Madness, childhood adversity and narrative psychiatry: caring and the moral imagination

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ABSTRACT

The dominance of technological paradigms within psychiatry creates moral and ethical tensions over how to engage with the interpersonal narratives of those experiencing mental distress. This paper argues that such paradigms are poorly suited for fostering principled responses to human suffering, and proposes an alternative approach that considers a view of relationships based in feminist theories about the nature of caring. Four primary characteristics are presented which distinguish caring from technological paradigms: (1) a concern with the particular nature of contexts, (2) embodied practice, (3) the dialogical basis of caring and (4) the existential basis of caring. From this we explore the role of the moral imagination and our ability, through narrative, to acknowledge, engage with and bear witness to the injustices that shape the lives of those who suffer. This, we argue, is at the heart of caring. Clinical implications are discussed, including an exposition of the importance of narrative in recovery from trauma and distress. Narrative Psychiatry, The Sanctuary Model of care, and Soteria, are outlined as examples of this type of practice.

We live in a time of austerity, an economic recession that has major implications for our communal health and well-being. Whereas past debates in Britain about the relationship between health and socioeconomic factors focussed on social class and absolute poverty,1 recent work highlights the importance of relative poverty.2 In this analysis, childhood adversity emerges as an important mediating factor between material disadvantage and poor adult mental health. However, scientific theories that downplay the role of contexts dominate psychiatric theory and practice.3 In this paper, we examine the implications of scientific and technological modes of thought for psychiatric theory and practice. How does scientific knowledge stand in relation to lives afflicted by adversity, abuse and oppression, and live in horror and fear? What are the moral implications of applying this knowledge to states of madness? Are there philosophical and conceptual ways of engaging with the moral dilemmas posed by the use of technological interventions, such as pharmacotherapy and cognitive therapy (CT), in the lives of people for whom childhood adversity becomes a soul-destroying narrative strand in adulthood? Is there a role for the imagination in caring? Finally, are there ways of working with people who experience madness that engage with the moral and ethical complexities of the relationship between knowledge/power and suffering?

We begin by outlining the technological paradigm of mental health practice. There is growing concern within clinical psychology and psychiatry4–8 about the inability of this paradigm to engage with the narratives and contexts of people who experience madness. Most significant are the voices of people who use mental health services. While it is true that some value the diagnoses and treatments engendered by the technological paradigm, many do not; instead, regarding such frameworks as stigmatising, disempowering and obscuring the impact of lived experience.9,10 Thus, a tension exists between understanding madness through its sociocultural and interpersonal contexts, and current scientific accounts of madness and the technological interventions derived from this. We examine this tension through a version of the technological paradigm, which in recent years has provided a scientific account of associations between trauma, social adversity and psychosis. The critical issue is whether this is better suited to promoting moral and ethical interactions than dominant biomedical models. We argue that in psychiatry, the technological paradigm is limited in its ability to foster truly principled responses to suffering. We develop this argument through a view of human relationships based in feminist theories about caring. This draws attention to the importance of what we call the moral imagination which, in our view, is at the heart of caring. It also raises the importance of narrative in clinical practice.

THE TECHNOLOGICAL PARADIGM AND PSYCHOSIS

In one guise or another, the biomedical model has dominated psychiatric theory and practice for 150 years.9,10 Although its prominence has varied from time to time, the publication of the Third Edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM-3) heralded the dawn of a new biological psychiatry in the USA,13 and across the globe.14,15 In contemporary psychiatry, the biomedical model is part of the technological paradigm.16 We use this expression because in addition to pharmacotherapy, psychiatric interventions increasingly include CT based in theories of inner representational processes rather than medical frameworks. Pharmacotherapy and CT share the following assumptions8:

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Accepted 14 May 2013
Published Online First 8 June 2013


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*We use ‘mad’ and ‘madness’ to avoid the aetiological assumptions that permeate words like psychosis or schizophrenia. Additionally, these terms carry other meanings that resonate powerfully with a sense of moral outrage. We will see that this becomes more prominent at the end of this paper. For similar reasons we use the word ‘distress’ in place of ‘depressive disorders’ or ‘anxiety disorders’.*
Mental health problems arise from disordered mechanisms. These involve abnormal physiological/psychological events that occur within the individual.

These mechanisms can be modelled in universal causal terms. They can be accounted for independently of the particular contexts in which they occur.

Interventions based in the technological paradigm are instrumental, and can be designed, evaluated and implemented independently of human relationships, values and narratives.

This paradigm explains distress and madness using the same causal logic found in other branches of medicine. Technical interventions in psychiatry are conceptualised as specific therapeutic acts targeted at specific syndromes or symptoms. However, the success of this paradigm in general medicine (eg, improving health outcomes by enhancing treatment safety and efficacy) is not replicated in psychiatry. Empirical evidence from within the technological paradigm simply does not support the assumptions on which it is based. The paradigm is currently in crisis.

In the USA, Angell’s recent review describes how the interests of the pharmaceutical industry have obliterated confidence in scientific claims for the effectiveness of psychotropic medication. In Britain, recent evidence has undermined clinical and scientific conviction in the so-called second-generation neuroleptic drugs, whose ascendancy has been described as ‘…a tale of profit over patient benefit, of marketing over ethics…of fabricated classes, money and marketing’ (ref. 18, p. 266–7).

Recent evidence indicates that non-specific factors like hope, the expectation of improvement and the placebo effect are at least as, if not more, effective than specific properties of pharmacotherapy and CT. The reasons for this are complex. In medicine, the technological paradigm deals primarily with physical malfunctions that are generally supported by explicit empirical evidence. In other words, their construct validity is well established. This is not the case for functional psychiatric diagnoses. Additionally, regarding madness as (unsubstantiated) dysfunctions may potentially silence the person’s narrative. This can occur in a variety of ways, from earlier forms of biological reductionism famously and eloquently attacked by Laing, to descriptive psychopathology which, by focussing on the form of experience rather than the content, decontextualises the experiences of madness.

However, recent developments in scientific knowledge have drawn attention to the importance of adversity and abuse in madness. The traumagenic neurodevelopmental (TN) model proposes that the impact of trauma on the developing brain causes psychosis. By contrast, biomedical models minimise the role of trauma and social adversity to mere triggers that disclose an underlying biological vulnerability. The TN model challenges this, claiming that vulnerability to psychosis is not genetically inherited, but acquired as a result of a reciprocal interaction between environmental distress and psychological and biological elements. This model is interesting because although it is a variant of the technological paradigm, it differs from it in a crucial respect. It proposes that madness arises from disordered mechanisms or processes in the individual (assumption 1), and it models these processes in causal terms (assumption 2), but it differs critically from the biomedical paradigm because it foregrounds the importance of personal contexts of abuse and adversity in which these processes originate.

The TN paradigm highlights the value of scientific inquiry unsullied by commercial interests in challenging what Thomas Kuhn called ‘normal science’. Additionally, there will be real value in the improved technological interventions that it will give rise to, but simultaneously, it places moral issues of power and abuse in human relationships and our social organisation centre-stage in understanding madness. This raises important questions about the moral basis of our engagement with suffering, as scientists, clinicians and practitioners. If we accept the primacy of early life experience in the origins of madness, and its link with social adversity, what are the implications of this insight for how ought we to help those who suffer?

Kleinman addresses this question in terms of an imbalance between empiricism in medicine, and medicine as art: ‘The balance between science/technology and art had shifted so far towards the former that the latter is a pale shadow, a fragile remnant of what had for centuries been crucial to the work of the doctor’ (ref. 31, p. 22). ‘Caring’, he argues, is a foundational component of moral experience, ‘…an existential quality of what it is to be a human being’ (ibid: p. 23). At this point, we will examine in detail what we mean by caring.

CARING AND THE MORAL IMAGINATION

Feminist thinkers like Carol Gilligan and Nel Noddings have emphasised the way that logic, reason and an emphasis on abstract general principles have dominated moral discourse.

Through empirical studies of women discussing moral problems, such as abortion or contraception, Gilligan describes an ‘injunction to care’ as a moral imperative, manifest as a responsibility to...
bear witness to, and attempt to alleviate the ‘real and recognisable
trouble’ of the world (ref. 34, p. 100). Women preferentially
consider moral dilemmas through the particular, by placing them-
theselves in the position of the participants. This moves the discussi-
ion away from abstract general principles based in rule-governed
hierarchies, or what Noddings calls the ‘language of the father’
(ref. 35, p. 1), to an embodied involvement in the participants’
dilemmas, experienced through the feelings that particular cir-
cumstances invoke. The difficulty, as Gilligan points out, is that
ratiocinative views dominate moral discourse.

Noddings35 also notes that women are more likely to ask ques-
tions that draw out the complexities and ambiguities of human
relationships. They want to know what it is like to be the partici-
pants in a particular moral dilemma, and are less likely to focus on
general principles. She argues that this approach is more natural
and realistic, because a concern with moral decisions should be
situated in the particular context of people’s lives. This requires an
approach that is qualitatively different from rational analysis. This
is important for our argument. The technological paradigm is
based in abstract general principles that possess their own internal
logic and rules,16 but these are used in clinical settings that are
simultaneously located within embodied human relationships and
contexts. There are four aspects of caring arising from feminist
theory that can help to clarify the moral basis for a psychiatric
practice based in scientific knowledge. These are (1) a concern
with the particular nature of contexts, (2) embodied practice, (3)
the existential basis of caring and (4) the dialogical basis of caring.

Concern with the particular nature of contexts
Gilligan argues that the ‘masculine approach’ that characterises
the scientific gaze involves the use of abstraction, which
estranges moral action from the narrative aspects of the partici-
pants’ lives. This may help in grappling with general moral prin-
ciples, like justice, but it detaches moral problems from their
existential contexts. If, on the other hand, we engage with the
uniqueness of the individual life, it becomes ‘…possible to con-
sider the social injustice that their moral problems may reflect
and to imagine the individual suffering their occurrence may
signify or their resolution engender’ (ref. 34, p. 100). We inter-
pret this to mean that in mental health practice, caring must
involve engagement with particular contexts of the individual’s
life, especially the circumstances within it, that are important if
we are to understand the meaning of their suffering.

Embodied practice
Embodiment reflects a primary concern with physical sensation
and emotional feeling, in contrast with the rational, disembod-
ied (feeling-less, emotion-less), objective stance that charac-
terises a scientific view of the world. The concept of
embodiment is rich and multilayered. Here, we use it in the
sense given by Merleau-Ponty,36 who argues that the subject of
experience is not a disembodied Cartesian ego, but a body-
subject. In our day-to-day presence in the world we do not
experience ourselves as pure consciousness detached from the
world and our bodies. Our preobjective experience17 is only pos-
sible by virtue of our possession of bodily senses. We can, of
course, examine the world, our bodies and the bodies of others
scientifically—as objects in the world to be accounted for
through causal processes and general laws—but in terms of our
being-in-the-world that is not how we experience the body. We
cannot separate other human beings from their embodiment
but we can separate ourselves from our own bodies. As
Eric Matthews writes: ‘In this way, the world as we perceive it is
again a world of meanings, which include our own bodies and
other embodied persons as having particular sorts of meaning
for us.’ (ref. 37, p. 60, emphasis in original).

Noddings argues that feelings and emotions are central to our
ability to care for others. It is through my sense of myself as an
embodied being, existing in a particular relationship or situation
at a particular moment in history and culture, that it is possible
for me to see someone else’s reality as a possibility for my own.
It is this that underlies our ability to feel compassion for
another (in the sense of participating in, and engaging with,
another’s suffering) that we will see is a vital element of caring.
Thus, the experience of the suspicious and paranoid client
ceases to be a ‘discourse of deficit’18; instead we empathise with
her enduring, embodied fear, and how she has learnt it in order
to help her negotiate and regulate the social world. We do not
ask what’s wrong with her; rather, what’s happened to her.39

Existential basis of caring
The embodied nature of caring suggests that it is a fundamental
existential feature of human life. Kleinman31 40 makes precisely
this point. Existential perspectives deal primarily with our rela-
tionship with the world we encounter before us. The expression
used by Heidegger41 to describe this, ‘being-in-the-world,’ cap-
tures the inseparable nature of this relationship.37 There is a
strong element of choice in how we engage with those whom we
encounter in our social worlds, and for existentialism this raises
questions about our moral engagement with others and the
world. Noddings’ stance on caring is partly drawn from existen-
tial philosophy, especially Martin Buber’s notion of ‘I-Thou.’
Buber42 distinguishes between our relationship to the world of
objects (‘I-It’) and the existential basis of our relationship to other
beings (‘I-Thou’). This draws attention to the dialogical basis not
only of existence (being-world), but of our relationship to others
(I-Thou). Technological modes of thought involve measurement,
analysis and abstraction of the other, placing us in an ‘I-It’ rela-
tionship. This means that caring involves much more than per-
cieving individuals as technical problems that require fixing and
modifying through medication or therapy.

Noddings sees the existential basis of caring as a heightened
sense of awareness of the world, of the other and of the self.
This is fostered through a receptive mode of being that is both
reflective and reflexive. That is to say, as well as leaving myself
open to reflect upon the other, I open up to myself so as to
become aware of myself in relation to the other (reflexive).
In this mode I may become aware not only of what I have received
from the other, but I may also have to decide whether to
respond to it or not. If I choose the latter course this denial may
induce guilt.43 Guilt plays an important role in caring,

This is the expression Merleau-Ponty uses to refer to our immediate
experience of the world as it is already present to us, potentially
meaningful, and before we analyse it scientifically or break it down into
causally related elements.
functioning both as a signpost and a turning point. Experiencing guilt may lead me to adopt the rational-objective mode of thought as a way of assuaging it, and in this mode I become detached from the cared-for. On the other hand, guilt may impel me to consider possible courses of action available to me if I do decide to respond to the other. This reflective imperative is at the core of moral imagination: a dialogical view of self that encompasses the person who experiences psychosis, and the person working with him or her (a self, ie, not engrossed or completely given up to the Other, as Hassan implies: see footnote v). In our view of caring, there is dialectical juxtaposition of subjectivities, a reciprocity.

**Dialogical nature of caring and the moral imagination**

It follows from the foregoing that caring is fundamentally relational, based in an engagement between two human beings. Noddings uses the terms ‘one-caring’ for the person who is in the position of administering care, and ‘cared-for’ to denote the recipient. For the one-caring, this means maintaining a particular disposition, or bestowing oneself (in the sense of conferring a gift) and making oneself available. This is how the one-caring is present to the cared-for. These expressions highlight the fundamentally relational nature of caring, based in the dialogical nature of subjectivity. Furthermore, this emphasis on compassion, relatedness and connection is empowering for friends, family and community through negating the idea that only trained ‘experts’ can administer meaningful support to the mentally distressed.

We use the word dialogical here in the sense developed by the Russian literary critic Bakhtin, whose ideas have implications for our awareness of difference and our relationship to it. Language and consciousness originate in two people in dialogue with one another, in a particular place and time. Bakhtin asks how do they organise themselves into an ‘I’ and an ‘Other’, and what role does language play in this? He maintains that language deals fundamentally with the issue of alterity. There is no such thing as a neutral language spoken in a detached impartial voice devoid of context. Human beings are embodied beings set within a social world; we speak from a particular position in space and time in which our perceptions are subject to constant judgements originating in our unique positions in culture and history. Thus, the dialogical basis of subjectivity grounds our understanding of a moral life. Additionally, it places moral questions in the space between two or more people, and this moves us away from thinking about ourselves as moral subjects in terms of universal principles. Human predicaments are unique, and must be considered as such. This, as we will argue shortly, draws attention to the important role of narrative in clinical practice.

The sense of compassion, of participating in, and engaging with another’s suffering, is an important aspect of what we call the moral imagination. But there is more to it, particularly where madness is involved. It involves our ability to place ourselves in a particular disposition or frame of mind, towards the Other. This disposition has much in common with the way we relate to characters in a novel (see also footnote vi). We are curious about them, open and receptive to their feelings and thoughts, ever prepared to be surprised by them. As we read we reflect on how we might feel and respond were we in similar situations as the protagonists. This act of self-reflection is central to the role of the moral imagination in caring, especially in narrative psychiatry. It also draws attention to the importance of literature and an immersion in the literary for the practice of medicine and psychiatry.

**CARING, NARRATIVE AND RECOVERY**

These four features delineate the moral and existential basis of the trust necessary for therapeutic relationships in mental health practice. Our contention is that they provide the holding matrix that contains all other interventions, including those of the technological paradigm. By prioritising the theory and practice of caring, we believe it is possible to place scientific knowledge, and the technological interventions derived from it, in a more appropriate relationship to suffering. For Gilligan and Noddings, narrative establishes the moral basis of human relationships, and our involvement as psychiatrists and psychologists in narrative is essential in placing the suffering person at the centre of the moral universe in our work. This is vital for recovery. Just as the self can be undone and dehumanised by brutality and isolation, it can be renewed and remade through solidarity and connection with others through narrative. Indeed, this perspective is congruent with the broader tenets of medical humanities, wherein narrative medicine is believed to fortify clinicians with the proficiencies to identify, decipher and empathise with testimonies of suffering, and honouring patients’ stories is...
claimed to facilitate more compassionate, effective and ethical care.59 62

In her book, Aftermath: Violence and the Remaking of the Self, philosopher Susan Brison53 interweaves her account of a murderous sexual assault in which she was left for dead, with her philosophical reflections on these shattering events. She writes extensively about the importance of narrative in her recovery: ‘The communicative act of bearing witness to traumatic events not only transforms traumatic memories into narratives that can…be integrated into the survivor’s sense of self and view of the world, but it also re-integrates the survivor into a community, re-establishing bonds of trust and faith in others.’ (ref. 53, p. xi).

Brison deals with two aspects of narrative that are pertinent to recovery in madness, and which are implicit in our argument: narrative’s reconstructive function, and its role in the moral struggle for justice through social networks, what Herman characterises as ‘the restorative power of truth-telling’ (ref. 24, p. 181) and Dillon as ‘an internal process of truth and reconciliation’ (ref. 54, p. 145). Brison points out that most of us share the belief that we ought to live in a fair world where nothing unjust will happen to us. The link between early adversity and madness63 indicates that this is not so. Nevertheless, in the face of both calculated abuse and arbitrary tragedy, we struggle against the current as we try to maintain this belief. This may encompass outrage and incomprehension: not just ‘why’, but ‘why me’?24 The world is unjust, and this is why acknowledging injustice is vital for recovery. Working with people whose distress originates in early adversity thus necessitates moral solidarity that bears witness to suffering (ref. 3, especially pp. 215–36). Although narrative plays a central role in the reconstruction of self necessary for recovery, the limitations of language can impose restrictions on our ability to speak of trauma. Suffering can be ineffable, and unconstructed trauma stories are necessarily circumscribed, petrified and ‘pre-narrative’.54 xiv There is also an overlap to be explored here with Frank’s58 typology of illness narratives, particularly chaos and quest narratives. Our ability to attach words to our experiences enables us to communicate these to others. This is why many people find non-linear forms of narrative like poetry, and non-textual forms of expression, such as dance and painting, helpful in early recovery.

Brison also explores how social networks and collective moral action guided her healing. One drawback of therapy for abuse survivors is that it fails to address injustice, and the wider political and cultural contexts in which injustice arises. This is why organisations like the Hearing Voices Network (HVN), and other collectives constituting the wider survivor movement are so important in the field of mental health, wherein the personal is also the political.54 Such networks foster solidarity, validation, and may ultimately help individuals take control of narrative processes for themselves. xv This means that in addition to caring, professionals must stand alongside those who have experienced oppression and abuse. We too must bear witness to suffering. As described by Wilson and Droždeč, ‘We live in a world where broken human spirits abound and surround us with their silent cries and unspoken loneliness’ (ref. 59, p. 109). Whereas trauma is defined by shame, exclusion and helplessness, healing thus takes place in a crucible of empowerment, validation and fellowship.24 53 54 Trust and caring are prerequisites here. These new perspectives do not change the narrative, but from retelling and reflection back from others, new meanings emerge, and the story thus transforms into testimony as part of the ritual of healing.60

IMPLICATIONS FOR CLINICAL PRACTICE

This analysis raises important questions for psychiatry and psychology, the most pressing of which concern the basis of clinical practice. How ought we to work with people whose experiences originate in the most extreme forms of human suffering and adversity? There are two conclusions we will outline in answer to this question. The first concerns two forms of practice that already prioritise caring as we have described, the Sanctuary Model, and Soteria. The second is the value of narrative psychiatry as way forward for psychiatric practice.

The Sanctuary Model,39 was conceived to ‘facilitate the development of structures, processes, and behaviours on the part of staff, clients and the community-as-a-whole that can counteract the biological, affective, cognitive, social, and existential wounds suffered by the victims of…extended exposure to adversity’ (ref. 61, p. 357). The model’s theoretical basis derives from systems theory, trauma research and the principles of therapeutic communities, which are drawn together in the Seven Sanctuary Commitments: non-violence, growth and change, open communication, emotional intelligence, inquiry and social learning, shared governance and social responsibility. An important element of the Sanctuary Model is its focus on individual and organisational needs to develop safe and healing environments where the ‘one-caring’ and ‘cared-for’ can thrive. Thus, the Sanctuary Tool Kit (eg, safety and treatment planning, self-care, psychoeducation) is a set of simple, practicable interventions that augment the model’s philosophy and are applied for the mutual benefit of both staff and service users.39

Soteria (the Greek for deliverance or salvation) was the name given by psychiatrist Loren Mosher to a crisis house set up to help people through acute psychoses with minimal mediation.62 Mosher, influenced by Laing and existentialism, conceptualised psychosis as an altered state of consciousness in response to severe crisis or trauma.63 Staff are encouraged to engage with residents’ feelings, beliefs and experiences, and to see in them the potential for psychological growth and reconstitution. This is guided by the view that psychosis is simply an extreme expression of fundamentally human experiences. Soteria relies on ‘being with’,42 an existential engagement between staff and acutely psychotic residents, that shares much in common with caring as set out above. Workers are open to the world as the resident finds it, and accept the reality of the other person’s experiences, without having to intervene, or make normative judgements. A recent systematic review of

60 Although Brison is writing about recovery from adulthood trauma, her emphasis on the role of narrative in recovery is relevant to the suffering of people whose traumatic experiences occurred much earlier in life.
62 Kofman56 conveys this vividly in her account of her father’s death in Auschwitz. Most forms of narrative prioritise certainty, coherence, intelligibility, and linearity (ie, temporal order). The problem, as Stone2 argues, is that this suppresses othersness. To use Bakhtin’s expression, they are monological. Kofman uses the expression writing without power (écrire sans pouvoir) to refer to narrative and discursive modes that open up the possibility of speaking about trauma that engage with the other.

xix Our experience of the HVN is that groups are truly polysemic in that their members rely on a wide range of narratives in talking about, and making sense of their experiences. These include the spiritual, the conspiratorial, the political, the traumatic, the psychological and the medical.
Soteria has shown that it is as effective as conventional drug treatment for people experiencing acute psychosis, with marginally better social outcomes.64

The second development is set out in Bradley Lewis’s recent book, Narrative Psychiatry.65 He proposes that one way of looking at the limitations of scientific and technological psychiatry is its sterility: it simply says nothing about the complexity of human lives and their dilemmas. He uses Chekhov’s play, Ivanov, to illuminate what he means by a narrative view of psychiatric practice. This is a view that engages with the multiplicity of meanings, and thus, the indeterminacy of human lives. There is no single, monological truth about human beings, but this does not mean a descent into the morass of relativism. Instead, he argues that it forces us to engage with our patients’ (and our own) values, and ultimately the moral implications of psychiatric practice. This is because narrative psychiatry is not concerned with the truth status of different stories, but with the consequences of different stories about madness and distress, and the sort of lives that arise from these stories. The arguments we have put forward here about the dialogical and existential basis of caring support this view. Lewis sees psychiatric practice in terms of prioritising clinical stories. Patients enter the clinic with a vast array of complex narratives; the most important task for the psychiatrist is to engage with these stories respectfully and empathically. This means caring for and about the person whose story you are listening to. His use of Chitra Divakaruni’s short story Mrs Dutta Writes a Letter in the final chapters of his book sets out how narrative psychiatry works in practice, while at the same time drawing attention to the importance of literary narratives in understanding clinical practice.

CONCLUSIONS

In general medicine, Mol (ref. 66, p. vii) argues that ‘[a] ttending to enactment rather than knowledge is an important effect: what we think of as a single object may appear to be more than one,’ wherein medicine’s ontological politics influence ‘the way in which problems are framed, bodies are shaped and lives are pushed and pulled into one shape or another’ (ibid, p. viii). Correspondingly, we suggest that a focus on trauma, testimony and polysemy raise important considerations for how mental health narratives are situated within medical humanities research. We suggest that without a framework more clearly derived from the tenets outlined above, technological approaches at best risk complicity in abuse and injustice, and at worst actively perpetrate it. Maltreatment, disempowerment and hierarchical inequalities thus become enacted within the personal, the professional and the political, with the client growing progressively estranged and disenfranchised from their society, their community and the value of their own narrative.54 By contrast, we suggest that promoting moral emphases on healing, truth-telling, emotional resonance and political and interpersonal dignity is ethical in purpose and transformational in scope. As Dillon observes: ‘[W] e have a collective responsibility to people who have experienced abuse to acknowledge the reality and impact...and support them to get the help they need...We must expose the truth and not perpetuate injustice further. Otherwise today’s child abuse victims will become tomorrow’s psychiatric patients’ (ref. 67, p. 18).

Much more work remains to be done in exploring the role of the moral imagination in caring in madness. The next stage of this work will set out its relationship to literary theory and hermeneutics, as well as explore the role of literature and creative writing in helping psychiatrists to engage with their patients’ stories. There is also much to be gained from exploring the moral value of narrative in psychiatric practice from the perspective of Frank’s work59 on illness narratives. Foregrounding the existential basis of caring and outlining the role of the moral imagination is, in our view, fundamental to the practice of narrative psychiatry.

Acknowledgements We are grateful to Dr Pat Bracken and Dr Brendan Stone for comments on an earlier draft of this manuscript.

Contributors PT and EL drafted the first version, which was then written by PT, then edited by EL and finally agreed by both authors before first submission. The revised manuscript was edited and written by EL, then by PT, and the final, submitted version agreed by both authors.

Competing interests None.

Provenance and peer review Not commissioned; externally peer reviewed.

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*Meds Humanities* 2013 39:119-125 originally published online June 8, 2013
doi: 10.1136/medhum-2012-010268

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