporary critique of the global mental health  
12  
13 agenda. But sceptics should reflect carefully on the strand of critique that employs ideas of  
14  
15 cultural imperialism. This strand should be scrutinised with a view to properly assessing the  
16  
17 commitment to cultural diversity as a value in itself. I believe critique will be improved by  
18  
19 abandoning the preservationist ethic, which obscures far stronger arguments, particularly  
20  
21 those which see not difference *per se*, but rather unrecognized expertise, in non-Western  
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23 traditions. The more important issue is the possibility of a mutually enriching dialogue  
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25 between different forms of healing expertise, rather than the desire to preserve difference  
26  
27 *simpliciter*, whether in the name of cultural essentialism, or as part of a commitment to a  
28  
29 global mosaic of cultural diversity. John Briggs and Joanne Sharp argue that ‘it is important  
30  
31 not to see indigenous knowledge as an artefact, simply something to be preserved (perhaps  
32  
33 akin to the collection of genetic diversity)’, but rather to recognize that ‘indigenous  
34  
35 knowledges all over the world are malleable, altering in response to Western ideas and  
36  
37 practices’[16]. Rather than focussing on the putative extinction of culturally dependent  
38  
39 psychopathologies and therapeutics, critics of the global mental health agenda should  
40  
41 articulate their preferred model for ethnopsychiatric interchange, commerce, and  
42  
43 transformation. What can *we* learn from *them*, and *they* from *us*, and under what conditions is  
44  
45 such dialogue best undertaken? An answer to this question is beyond the scope of this article,  
46  
47 but I hope that my contribution may encourage debate to shift away from the preservationist  
48  
49 ethic, and to focus more intensively upon what would count as a genuine and mutually  
50  
51 enriching conversation.  
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