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A Companion to Medical Anthropology

Edited by Merrill Singer,
Pamela I. Erickson,
and César E. Abadía-Barrero

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A Companion to
Medical Anthropology

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Edited by
Merrill Singer,
Pamela I. Erickson, and
César E. Abadía-Barrero

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*We dedicate this book to our children,
who, each in their own way,
embody our hopes for a better,
more peaceful, and healthier world:*

*Jacob Singer, Elyse Singer, Jacob Wildwood,
Malena I. Abadia, and Laila G. Abadia*



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Robert T. Trotter, II, began publishing applied oriented cross-cultural research in the fields of culturally competent health-care delivery and culturally sensitive approaches to substance use and misuse and in the Lower Rio Grande Valley of Texas in 1976, based on

research on culturally influenced communication on patient interactions and substance abuse prevention processes (including information from traditional healers on the US Mexico border), as well as cross-cultural comparisons of alcohol use among Hispanic and Anglo college students. In the 1980s his research focus included institutionally oriented research on migrant health and cross-cultural health-care systems, and in the 1990s evolved into research on the confluence of substance abuse and the pandemic spread of HIV, with a focus on prevention research in a multicultural context, including a special focus on social structure, social determinants of health, and cultural applicability design for institutional change, including institutional change in corporate cultures. Subsequent research, in the 2000s to present, has focused on both domestic and international research associated with NIH, the Surgeon General's office (RARE: Rapid Assessment, Response and Evaluation), CDC (I-RARE), and WHO (International Classification of Disabilities). Dr. Trotter's current applied research includes prevention and intervention-oriented research focused on the confluence of criminal justice conditions, converging comorbidities, and substance abuse, and on the interaction of the social determinants of health and infectious disease transmission (including sociocultural approaches combined with cutting-edge genomic studies), in both general populations and in institutional (hospital) populations. Dr. Trotter's applied oriented research includes involvement as P.I. on NIH RO1s, U01s, T-32s, as well as other roles (Co-PI, mPI, Investigator, Evaluator) on NIH U54s, R01s, U01s, as well as funding for CDC and WHO projects. Dr. Trotter has served as an ad hoc and regular member of NIH study sections for NIDA, NIMHD, NIMH, and CDC. Dr. Trotter currently serves as Lead Core Director for the Research Infrastructure Core (RIC) for the NAU Southwest Health Equities Research Collaborative (SHERC) (NIMHD U54MD012388), as well as a Senior Scientist for the NAU Center for Health Equity Research (CHER). Both roles are focused on mentoring early career investigators in relation to both qualitative and quantitative methods, technology, and research design.

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Linda M. Whiteford, PhD, MPH, is Professor Emerita of Anthropology at the University of South Florida where she was Associate Vice President for Global Strategies, Associate Vice President for Academic Affairs and Strategic Initiatives, and Vice Provost. Dr. Whiteford was also the Founding Co-Director of the WHO Collaborating Center for Social Marketing and Social Justice at USF. She is past President of the Society for Applied Anthropology and the 2018 recipient of the Sol Tax Award for contributions to applied anthropology. Her research focuses on translating anthropological research into global health policies and practices, particularly concerning infectious and contagious

water-related diseases. Dr. Whiteford's research has been funded by the National Science Foundation, and she consults for the World Bank and The US Agency for International Development. Significant publications include *Primary Health Care in Cuba: The Other Revolution*; *Anthropological Ethics for Research and Practice*; *Globalization, Water and Health: Resources in Times of Scarcity*; and *Global Health in Times of Violence*.



Introduction

*Merrill Singer, Pamela I.
Erickson, and César
Abadía-Barrero*

Medical Anthropology is a “baby boomer” of sorts. It came into being alongside the unprecedented interest in the health and wellbeing of Third World peoples in the aftermath of WWII when the world was full of the hope and possibility that science, in this case biomedicine, could alleviate human suffering due to infectious disease and malnutrition, and then help eliminate or control many of the world’s major health problems. Many anthropologists of that era worked with the international health community (WHO, USAID, UNICEF, etc.) to bring biomedicine to the world. The presumption guiding this effort was that shown the effectiveness of biomedicine and modern public health methods (e.g., the health value of boiling water before drinking it), while addressing contextual and cultural barriers to change, people would readily adopt new ways and the threat of many diseases would begin to diminish. Seven decades later, a large proportion of the morbidity and mortality in our world is still due to the same tenacious problems of malnutrition, pregnancy-related complications, infectious diseases, and lack of access to high-quality health care. Although some of the diseases, like HIV/AIDS, are new, one old disease but only one, smallpox, has been eliminated. With economic development, the so-called Third World was re-branded in terms of the size of each country’s economy as low- or middle-income countries. With more “development,” these countries started to experience a mixed epidemiologic profile: “diseases of poverty,” on the one hand (Farmer 2003), and chronic conditions such as cancer, diabetes, and cardiovascular disease, on the other. The raising awareness of the world interconnectedness demonstrated how health profiles depended on key social determinants of global health such as living and working conditions; level of education; neighborhood characteristics; and access to water, sanitation, and health care services which are exacerbated by escalating levels of poverty, inequalities, war, genocide, and greed (Singer and Erickson 2013).

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The political economic systems that have resulted from unconstrained capitalism and global free market policies married to a scientific positivism whose advocates thought they would save the world have become systems of structural violence (Galtung 1969) that are especially damaging to the poor and marginalized peoples of the planet. As Farmer (2003:1) indicates, structural violence refers to “a host of offenses against human dignity [including]: extreme and relative poverty, social inequalities ranging from racism to gender inequality, and the more spectacular forms of violence that are uncontested human rights abuses....” Medical anthropologists waver between people-centered approaches that include individual experiences and collective realities of lived marginalization and “social suffering” (Biehl and Petryna 2013; Kleinman et al. 1997), and infrastructures of violence, historical trauma, and systems of oppression. As Langer (1996:53) asserts, “We need a special kind of portraiture [and a special language] to sketch the anguish of people who have no agency in their fate because their enemy is not a discernible antagonist, but a ruthless racial ideology, an uncontrollable virus, or, more recently, a shell from a distant hillside exploding amid unsuspecting victims in a hospital or market square.”

If this were not enough, health problems have become more severe and widespread due to globalization (e.g. with the alteration of food supplies or migrants facing a range of aggressions in the host countries) (Castañeda 2019; Horton 2016; Perro and Adams 2017) global warming (with higher rates of heat stroke and other heat-related problems) (Baer and Singer 2018, Singer 2019), and environmental restructuring and degradation (with more pollutants and chemicals in the air, soil, water, and everyday use items), all of which interface with each other to effect syndemics (Singer 2009a), ecosyndemics (Singer 2009b), and ecocrises interactions (Baer and Singer 2018; Singer 2009c, 2010, 2019, 2021). Indeed, at least in the United States, life expectancy is declining and, at the same time, a myriad of mental health problems, metabolic and immune conditions, drug overdose, and gun violence are reaching “epidemic” proportions and affecting younger and younger generations (Perro and Adams 2017). We are in a situation in which health improvements and innovations coexist with longstanding inequalities and even worsening health indicators. The ever increasing costs of care given the for-profit characteristics of the pharmaceutical, biotechnology, and health delivery industries continue with minimal national or global regulations (Sunder Rajan 2017). The push for insurance-based privatization policies has been globally enforced in the Sustainable Development Goals as “Universal Health Coverage” (Abadía-Barrero and Bugbee 2019). As health care financing and metrics take over health decisions (Adams 2016; Metz and Kirkland 2010; Mol 2008; Mulligan 2014), the most fundamental health care interventions, such as child and maternal health or immunizations, continue to receive funding and health technologies in the form of vertical programs, adding to the historical disregard of comprehensive primary health care and inter-sectorial approaches. Within this scenario, medical anthropologists are effectively conducting research that bridges the local with the global to ask questions such as why certain indicators and not others count in global health? whose agenda is considered more important behind national and global decisions? what sets of problems, contradictions, and obfuscations are evident as people are funded to improve certain indicators but are required to disregard other health frameworks that they might deem as important? how are power, bureaucracy, technologies and health delivery interconnected and how these shape the experiences of patients and health care personnel? how are diseases shaped and changed historically, biologically, politically and socioculturally? By asking such questions, medical anthropology’s biocultural approach opens dialogues and debates with public policy,

clinical medicine, political economy, public health, and health care systems and management, among other fields of research and intervention.

It is estimated 700,000 people died from AIDS-related illnesses in 2020, most of them in developing countries. Over 4 million people have died of COVID-19 and over 3 million more died from tuberculosis and malaria. Infectious disease accounts for about 29% of under-age-five child deaths in developing countries, and malnutrition plays a role in about half of these deaths (WHO 2005). When these diseases interact – HIV, for example, interacts adversely with tuberculosis, malaria, and malnutrition (Abu-Raddad et al. 2006; Gandy and Zumla 2003; Gillespie and Kadiyala 2005; Herrero et al. 2007) – the consequences are multiplied exponentially. Moreover, maternal mortality takes one in 74 women each year away from their families (World Health Organization 2004). Syndemic infection during pregnancy adds a significant additional level of risk to what is already a risky situation for most women in the Third World (Ayisi et al. 2003). Other less attended to and “neglected diseases” kill millions more people each year 2008. Sometimes called tropical diseases, they are, as Nichter (2008:151) stresses, “diseases of poverty, development, and political ecology – not climatic happenstance.” Notably, they, too, tend to occur in overlapping geographic zones and to involve polyparasitism or other comorbidities and harmful disease interactions (Hotez et al. 2006). COVID-19 also interacts synergistically with various non-communicable diseases or conditions—including diabetes, obesity, severe asthma, respiratory, and cardiovascular diseases—with serious health consequences.

As Nichter’s comment suggests, our world is one of great health disparities and inequalities in health status, access, and treatment that closely mirror social disparities and prevailing structures of non-egalitarian social relationship. Because health is the foundation of civil society, it has tremendous impact on political stability. The heightened anxiety surrounding the 2003 SARS, 2009 “swine flu” (H1N1 influenza), and our current 2020–2021 COVID-19 pandemic scares represented global expressions of a fragile perceived susceptibility in our new and dangerous twenty-first century world. While certainly there are areas in which health has improved, such as access to clean water in some locales, improvements in sanitation in many places, and progress in antenatal care, all of which are reflected in declining rates of child mortality, as the World Health Organization (2008:6) observes, the progress that has been made in health in recent years has been deeply unequal, with convergence toward improved health in a large part of the world, but at the same time, with a considerable number of countries increasingly lagging behind or losing ground. Furthermore, there is now ample documentation of considerable and often growing health inequalities within countries.

From its beginning medical anthropology was defined as “...the cross-cultural study of medical systems and ... the bioecological and sociocultural factors that influence the incidence of health and disease now and throughout human history” (Foster and Anderson 1978:1). Thus, it has long had a broad mandate to understand and interpret human beings – their behavior, their diseases and illnesses, their medical systems and the place of each of these in the encompassing sociocultural system (Erickson 2003). Medical anthropology was professionalized as a subfield within the discipline in the 1960s. At 60 years of age, it has a history of both venerated founders (George Foster, Cecil Helman, Arthur Kleinman, Charles Leslie, Hazel Weidman, Charles Hughes, Benjamin Paul, Pertti and Gretel Pelto, Arthur Rubel, among many others) and contested theoretical paradigms that have followed broader theoretical shifts in the discipline. There are now a range of medical anthropology

journals and programs around the world, some hosted within anthropology departments, and others in interdisciplinary fields, such as global health.

Academic medical anthropology in the twenty-first century encompasses the domains of individual experience, discourse, knowledge, practice, and meaning; the social, political, and economic relations of health and illness; the nature of interactions between biology and culture; the ecology of health and illness; the cross-cultural study of ethnomedical systems and healing practices; and the interpretation of human suffering and health concerns in space and time (Baer et al. 2003; Erickson 2008; Joralemon 1999; Lock and Scheper-Hughes 1996; McElroy and Townsend 2009; Nichter 1992; Sargent and Johnson 1996; Scheper-Hughes and Lock 1987; Singer and Baer 2007). Applied medical anthropology takes on the responsibility of making research useful for clinical or health educational applications, for influencing health policy, or for effecting social justice (Erickson 2003; Rylko-Bauer et al. 2006; Singer and Baer 2007), continuing the founding theme of bettering the public health. Despite our different interests, “our great strength is our diversity of theory and method, our holistic approach, our willingness to cross disciplinary boundaries, and our insistence on social justice” (Erickson 2003:4).

Companion to Medical Anthropology is meant not to serve as a full history of the sub-discipline (although many components of the field’s history are discussed), or as an encyclopedia (although essays on many key topics are included), nor as an annual review of medical anthropology. Rather, we have identified scholars who we believe have something important to say about some of the major topics and themes in medical anthropology. For this second edition, we asked authors, some from the first edition and some new, to write an original or significantly updated chapter that addresses current issues, controversies, and state of the field for their particular area of expertise from their own perspectives, and to hypothesize about the future trends and directions in their areas of expertise: where we are, what the major and emerging issues currently appear to be, and what might lie ahead.

The book is designed to address students, scholars, and practitioners alike. Unavoidably, there are many more thematic and topical areas than could be included in this volume. Thus, Companion is not exhaustive and was not meant to be. We believe, however, that what you find in these pages will engage your interest, passion, and commitment to ensure that medical anthropology continues to matter in a world of enormous health challenges.

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PART I

Theories, Applications, and Methods

CHAPTER 1

Re/inventing Medical Anthropology: Definitional Struggles and Key Debates (Or: Answering the *Cri Du Coeur*)

Elisa J. Sobo

INTRODUCTION

The distinct subfield called “medical anthropology” emerged in the 1970s as the outcome of many lines of intertwined inquiry. Interest in diverse health practices and understandings goes back centuries, pre-dating anthropology’s establishment as an academic discipline. However, after World War II, a notable subset within the field began to consider health a topic worthy of focused specialization. Anglophone anthropology’s participation in post-World War II international and public health efforts fueled this impulse: Data collected in earlier times for simple descriptive purposes proved invaluable as these scholars worked to help said health programs succeed. That is, medical anthropology’s concretized emergence was driven by ethnology’s newly valuable, directly “technical” (Scotch 1963) relevance. Indeed, the first review of the nascent field, William Caudill’s “Applied Anthropology in Medicine” (1953), emphasized its practical utility.

The shorter phrase “medical anthropology” seems first to have been used by P.T. Regester (1956) and then by Khwaja Hasan and B.G. Prasad (1959), while an article by James Roney carried the phrase in its title (1959). But what did this label describe? What tensions did it encompass? Did these tensions exhibit different characteristics in different global settings?

Building on previous historical reviews (including Anderson 2018; Browner 1997; Claudill 1953; Colson and Selby 1974; Fabrega 1971; Foster 1974; Foster and Anderson 1978; Good 1994; Hasan 1975; Lock and Nichter 2002; McElroy 1986; Polgar 1962; Scotch 1963; Sobo 2004; Todd and Ruffini 1979; Weidman 1986), I examine medical anthropology's rise as a named subfield. This process unfolded initially in the USA, where the great majority of medical anthropologists were, and still are, concentrated. However, anthropology is an international discipline: The subfield's emergence depended on inputs from anthropologists of a variety of nationalities, as well as from related disciplines. Global variation and concerns that emerged as the subdiscipline matured also are key to the story. To foreshadow: In medical anthropology's early days as a distinct subfield, debate centered on the applied–theoretical divide, the generalist–specialist distinction, and the contrast between physical (now “biological”) and cultural perspectives. Later developments related to the evolving definition of culture, the influence of various instantiations of critical theory, the role of extra-disciplinary interaction, and concern for social justice and for decolonizing the field.

MEDICAL ANTHROPOLOGY TAKES SHAPE

Application or Theory?

When medical anthropology coalesced in the 1960s, it was as a “practice discipline” (Good 1994, p. 4) dedicated to the service of improving public health in economically poor nations. Indeed, initial effort at organizing a medical anthropology interest group in the USA – diligently fostered by Hazel Weidman – resulted in a 1968 invitation from the Society for Applied Anthropology (SfAA) to affiliate (Weidman 1986). The fledgling community, then called the Group for Medical Anthropology (GMA), accepted this invitation as a practical solution to the challenges of maintaining cohesion, but it was “something of an embarrassment” to many (Good 1994, p. 4). Even George Foster, a key founding figure, reported having to work through ambivalences: “We were trained to despise applied anthropology” (Foster 2000, quoted in Kemper 2006).

As Scotch reported, at the time many felt that because of its practical bent “the quality of literature in [medical anthropology] is not always impressive... It is superficial, impressionistic, and nontheoretical” (1963, p. 32): wholly *infra dig*. Some felt that its practitioners were “less rigorous than their more traditional-minded contemporaries” (p. 33) and denigrated them as mere “technicians” (p. 42). In the UK, this stigma was worse (Kaufert and Kaufert 1978): a British Medical Anthropology Society did form in 1976, but it served mostly medical doctors (Dingwall 1980).

Generalists or Specialists?

Anthropologists who did consider assembling worried whether formally organizing as medical anthropologists would reinforce an “artificial area of study”; in support of this claim some pointed to “the lack of systematic growth and the failure to produce a body of theory” (Scotch 1963). Some feared that formal organizing might “prove detrimental to the development of theory in anthropology” as it would force the fragmentation of the field (Browner 1997, p. 62), a growing concern at that time.

The American Anthropological Association (AAA) was itself then in “organizational disarray,” according to the Committee on Organization, which noted that while anthropologists in general desired to “retain an integrated professional identity” the profession also

faced strong “fissiparous tendencies” (*Anthropology Newsletter* 9[7], as cited in Weidman 1986, p. 116). Some US medical anthropologists felt, accordingly, that simply maintaining a newsletter would be better than assembling as if a faction (Weidman 1986, p. 119). Alan Harwood was one who had, in the late 1960s, tried to put his “finger in the dike... of specialization” (Harwood 2019). Although Harwood eventually came round, taking over the editorship of the group’s renamed newsletter in 1985 when it finally became the journal *Medical Anthropology Quarterly*, others held out. Arthur Rubel, for instance, “would not be pigeonholed as a medical anthropologist [ever]... for he always saw health/medical phenomena as human behavior to be understood as anthropologists understood other forms of human behavior” (Cancian et al. 2001).

An Uneasy Resolution

Partially to better demonstrate ties to the parent discipline the GMA continued to push the AAA (which at that time did not have “sections”) to create a mechanism for its affiliation with AAA as a subgroup. Eventually, largely due to the GMA’s own organizing efforts, this came to pass (see Weidman 1986, pp. 121, 124): the group adopted a “constitution” in 1970, incorporated, and in 1972 became an official AAA “affiliate” (Society for Medical Anthropology 1975). This move firmly anchored the group – now the Society for Medical Anthropology (SMA) – within academic anthropology, although many members remained SfAA members also. Additionally, partly because anthropologists eschewing applied work tended not to join SMA née GMA (cf. Good 1994, p. 4), the influence of applied perspectives remained strong. Many SMA members were employed in schools of medicine, nursing, or public health or in the international and public health fields. The authority of biomedical clinical culture, where curative work and saving lives takes precedence, was manifest (Singer 1992a).

To counter accusations of over-specialization, a statement issued by the SMA in 1981 defining medical anthropology asserted unambiguously: “Medical anthropology is not a discipline separate from anthropology” (Society for Medical Anthropology 1981, p. 8). This did not offset objections related to the narrow technical definition of the term “medical,” noted, for instance, at the GMA’s 1968 organizational meeting. Not only did “medical” leave out nurses and members of the allied health professions; it suggested (and still does) a biomedical gold standard. Other concerns have been the implied focus on pathology and the implicit devaluation of interpretive ethnographic methods.

Nursing theorist Madeline Leininger suggested instead “health anthropology” – which an increasing number prefer today as well (e.g., Baer et al. 2016), perhaps most commonly in Europe, where the preference has deep roots (Hsu 2012). The appellation is perhaps least commonly heard in the Global South, where medical utility often is emphasized (Mishra 2007). At the 1968 meeting, however, although the proposal to rebrand instigated “lively discussion” it did not triumph (Weidman 1986, p. 119).

CULTURAL INTERESTS ASSUME THE LEAD

For better or worse, the subfield moved forward as “medical anthropology.” This was accompanied by a number of “What is Medical Anthropology?” essays. Howard Stein in 1980 recognized this “*cri du coeur* [...as] a recurrent, quasi-ritualized annual event” (p. 18). While in its initial phase, generalist–specialist and applied–theoretical tensions had prominence, now the tension between cultural and biological priorities took precedence.