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Traditional Healers and Mental Health in Nepal: A Scoping Review

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Abstract Despite extensive ethnographic and qualitative research on traditional healers in Nepal, the role of traditional healers in relation to mental health has not been synthesized. We focused on the following clinically based research question, “What are the processes by which Nepali traditional healers address mental well-being?” We adopted a scoping review methodology to maximize the available literature base and conducted a modified thematic analysis rooted in grounded theory, ethnography, and phenomenology. We searched five databases using terms related to traditional healers and mental health. We contacted key authors and reviewed references for additional literature. Our scoping review yielded 86 eligible studies, 65 of which relied solely on classical qualitative study designs. The

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reviewed literature suggests that traditional healers use a wide range of interventions that utilize magico-religious explanatory models to invoke symbolic transference, manipulation of local illness narratives, roles, and relationships, cognitive restructuring, meaning-making, and catharsis. Traditional healers' perceived impact appears greatest for mild to moderate forms of psychological distress. However, the methodological and sample heterogeneity preclude uniform conclusions about traditional healing. Further research should employ methods which are both empirically sound and culturally adapted to explore the role of traditional healers in mental health.

Keywords Religion · Psychotherapy · Spirituality · Traditional healer · Mental health

Introduction

Given increasing global recognition of the relationship between traditional healers and mental illness (Incayawar et al. 2009), Nortje et al. (2016) generated a systematic review on the relevant quantitative data with van der Watt et al. (2018) following up on the remaining qualitative literature. Their review suggested that traditional healers in low- and middle-income countries were perceived to effect the most change among those who suffered from less severe mental illness, expected positive change, and believed in the inherent meaning of their treatment. Because their review demonstrated a clear diversity in traditional healers and the cultures they practiced in, they concluded future studies should focus on the cultural specificity of traditional healing practices within individual nations using detailed, contextual data to facilitate more generalizable claims (Nortje et al. 2016; van der Watt et al. 2018).

There is a rich body of ethnographic and qualitative literature from Nepal on traditional healers, however, a cursory review may instead reveal an over-romanticized and arguably dismissive generalization of mysticism, neologisms, scientific jargon, and other paranormal, miraculous, or extraordinary claims (Krippner and Combs 2002; Castillo 2004; Sidky 2010). The potential for misunderstanding necessitates a further in-depth exploration of the total available literature, the term "traditional healers" and how traditional healers operate vis-à-vis mental health in Nepal. This is made especially true given their growing clinical significance.

Previous work has promoted traditional healers to the role of primary care providers or referral agents (Poudyal et al. 2003, 2005). However, if medical providers delegate traditional healers to function simply as primary care providers or referral agents to other primary care providers, or even to deliver simplified manualized psychotherapies, then they lose access to the traditional healer's unique ability to treat the patient's teleological needs. Consequently, medical providers might benefit from bearing in mind Nepal's diverse, specific, and idiosyncratic cosmologies of the mind, how they shape the work of local traditional healers, and how they could potentially shape the work of local medical providers.

65 Recent work by Chase et al. (2018) took a “scoping review” approach to
66 synthesizing 38 publications on culture and the mental health in Nepal. The purpose
67 of a scoping review is to provide an overview of the existing evidence, regardless of
68 quality (Arksey and O’Malley 2005; Levac, Colquhoun, and O’Brien 2010). The
69 reviewed literature discussed how culture and indigenous knowledge, beliefs, and
70 values shape and determine the symptom experience, expression, and help-seeking
71 behaviors of those with mental illness. Chase et al. (2018) concluded by affirming
72 the growing interest in culturally informed mental health research and encouraging
73 its application within service design and capacity building.

74 Future researchers may take several approaches to this. For instance, given the
75 traditional healer’s potential and unique capacity to engage in this healing role,
76 medical providers could allow traditional healers to practice their own theories and
77 interventions, without feeling the need to fulfill a medical role sub-serving
78 biomedicine and vice versa (Ventevogel 1996). Here, future medical providers
79 could adopt a holistic bio-psycho-social and spiritual collaborative care model in
80 which multi-disciplinary teams would meet the explanatory needs of opposing
81 illness causality models. Traditional healers in these teams could cover issues which
82 have no simple pharmacological or psychopathological answer, and yet still play a
83 role in both symptoms and solutions. This idealistic approach draws from how
84 biomedicine and traditional healing systems can principally learn from each other
85 and both contain elements which the other lacks. Future medical providers,
86 researchers and public health officials in Nepal could use this approach as a road
87 map for bringing mental health resources to the underserved in a way that is neither
88 invasive nor imperialistic, but rather empowering on a social, individual, and even
89 spiritual level (Craig et al. 2010).

90 It is an ideal time to synthesize the relevant literature in Nepal. However, the
91 traditional healing landscape is described through a heterogeneous and difficult to
92 summarize literature base. To date, empirical research on the relationship between
93 traditional healers and mental health has been quite scarce because of the unique
94 challenges to the trial design, implementation, and evaluation of traditional healers
95 (Nortje et al. 2016; van der Watt et al. 2018). To study a field where fidelity,
96 adherence, and manualized care do not easily translate into ways of understanding
97 traditional healing, many past researchers have instead turned to ethnographic,
98 qualitative, and other social science methods with poor quality and low evidence
99 levels per biomedical criteria, e.g., GRADE recommendations (Schünemann et al.
100 2013).

101 Thus, to synthesize the relevant literature base in Nepal including the qualitative
102 work which might otherwise elude systematic review, we adopt the scoping review
103 methodology. Future researchers who wish to study traditional healers and mental
104 health in Nepal, along with its socio-cultural diversity and complexity, should
105 consider this scoping review in tandem with the work of Chase et al. (2018) who
106 just recently reviewed culture and mental health in Nepal.

107 For our scoping review, we will first discuss the general scope of the included
108 literature, introduce relevant terminology, and identify key atheoretical healer
109 interventions before progressing to theoretical mechanisms of healing. Then we will
110 summarize our results within a pathways to care model.



111 **Methods**112 **Setting and Context**

113 Nepal is a complex hotspot for cultural and biological diversity, altogether
 114 composed of 125 castes/ethnic groups and 123 languages, a fact which can be
 115 explained through Nepal's intertwined nature between the borders of the Indian
 116 subcontinent and Tibet. And according to the 2011 National Population and
 117 Housing Census, 81% of the population follows Hinduism, 9% Buddhism, 4%
 118 Islam, 3% Kirat Mundhum (indigenous ethnic religion), 1% Christianity, and 1%
 119 other or no religion ("National Population and Housing Census 2011 (National
 120 Report).") Consequently, Nepal's ethnic, cultural, linguistic, and religious hetero-
 121 geneity has made it hard to generalize all theories regarding self-hood, magico-
 122 religious thinking, and perceptions of traditional healers across the entire population
 123 (Regmi 1987).

124 However, accurate, reliable data on religion have historically dodged Nepal's
 125 census reports for several reasons. Strict classification systems fail to capture the
 126 syncretic nature with which mountain region Hinduism in Nepal has absorbed
 127 Buddhist tenets and vice versa. Furthermore, census enumerators have been known
 128 to incorrectly lump whole ethnicities and castes together while relying on rigid
 129 parameters to record religious preference. This has left many to claim "Hinduism"
 130 as their religion despite evidence to the contrary (Dahal 2003; Ghimire 2019).

131 More recently, rapid shifts in religious preference have turned measurements into
 132 a moving target. For instance, census data have seen a rising popularity in Buddhism
 133 and Kirati religions among the Magar, Tharu, Chepang, and Dalit ethnic/caste
 134 groups. In another example, Christianity has surged 225% between 1961 and 2001,
 135 especially among the Tamang and Chepang ethnic groups (Dahal 2003; Ghimire
 136 2019).

137 In light of Nepal's diversity, much of the literature on traditional healers and
 138 mental well-being has focused on specific Nepali subpopulations. Consequently, we
 139 categorized findings in this review by accepted social, political, and geographic
 140 divisions within Nepal. Nepal has three main types of ecosystems that inform the
 141 types of populations, livelihoods, and political contexts. The northern part of the
 142 country is the Himalaya, characterized by high-altitude regions with mostly Tibeto-
 143 Burman language speaking populations, and with a greater concentration of
 144 Buddhism. The middle region of the country is known as the Middle Hills (Parbat).
 145 This region is lower altitude hills and mountains with populations speaking Nepali
 146 and practicing Hinduism, as well as middle-hill ethnic minority groups who may
 147 practice Hinduism or Buddhism. The southern part of the country is the plains
 148 region (Tarai) characterized by high agricultural production and populations of
 149 north Indian descent typically speaking Indo-European languages related to Hindi.
 150 Here, Hinduism is the dominant religion, with small Muslim populations.

151 **Search Strategy**

152 Because of the broad landscape of rich, ethnographic data regarding traditional
 153 healing in Nepal, we focused on the clinically based research question, “What are
 154 the processes by which Nepali traditional healers address mental well-being?” Thus,
 155 our review, while open to Nepal’s cultural heterogeneity, does not seek to
 156 summarize every related aspect of it, neither does it summarize each and every
 157 traditional healer intervention outside of those papers which match our research
 158 question.

159 We used the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-analysis
 160 Extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR) (Fig. 1; Appendix A in Electronic
 161 Supplementary Material) (Tricco et al. 2018). We additionally registered our
 162 scoping review through the Open Science Framework (OSF) (osf.io/4ahuw).

163 We utilized broad search strategies to capture relevant idiomatic and ethno-
 164 graphic language that might escape a typical systematic review taxonomy. For
 165 example, we searched for “mental health” using informal language based on

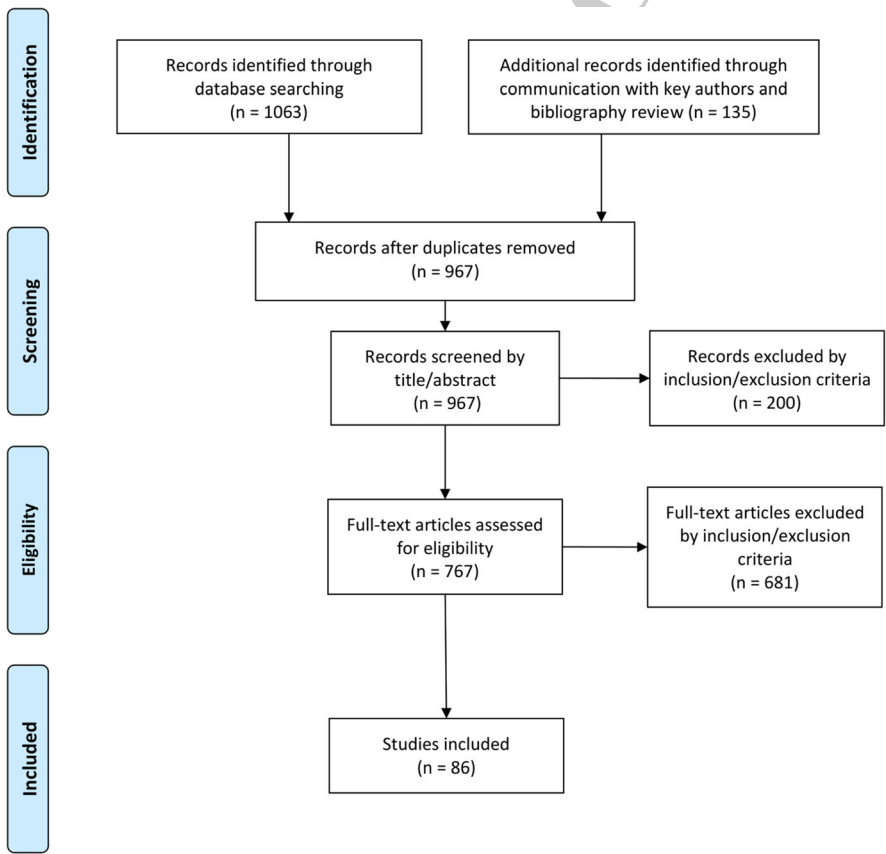


Fig. 1 PRISMA-ScR flow chart

166 “mental well-being.” We searched databases from Anthrosource, PsycINFO, Web
 167 of Science, Scopus, and Pubmed. The full search strings used varied based on each
 168 database (Appendix B in Electronic Supplementary Material). We contacted key
 169 authors and reviewed references of included articles and publications from their
 170 work for additional literature.

171 **Screening and Eligibility Criteria**

172 The authors screened the initial search results using pre-defined inclusion/exclusion
 173 criteria in two phases: (1) title/abstract review and (2) full-text review (Table 1). To
 174 avoid prior loose, unsystematic definitions, we used the same “traditional healer”
 175 definition as established by Nortje et al. (2016): “healers who explicitly appeal to
 176 spiritual, magical or religious explanations for disease and distress.”

177 **Data Extraction and Synthesis**

178 We conducted our analyses according to guidelines for a modified thematic analysis
 179 rooted in grounded theory, ethnography, and phenomenology (Braun and Clarke
 180 2006; Taylor and Bogdan 1998). This approach relied on identifying and describing
 181 explanatory patterns within texts and allowed for a more flexible account of the
 182 qualitative, heterogeneous body of literature.

183 Two of us (TVP and BNK) completed two passes of the literature to establish the
 184 final codes, themes, and organizational frameworks. Our first reading of the
 185 literature identified initial codes. We adjusted these codes through constant
 186 comparison across literature. To enhance trustworthiness of the qualitative analysis,
 187 we engaged in active discourse with respect to coding, organization of coding
 188 categories, and identification of emerging themes. We discussed the data and
 189 provided critical feedback on their interpretations. This provided a theoretical
 190 sounding board which allowed us to reflect on and then explore alternative
 191 interpretations before making changes.

Table 1 Inclusion/exclusion criteria

Inclusion criteria	<p>Relates to traditional healers as defined by Nortje et al. (2016)</p> <p>Relates to psychological outcomes from any involved parties, regardless of concurrent physical outcomes</p> <p>Discusses the processes by which Nepali traditional healers address mental well-being</p> <p>Relates to Nepalis regardless of their physical location and includes non-Nepalis residing in Nepal</p> <p>Includes scientific data, regardless of its “quality” evaluation or study design</p> <p>Written in English</p>
Exclusion criteria	<p>Traditional healing not provided by a traditional healer as per the definition by Nortje et al. (2016)</p> <p>No reference to inclusion criteria outside of one passing sentence about the intersection between Nepali traditional healers and a psychological outcome</p>

192 By the end of our first pass, the codebook reached data saturation, i.e., no new
 193 themes emerged. We agreed upon the final codebook by reading the coded data and
 194 checking the codes for consistency (Appendix C in Electronic Supplementary
 195 Material).

196 Results

197 Altogether, our scoping review yielded 86 publications, including 65 qualitative
 198 studies, two quantitative studies, eight literature reviews, five perspective or opinion
 199 pieces, and six mixed methods studies (Table 2). Many were limited in scope; did
 200 not use regimented study designs, validated scales, or ratings for outcome
 201 assessments; relied primarily on ethnographic data without any biomedically
 202 defined framework; used terminology with ambiguous definitions inconsistent with
 203 the broader literature and health policies.

204 The reviewed literature spanned across most major regions of Nepal including
 205 the Kathmandu Valley ($n = 15$), Western Himalaya ($n = 5$), Central Himalaya
 206 ($n = 18$), Eastern Himalaya (16), Western Middle Hills ($n = 6$), Central Middle
 207 Hills ($n = 4$), Eastern Middle Hills ($n = 4$), Western Tarai ($n = 4$), Central Tarai
 208 ($n = 8$), Eastern Tarai ($n = 1$) as well as England ($n = 3$), Hong Kong ($n = 1$), and
 209 India ($n = 3$). Five works sampled from multiple regions. The reviewed literature
 210 also covered a broad range of ethnicities and castes including the lower castes
 211 ($n = 6$), higher castes ($n = 10$), Newar ($n = 7$), middle hills ethnic groups ($n = 26$),
 212 Tarai indigenous groups ($n = 4$), Kirati ($n = 12$), Chantel ($n = 1$), Sherpa ($n = 8$),
 213 Bhutanese ($n = 3$), Tibetan ($n = 1$), and Sikh ($n = 1$). 10 works represented multiple
 214 ethnicities or castes.

215 Despite such cultural heterogeneity in terms and constructs, much of mental
 216 health research and practice has described Nepal's fluid areas of self and life using a
 217 framework by Kohrt and Harper (2008). In this framework, they conceived of the
 218 Nepali self in terms of the *man* (heart-mind), *dimaag* (brain-mind), *iu/saarir*
 219 (physical body), *saato/atma* (spirit/soul), *ijjat* (social status/honor), and *samaaj*
 220 (social world). Nepali phenomenological concepts of the self, such as the *man*
 221 (heart-mind) notably bypass local notions of stigma classically associated with
 222 mental illness (Kohrt and Harper 2008). The distinction between *man* and *dimaag*
 223 (brain-mind) is especially important given that issues and solutions related to the
 224 *man* offer a satisfying explanation for sickness and misfortune, whereas *dimaag*
 225 issues and solutions face the same stigma as mental illness (Kohrt and Harper 2008).
 226 This nuanced stigma has presented tremendous barriers for healthcare delivery, and
 227 traditional healing is built upon this cultural psychology (ethnopsychology).

228 Overall, the literature reported on a wide variety of traditional healers in Nepal
 229 while simultaneously revealing that Nepali had no agreed upon general term for
 230 "traditional healer." The majority of the reviewed literature used local terms (emic)
 231 when referring to distinct ethnic and cultural types of traditional healers. These
 232 included but were not limited to *dhami* (mediums or villagers like any other who
 233 indirectly heal through divine possession states; conventionally used in Western
 234 Nepal), *jhankri* (non-mediums who directly heal through their own powers with or



Table 2 Summary of reviewed literature

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Case study	Central Himalaya	Alter (2014)	1 IDI	NS	Healer with spirit possession and alcohol dependence	Biosemiotics as a way to understand healing and recovery from addiction
Case study	England	Jolly (1999)	1 IDI	NS	Gurkha Soldier	Soldier with odd behavior and physical symptoms
Case study	England (British Military Hospital)	Melia and Mumford (1987)	4 IDIs	NS	Patients admitted who were first considered to have physical disease	Witchcraft, spirit possession, psychiatric disease, and <i>dhami-jhankri</i> referrals
Case study	Kathmandu Valley (Bhaktapur)	Katry (2011)	2 IDIs	NS	THs	Agreement between healer and patient to do away with destructive supernatural forces
Case study	Kathmandu Valley (Boudhanath, Kathmandu)	Mastromattei (1995)	1 IDI	Middle Hills Ethnic Group (Tamang)	1 female <i>bombo</i>	Ecstatic ritual as familial closure for suicide and accidental death
Case study	Mixed (Kathmandu Valley (Kathmandu), Eastern Tarai (Saptari District), Central Tarai (Rupandehi District))	Acharya (2019)	3 IDIs	NS	<i>Dhami-jhankri</i> and <i>matra</i>	Positive psychological impact on psychosomatic patients
Cross-sectional	Central Tarai (10 VDCs, Chitwan District)	Luitel et al. (2017)	1983 surveys	NS	Adults	Treatment gaps in mental illness

Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Cross-sectional	Eastern Himalaya (Bhutanese refugee camps)	van Ommeren et al. (2004)	1052 surveys	Bhutanese	Tortured and non-tortured adults	THs and psychopathologies treated
Cross-sectional	Kathmandu Valley (Norvic International Hospital)	Hashimoto et al. (2015)	50 IDIs	NS	Patients with mental illness	Role of THs in referral to mental health care
Cross-sectional	Kathmandu Valley (urban Kathmandu and nearby villages)	Furr (2004)	276 surveys	NS	Teachers	Impact of westernization on deviant behavior
Ethnography	Central Himalaya (Helambu region)	Desjarlais (1991)	NS	Sherpa (Yolmo)	NS	Dreams as a vehicle for reporting mental distress
Ethnography	Central Himalaya (Helambu region)	Desjarlais (1992)	NS	Sherpa (Yolmo)	NS	THs and mental health
Ethnography	Central Himalaya (Dhading District)	Höfer (1981)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Tamang)	NS	Buddhist ritual techniques which interrelate the patient's physical and metaphysical worlds
Ethnography	Central Himalaya (Dhading District)	Höfer (1981)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Tamang)	NS	Buddhist ritual techniques which interrelate the patient's physical and metaphysical worlds



Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Ethnography	Central Himalaya (Dhading District)	Höfer (1992)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Tamang)	NS	Informative diagnosis and ecstatic ritual as meaningful and self-distancing therapy catharsis
Ethnography	Central Himalaya (Dhading District)	Höfer (1994)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Tamang)	NS	Buddhist ritual techniques which interrelate the patient's physical and metaphysical worlds
Ethnography	Central Himalaya (Annapurna massif)	Messerschmidt (1976)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Gurung)	NS	Religious traditions as a way to rationalize the world
Ethnography	Central Himalaya	Michl (1976)	NS	Mixed (Chantel, lower caste (Kami))	NS	TH's ability to strengthen community's psychological adaptation to harsh environments
Ethnography	Central Himalaya (Annapurna and Dhaulagiri massifs)	Regmi (1987)	45 IDIs	Middle hills ethnic group (Gurung)	Local <i>tama</i> and community members	Myth and ritual for personality characterization
Ethnography	Central Himalaya (Jiri Valley, Dolakha District)	Sidky et al. (2000)	NS	Mixed (Sherpa, middle hills ethnic groups (Jirel, Tamang)	2 Sherpa <i>dhami-jhankri</i> , 1 Tamang <i>dhami-jhankri</i> , and several Jirel <i>phombo</i>	Role of <i>phombo</i> (Jirel THs)

Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Ethnography	Central Middle Hills (Khiji, Likhu Khola tributary east bank)	Egli (2014)	NS	Kirati (Sunuwar)	NS	Ritual ancestral atmosphere as a domination-free discussion and mediation
Ethnography	Central Middle Hills (Trisuli Bazar, Nuwakot District)	Höfer and Shrestha (1973)	NS	Higher caste (Brahman)	NS	Elder's presence and active patient participation during séance to create Brahmanical kinship
Ethnography	Central Tarai (Dhanusa District, Tisiyahi Village, Tisiyahi Clinic)	Burghart (1984)	NS	Tarai indigenous group (Maitihl)	Brahmanically and medically influenced exorcist and his patients	Legitimizing folk explanatory paradigms through Brahmanical and medical influence
Ethnography	Central Tarai (Makwanpur District)	Riboli (2000)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Chepang)	NS	Healer as therapist and psychopomp who conducts puja to renew motivation and vigor
Ethnography	Central Tarai (Makwanpur District)	Riboli (2012)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Chepang)	NS	Consciousness and associated healing systems
Ethnography	Eastern Himalaya	Desjarlais (2003)	NS	Sherpa (Yolmo)	NS	Bombo rituals and psychological change

Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Ethnography	Eastern Himalaya (Bala Village)	Gaenzle (2016)	1 observation	Kirati (Mewahang Rai)	TH and his patients	TH's speech acts to convey complex agency within a psychological framework
Ethnography	Eastern Himalaya (Eastern Arun Valley)	Hardman (1996)	NS	Kirati (Lohorung)	NS	The priest's use of <i>szya</i> as a complex symbolic code
Ethnography	Eastern Himalaya (Eastern Arun Valley)	Hardman (2004)	NS	Kirati (Lohorung)	NS	The relationship between emotions and ancestors
Ethnography	Eastern Himalaya	S. Jones (1976)	NS	Kirati (Limbu)	NS	Social determinants of spirit possession
Ethnography	Eastern Himalaya (Dolakha District)	Miller (1979)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Thami)	NS	Creating the expectation of improvement and naming the underlying spiritual illness to relieve tension and psychosomatic illness.
Ethnography	Eastern Himalaya (remote Hongu river watershed, south of Mount Everest)	Nicoletti (2006)	NS	Kirati (Kulunge Rai)	NS	Creating order and meaning through ritual
Ethnography	Eastern Himalaya (Shorung region, Solukhumbu District)	Paul (1976)	NS	Sherpa	NS	TH's control of madness

Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Ethnography	Eastern Himalaya (Bhojpur Bazaar)	Pigg (1995)	NS	NS	NS	The overlap between healer therapeutic aspect and the social dynamics they produce, deliver, and sustain TH's initiation and sacrificial rituals
Ethnography	Eastern Himalaya (Mewakholo area, Limbuan)	Sagant (1976)	NS	Kirati (Limbou)	NS	TH's initiation and sacrificial rituals
Ethnography	Eastern Himalaya (SoluKhumbu District)	Soubrouillard (1995)	5 IDIs	Mixed (Tibetan, Nepali)	2 females and 3 male THs	Treatment of mental illness by THs
Ethnography	Eastern Himalaya (SoluKhumbu District)	Walter (2001)	NS	Higher caste (Chetri, Brahman), Lower caste (Karni, Damai) Kirati (Rai), Middle hills ethnic group (Tamang), Sherpa	NS	Rites which bind various communities into a broad network of shared commonalities and experience
Ethnography	Eastern Middle Hills (outpatient neurology/medicine, tertiary care center)	Bajaj et al. (2013)	100 IDIs	NS	Patients with neurological disorders	Psychosocial relationships to neurological disease
Ethnography	Eastern Middle Hills (Bhutanese refugee camp)	Chase and Sapkota (2017)	NS	Bhutanese	Refugees	Spiritual care of Bhutanese refugee distress
Ethnography	Eastern Middle Hills (village near the Tamba and Mauling Rivers)	Fournier (1976)	NS	Kirati (Sunuwar)	NS	Spirit possession and the sacrificial performances by THs

Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Ethnography	Eastern Middle Hills (Terhathum District)	R. Jones (1976)	NS	Kirati (Limbu)	NS	Roles of psychiatrists, THs, and priests
Ethnography	India (Darjeeling Hills of West Bengal and Sikkim)	Hyam (2019)	NS	Kirati (Limbu, Rai), Middle hills ethnic group (Gurung, Tamang), Newar	Villagers, THs, and Bauls (mystic minstrels)	Music which engenders body-self-integration, sociopolitical subversion, and
Ethnography	psychophysiological healing.					
Ethnography	India (Eastern Kumaon, former kingdom of Askot)	Lecomte-Tilouine (2009a, b)	NS	NS	NS	Rituals which seek help, confront grievances, and bring communal disputes into public space of gods' arbitration
Ethnography	India (Kalimpong Sub-district, Darjeeling, West Bengal)	Macdonald (1976)	NS	NS	Nepali immigrant population	The sociological and psychological roles of <i>dhami-jhankri</i>
Ethnography	Kathmandu Valley (Kathmandu, Bhaktapur, and Patan, and the town of Banepa)	Greene (2002)	110 IDs	Newar (Manandhar)	Some goldsmiths of the Shakya and Vajracharya	Buddhist buffalo horns which reconceptualize the body and actualize beliefs about death and rebirth

Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Ethnography	Kathmandu Valley (northwest of Kathmandu, north of the Salankhu River, between the Trisuli and Ankhu rivers)	Holmberg (1989)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Tamang)	NS	TH's madness and healing rituals
Ethnography	Kathmandu Valley	Parish (1991)	NS	Newar	NS	Sacred and moral concepts of the Newar mind, self, and emotion
Ethnography	Kathmandu Valley (psychiatric outpatient clinic and healer village)	Skultans (1988)	NS	NS	Hospital patients consulting for mental illness and THs	A comparison of patients who are seen by THs versus those seen by medical hospitals
Ethnography	Kathmandu Valley (The Centre for Victims of Torture (CVICT))	Tol et al. (2005)	3 case studies	NS	Patients seen at CVICT	Culturally adapted psychosocial counseling
Ethnography	Mixed (Kathmandu Valley (mountains to the east and west), Central Tarai (recently settled southern areas))	Peters (2004)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Tamang)	TH guru	Phenomenology, mystical experience, and healing rituals of Tamang THs
Ethnography	Mixed (Kathmandu Valley (mountains to the east and west), Central Tarai (recently settled southern areas))	Peters (2007)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Tamang)	TH guru	Phenomenology, mystical experience, and healing rituals of Tamang THs



Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Ethnography	Mixed (Central and Eastern Himalaya (primarily the Dolakha and Sindhupalchowk Districts))	Shneiderman (2015)	NS	Middle Hills Ethnic Group (Thangmi)	NS	Origin myths, rituals, and mental well-being
Ethnography	Western-Himalaya (Mustang District, Muktinath-Valley)	Craig et al. (2010)	44 IDIs	Tibetan	<i>amchi</i> (practitioners of Tibetan medicine), <i>mopa</i> (diviners), <i>ngakpa</i> (tantric specialists)	Conceptions of known illness as a misalignment of local spiritual forces
Ethnography	Western Himalaya (southwestern foothills, Dhaulagiri massif)	Hitchcock (1973)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Bhujel)	NS	Séances which answer bothersome questions, mirror ambiguity, and allow expression of deeply seated sexual anxieties
Ethnography	Western Himalaya (southwestern foothills, Dhaulagiri massif)	Hitchcock (1976)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Bhujel)	NS	TH séances to overcome grief
Ethnography	Western Himalaya (Gyasumdo region, northern village of Tshap)	Mumford (1989)	NS	Middle hills ethnic group (Guring)	NS	Tibetan rituals which ensure happiness and general well-being
Ethnography	Western Himalaya	Winkler (1976)	6 IDIs	4 higher caste (Chhetri, Brahman), 2 lower caste	6 <i>dhami-jhankri</i>	Social contexts of the <i>dhami-jhankri</i>

Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Ethnography	Western Middle Hills (Lamjung District)	van Leeuwen (2008)	26 IDIs, 5 FGDS	Mixed (Newar, middle hills ethnic group (Gurung), higher caste (Chetri), lower caste (Dhalit))	20 THs (ages 45–80 years, 9 trained in psychosocial counseling), 3 local psychosocial workers, 1 head nurse, 2 doctors	The role of THs in psychosocial counseling
Ethnography	Western Middle Hills (Jajarkot and Rukum Districts)	Maskarinec (1995)	NS	NS	NS	Relations among language, action, and social realities
Ethnography	Western Tarai	Reinhard (1976)	NS	NS	Purbia Raji speaking hunter-gatherer communities	Effects of TH personality
Ethnography	Western Tarai (drainage basins of the Karnali and Mahakali rivers)	Gaborieau (1976)	NS	NS	NS	Personalities of THs and gods
Ethnography	Western Tarai (Palpa District)	Harper (2014)	4 IDIs	NS	1 lama, otherwise NS	Idioms of distress and the phenomena of multiple physical complaints
Ethnography	Western Tarai (remote region)	Kohrt and Schreiber (1999)	52 IDIs	Tarai Indigenous Group (Tharu)	Villagers	Neuropsychiatric complaints of <i>jhum-jhum</i>
Grounded theory	Central Tarai (Chitwan District)	Brennan et al. (2014)	83 (33 KIIs and 9 FGDS)	NS	Community members and health facility/organization workers	The relationship between traditional and biomedical sources



Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Grounded theory	Central Tarai (Dhamusha District)	Clarke et al. (2014)	22 IDIs and 12 FGDs	NS	IDIs with distressed mothers and a <i>dhami-jhankri</i> ; FGDs with community members	Treatment of maternal tension by <i>dhami-jhankri</i>
Grounded theory	Kathmandu Valley	Kohrt and Hruschka (2010)	33 free-listing/emotion mapping activity; 32 IDIs	Mixed (Bhutanese, Newar, middle hills ethnic groups (Gurung, Magar), Kirati (Rai))	One male NGO psychosocial counselor	Expression of psychological trauma
Grounded theory	Western Middle Hills (Pyuthan District)	Kisa et al. (2016)	26 KIIs and 9 FGDs	NS	NS	Reducing the mental health accessibility gap
Literature review	Mixed (Central Himalaya (mostly Dolokha District), Central Middle Hills (Kavrepalanchok district), and Central Tarai (Chitwan District))	Sidky (2008)	NS	Mixed (middle hills ethnic groups (Jiral, Gurung, Tamang), higher caste (Chhetri), Kirati (Rai), Sherpa)	NS	Overview of THs
Literature review	NS	Kuruvilla and Jacob (2015)	NS	NS	NS	Referral networks between THs and the primary health care system

Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Literature review	NS	Busick (1978)	NS	NS	NS	Promoting social integration and community solidarity through reinforcement of religious reality
Literature review	NS	Evers et al. (2016)	NS	NS	NS	THs versus the biomedical approach to childhood trauma
Literature Review	NS	Gewali (2008)	NS	NS	NS	Traditional medicine and medicinal plant resources
Literature review	NS	Kohrt and Harper (2008)	NS	NS	NS	Mind-body relations, mental health, and provider preferences
Literature review	NS	Sidky (2010)	NS	NS	NS	THs, human religiosity, and neurotheology
Literature review	NS	Lecomte-Tilouine (2009a, b)	NS	NS	NS	Rituals which may answer distress related to the social order
Mixed methods	Central Himalaya (Thumpakhar and Thulopakhar VDCs, Sindhupalchowk District)	Lohani (2010)	81 surveys; # NS for IDIs, KIIs, and FGD	Middle hills ethnic group (Tamang)	Surveys targeted the head of the household	Tamang-animal relationships

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Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Mixed methods	Central Himalaya (Sangachowk VDC, Sindhupalchowk District)	Sapkota et al. (2014)	38 case-control participants, 7 IDIs, 3 FGDs	Mixed (lower caste (Dalit), higher caste (Giri, Brahman))	Possessed and non-possessed women, school teachers, a NGO worker, family members, and a Hindu priest	Cultural contexts and psychosocial correlates of spirit possession
Mixed methods	Central Middle Hills	Kohrt et al. (2020)	84 IDIs, 4 observational rating scales	Mixed (higher caste (Brahman, Chettri), Newar, lower caste (Badhai, Dalit), indigenous Terai group (Yadab), middle hills ethnic group (Tamang), Sherpa (Lama), Sikh)	Mixed religions (Hindu, Buddhist, Muslim, Satsai), IDIs with patients, THs, observational rating scales on <i>dhami-jhankri</i> , <i>kyotisi</i> (astrologers)	Common and specific factors shared between THs and conventional psychotherapy
Mixed methods	Kathmandu Valley	Kohrt (2014)	142 surveys, 24 case studies, 152 KIs, 25 FGDs	NS	KIIs/FGDs with children and community members; case studies with child soldiers	Rituals used during the reintegration of child soldiers following the Maoist Insurgency
Mixed methods	Western Middle Hills (Jajarkot District, Kadi)	Subba (2007)	# NS for surveys, case studies, IDIs, and FGDs	Higher caste (Thakuri, Chhetri)	Household heads, THs, patients	Kadi recitals, cultural logic, and psychosocial distress

Table 2 continued

Design	Study location/setting	Study	Sample size	Ethnicity/caste	Other sample characteristics	Relevant topics
Mixed methods	Mixed (Western Middle Hills (Syangja District, Mahendranagar municipality), Central Himalaya (Charikot municipality), Eastern Himalaya (Ilam municipality))	Shrestha and Lediard (1980)	99 interviews/surveys	Mixed (higher caste (Brahman, Chhetri, Thakuri), Newar , lower caste (Kami, Sarki), Middle hills ethnic groups (Gurung, Magar, Tamang, Thami), Tarai Indigenous Group (Tharu))	NS	THs as therapeutic leaders of syncretic religious background who connect with spiritual struggle for better life
Opinion	Eastern Himalaya (Arun Valley)	Hyman (2006)	NS	Mixed (Higher caste (Chhetri), Kirati (Rai), Middle Hills Ethnic Group (Gurung), Tibetan)	NS	TH impact on village well-being
Opinion	Kathmandu Valley	Gellner (1994)	NS	NS	NS	Mediums, spirits, psychosocial issues, and blood sacrifices
Opinion	NS	Dickinson (1988)	NS	NS	NS	Special role of THs in treating psychiatric disease
Opinion	NS	Dickinson (1988)	NS	NS	NS	Special role of THs in treating psychiatric disease
Opinion	NS	Hitchcock (1976)	NS	NS	NS	THs in comparison to psychiatrists

NS not specified, IID in-depth interview, KI key informant interview, FGD focus group discussion, VDC village development committee, TH traditional healer



235 without divine possession states; conventionally used in Eastern Nepal) (Hitchcock
 236 1976), *dhami-jhankri* (an unconventional though common amalgam of *dhami* and
 237 *jhankri*), *lama* (a Buddhist term for monk ritual practitioner which also refers to an
 238 informal traditional healer), *mata* (female healer, often referred to a woman who
 239 had become possessed by a spirit that in turn gave her healing powers), *ban jhankri*
 240 (jungle healer), *gyotishi* (astrologers who can heal patients), *mopa* (diviners), *ngags*
 241 *pa* (tantric priests), *baul* (mystic minstrels) (Hyam 2019), *amchi* (Tibetan doctors)
 242 (Craig et al. 2010), *bijuwa* (Rai traditional healer) (Hyam 2019), *bombo* (Tamang or
 243 Yolmo healer), *lambu* (Tamang healer) (Höfer 1997), *phombo* (Jirel traditional
 244 healer) (Sidky et al. 2000), *pande* (Chepang healer) (Riboli 2012), *pumbo* (Sunuwar
 245 healer), *ngiarni* (Sunuwar healer) (Fournier 1976), *poju* (Gurung healer), *hlewri*
 246 (Gurung healer) (Messerschmidt 1976), *gurau* (Tharu traditional healer) (Shrestha
 247 and Lediard 1980), and *yeba* (Limbu traditional healer) (S. Jones 1976). Others
 248 referred to less conventional healers such as a *punjari* (priests who specialize in puja
 249 rituals either at home or the temple, typically Hindu) (Hitchcock and Jones 1976;
 250 Sidky 2008). Curiously, *jajmani* (similar to *pujari*, however, *jajmani* were villagers
 251 like any other who happened to be performing in-home rituals including but not
 252 limited to puja) did not appear in the included literature.

253 Certain healer types, such as *ayurvedic* healers, *bhaidya* (healers in the *ayurveda*
 254 tradition, who typically prepared herbal medications), naturopathic healers (also
 255 similar to *ayurvedic* healers, but with an emphasis on vitalism), *lhapa/lhamo*
 256 (oracles), and *aaya* (ritual specialists who are often concerned with forms of mental
 257 distress and misfortune, as well as with other issues) also did not appear in the
 258 included literature. Although patients likely present to these healer types for
 259 ailments reminiscent of Western psychopathology, our review of the available
 260 literature base did not reveal explicit documentation of a ritualistic interaction with
 261 a psychological outcome in keeping with our inclusion/exclusion criteria.

262 The included literature used non-local (etic) terms such as “traditional healer,”
 263 though less commonly than their emic counterparts. Other etic terms included “faith
 264 healer,” “traditional faith healer,” “traditional medical practitioner,” “shaman,”
 265 and “medium.” The broad etic language had at times proven confusing as, for
 266 example, faith healers could also distinguish themselves from traditional healers
 267 through their emphasis on prayer or other faith-based practices.

268 In spite of the aforementioned clear boundaries across individual healer types and
 269 for the purposes of narrative simplicity within the broader context of patient–healer
 270 interventions, we will refer to all traditional healer types, whether faith healers,
 271 shamans, *dhami-jhankri*, etc., as “traditional healers” unless contextually necessary.
 272 We also refer to all those receiving the traditional healer’s intervention as
 273 “patients” whether they be clients, villagers, community members, etc. while
 274 recognizing the biomedical connotations inherent within this term.

275 Diagnosis

276 Our review revealed many kinds of traditional healer diagnostic approaches often in
 277 the setting of but not specifically for mental health complaints. Diagnostic
 278 approaches included pulse checks, social interpretation, and magico-religious

279 divination, recitals, and offerings. Interestingly, many traditional healers used
 280 techniques interchangeably, and patients demonstrated little interest in the
 281 traditional healer's actual diagnosis (Skultans 1988). Some diagnostic approaches
 282 blurred the line between diagnosis and treatment, as was the case with more
 283 elaborate performances and the involvement of social support (Maskarinec 1995;
 284 Sidky 2010; Sagant 1976; Brenman et al. 2014; Skultans 1988).

285 Traditional healers could divine the cause of illness by taking the patient's pulse,
 286 although with a less consistent approach when compared to the biomedical model
 287 (van Leeuwen 2008). If no pulse was in the right wrist, then no major deities could
 288 be said to be the cause. If there was no pulse in the left wrist, then an evil spirit or
 289 witch was thought to be at work. If there was a pulse on both wrists, then the cause
 290 was deemed natural (Maskarinec 1995; Soubrouillard 1995).

291 Traditional healers could diagnose between magico-religious and physical causes
 292 of illness using specific acts of divination. One common technique was known as
 293 *jokana*, of which there were several similar varieties. During the process of *jokana*
 294 the traditional healer would take a few pieces of rice from a small pile on a plate,
 295 name a general magico-religious category of illness, and then determine the stated
 296 category's presence based on the pattern of rice as the traditional healer separated
 297 them. In theory, the traditional healer would perform this lengthy process each time.
 298 In reality, the traditional healer shortcutted this time consuming process and
 299 performed what the traditional healer found intuitively true (Reinhard 1976).

300 Traditional healers could diagnose through elaborate performances. During these
 301 performances, traditional healers could offer animals, food, or other items to the
 302 gods or ancestors to receive an answer about the patient's illness (Sagant 1976;
 303 Brenman et al. 2014). Other times, traditional healers could perform recitals adopted
 304 from traditional healer texts and/or other technical maps with fixed cosmologies
 305 about Nepali self-hood and culture (Soubrouillard 1995). For example, traditional
 306 healers could recite historical tales about local spirits before exhorting them to leave
 307 the afflicted humans alone and to return to the wilderness where they belonged.
 308 While these narrative recitals aimed to identify a singular spirit, sometimes singling
 309 out just one was not possible, and in these cases, the traditional healer would have to
 310 appease each offending spirit (Maskarinec 1995; Sidky 2008).

311 Some urban traditional healers involved the patient's friends and family for
 312 diagnostic interpretation. As a result, those involved made the diagnostic and
 313 curative events clearer through personal elaboration of the traditional healer's
 314 original findings (Maskarinec 1995; Skultans 1988). In rural settings, where close
 315 ones can form a constant backdrop to the patient's life, no particular emphasis was
 316 placed on outsider attendance.

317 Treatment

318 Our review revealed a wide range of traditional healer treatment styles including
 319 traditional healer and/or patient altered states of consciousness, spoken rituals, and
 320 non-spoken rituals. Some treatments overlapped with diagnostic approaches. While
 321 traditional healers applied their treatments broadly across different disease states,
 322 many specifically reserved altered states of consciousness and non-spoken rituals



323 specifically for considerable mental distress (Hitchcock and Jones 1976; Regmi
324 1987; Skultans 1988; Desjarlais 1992; Soubrouillard 1995; Hardman 1996; Peters
325 2007; Subba 2007; Sidky 2010).

326 Relevant to the traditional healer's ability to treat mental distress, traditional
327 healers have been the center of debate with regard to their own possible
328 psychopathology (Paul 1976). Traditional healers generally would undergo an
329 initiation process during which they therapeutically transformed from possible
330 psychosis to a more organized and integrated social identity. Afterwards, they
331 would willfully enter in and out of controlled altered states of consciousness,
332 sometimes referred to as an ecstatic state, distinguish between ordinary and non-
333 ordinary realities, and deliberately engage in meaningful conversation about the
334 cosmology of society (Sidky 2008).

335 For patients, each individual would first deeply concentrate through drugs, sweat
336 lodges, vision quests, breathing exercises, percussion instruments, or complex
337 meditation and imagery exercises. Ego boundaries would then dissolve leading to
338 the psychological and sometimes terrifying annihilation of the self. Eventually, the
339 patient would develop a collaborative relationship between their revealed uncon-
340 scious and conscious selves (van Leeuwen 2008; Peters 2004).

341 Traditional healers, both well- or ill-intentioned, delivered *mantra* (spoken
342 prayer, hymns, or chanting) or *tantra* (bodies of text or schools of thought or
343 sometimes a meaningless term spoken with *mantra*) to either heal clients or harm
344 others (Soubrouillard 1995). For example, *mantra* and *tantra* could raise the *saya*
345 (soul) in people whose *saya* has fallen, correct the ancestor-person relationship,
346 treat ambiguous and confusing physical and psychosocial distress, or help a family
347 overcome grief over a child's unexpected death (Hardman 2004; Subba 2007).
348 However, *mantra* and *tantra* faced certain limitations. For example, while
349 traditional healers insisted that they could control all major spirits using *mantra*
350 and *tantra*, they could not control spirits that caused madness (Sidky 2008).

351 Traditional healers could use materials and visualizations that accompanied their
352 *mantra* to guide and organize the body. For instance, the traditional healer could
353 bring up a *mantra* and illustration specifically to tackle madness or to do away with
354 minor malevolent spirits caused by their close physical proximity. Other techniques
355 included offering patients protective amulets to reduce the fear surrounding illness
356 (van Leeuwen 2008), performing *phukne* (blowing an evil spirit away), playing the
357 *dhangro* (drum), and adorning and/or employing traditional items such as a
358 *rudraksha mala* (garland), *ghanti bhayako mala* (other type of garland), *dumsi*
359 *kanda* (a special cap with a porcupine quill), and *mayurko pwankh* (peacock feather)
360 (Jimba et al. 2005).

361 Traditional healers could perform elaborate sacrificial ceremonies in the name of
362 a greater cosmological force to not only diagnose but to treat illness. Traditional
363 healers, during multiple accounts, helped patients to overcome suffering, enhance
364 cultural human-animal relationships, prevent the occurrence of future traumatic
365 events, treat feelings of a sinful past life, disharmony, or *bhootvidya* (psychiatric
366 conditions caused by gods, goddesses, demons, witches, and astrology), and feel
367 assured of their child's safe return to or welcome from the Maoist Insurgency, a
368 civil war which raged from 1996 to 2006 through the countryside with death

369 sentences, murders, purges, abductions, and other war crimes against humanity (R.
370 L. Jones 1976; Fournier 1976; Sidky et al. 2000; Peters 2007; Gewali 2008; Lohani
371 2010; Kohrt 2014).

372 Traditional healers and patients considered beatings particularly effective against
373 illnesses of unknown etiology given the presumption that such ailments and their
374 associated beatings both affected the whole individual (Winkler 1976; Gewali
375 2008). Discouragingly, violence, high drama, and a focus on the visceral reactions
376 of bulging eyes, popping veins, and emesis at times resulted in considerable bodily
377 harm. Some *dhami-jhankri* went as far as threatening, suffocating (e.g., with water),
378 beating, or applying a red-hot iron to patients (Jimba et al. 2005; van Leeuwen
379 2008; Alter 2014). Worse still, healer rituals, while viewed as a culturally
380 appropriate form of divine justice among humans, could instead reinforce
381 oppressive power structures and human injustices against disenfranchised popula-
382 tions such as women rather than alleviating distress or innovating social order
383 (Lecomte-Tilouine 2009b).

384 **Theoretical Mechanisms of Healing**

385 Our review revealed several theoretical mechanisms which sought to explain why
386 patients perceive positive benefit from traditional healers. We categorized these
387 mechanisms as traditional healing through crafting a symbolic spiritual narrative,
388 providing personal comfort, mobilizing social support, inducing an altered state of
389 consciousness, or facilitating spontaneous recovery.

390 The traditional healer in essence embraces the human need to connect with a
391 symbolic life and spiritual explanation for misfortune. The traditional healer crafts
392 the symbolic life within a culturally relevant narrative for the self and names and
393 makes known visible unknown agents of affliction. In contrast to conventional
394 psychotherapy, the traditional healer alters and manipulates the patient's innately
395 lived human experience, subjective socio-cultural environment, and perceptual logic
396 using myths and magico-religious symbols. Compared to biomedical explanatory
397 paradigms, whose causal hypotheses can prove considerably abstract and counter-
398 intuitive, the metaphors from traditional healers, long since embedded within
399 Nepal's cultural and socio-political psyche, are more popular, acceptable, and
400 culturally logical. This allows for a form of therapy which is less explicit, more
401 comprehensible, and emotionally palatable (Soubrouillard 1995; Craig et al. 2010;
402 Alter 2014).

403 Traditional healers can even vary the prominence and dramatic effect of their
404 spiritual metaphors through the degree to which they act out magicio-religious
405 strength. For instance, traditional healers can perform visceral rituals while paying
406 tedious attention to their procedure and craftsmanship of ritual and alter
407 paraphernalia (Nicoletti 2006). By demonstrating their healing powers through
408 psychodrama, traditional healers separate themselves from priests, who focus on the
409 life cycle, planting, harvesting, and temple worship, and doctors, who practice
410 professionalism (S. K. Jones 1976).



411 Once the traditional healer activates locally relevant magico-religious symbols,
 412 they then remedy the mind by phenomenologically reorienting a patient's
 413 experiential reality to permit the free expression of mental illness without the
 414 reductionist vocabulary constraints of western psychiatry (Alter 2014; Brenman
 415 et al. 2014). This phenomenological reorientation, sometimes dubbed as the heart-
 416 mind solution, can occur in the following sequence: 1) illness narrative (2)
 417 physiological experience, and then (3) communication (Kohrt and Harper 2008).
 418 Here, the patient will present to traditional healers not for mental health treatment
 419 but for issues with ghosts, spirits, gods, or witches, after which the traditional healer,
 420 as both a spiritual and community leader, establishes a consensus to hand
 421 responsibility of sickness and misfortune to higher magico-religious beings (van
 422 Leeuwen 2008).

423 Whether granting good luck or facilitating the free expression of anger,
 424 traditional healers can craft rationalizations for patients when they are confounded
 425 by issues related to illness, identity, and actions, the seemingly impossible, Nepal's
 426 storm afflicted, harsh environment, and so forth (Hitchcock and Jones 1976;
 427 Messerschmidt 1976; Reinhard 1976; Regmi 1987; Skultans 1988; Desjarlais 1992;
 428 Maskarinec 1995; Subba 2007; Kohrt and Harper 2008; van Leeuwen 2008). For
 429 mundane quarrels between individuals or groups, traditional healers can attempt to
 430 depersonalize the conflict and impersonally blame it on spirits as much as possible
 431 (Michl 1976). In another example, the patient may suffer from a seemingly
 432 unremitting illness. For their family, traditional healers can make an offering to the
 433 gods in order to help them feel some psychological benefit from knowing they have
 434 done everything they can. Among the worst scenarios, traditional healers can help
 435 the family cope with an unnatural death (Hitchcock and Jones 1976).

436 Regardless of the exact ritual, the traditional healer reenacts a broader cosmology
 437 so that the patient interfaces with a spiritual and aesthetic creation of the self to
 438 create, sustain, and transmit a system of meanings for inexplicable physical, mental,
 439 and social suffering. This interface within a separate metaphorical reality is more
 440 locally understood, intimate, malleable, and psychologically penetrating than what
 441 conventional spoken word or illness narratives have to offer (Peters 2007; Craig
 442 et al. 2010; Sidky 2010). It permits the individual to admit powerlessness to an
 443 external locus of control, remove agency from the self, engage in intersubjective
 444 dynamics (Desjarlais 1992), bypass local notions of stigma (Messerschmidt 1976;
 445 Kohrt and Harper 2008), and perhaps even activate fundamental brain (neurognos-
 446 tic) structures responsible for therapeutic behavioral and cognitive healing (Sidky
 447 2008). Through symbolic narration, the individual eventually depersonalizes,
 448 defuses, reinterprets, and unburdens unfortunate, baffling, and frightening events
 449 while reintegrating their mental distress within a particularization of a more
 450 meaningful mythic world (Desjarlais 1992; Sidky 2010). This creates a satisfying
 451 explanation that is internally consistent with traditional Nepali beliefs and meets the
 452 underlying security and existential needs within the patient, curer, and community
 453 (Hitchcock and Jones 1976; Reinhard 1976; Craig et al. 2010).

454 On a simpler level, the traditional healer can act as a therapeutic ally when
 455 providing personal support, empathy, and higher expectations of treatment
 456 (Hitchcock and Jones 1976). This invokes a placebo-like response that can aid

457 depression, anxiety, insomnia, and sometimes even schizophrenia (Nicoletti 2006;
 458 Sidky 2010). Traditional healers are particularly adept at eliciting empathy because
 459 often they are community neighbors who can naturally establish personal
 460 relationships and familiarize themselves with longstanding family history (Sidky
 461 2008). The traditional healer's familiar role in Nepali society allows them to
 462 embody psychological attributes, expand their capacity for empathy, and express
 463 more sensitivity to their patient's needs (Hitchcock and Jones 1976). When
 464 compared to medical providers, traditional healers appear more familiar, less
 465 frightening, and less intrusive (Maskarinec 1995).

466 The traditional healer's familiarity is further fueled by their historical role as
 467 doctor or priest in remote Nepali communities during which medical and religious
 468 specialties were not differentiated (S. K. Jones 1976). However, unlike conventional
 469 priests or doctors who acquire roles through social inheritance, succession, or
 470 biomedical training, traditional healers acquire supernatural strength through
 471 spiritual inheritance, possession, divine intervention, and magician-religious
 472 training whether alone or under a guru. For instance, *jhankri* (traditional healers
 473 from Eastern Nepal) carry a certain power and status regardless of their being
 474 possessed by a divine entities. *Dhami* (western traditional healers) are primarily
 475 mediums who have no power in themselves, making *dhami* simple people like any
 476 other. To heal, a deity possesses and performs the act through the *dhami* (Hitchcock
 477 1976). With this perceived power, traditional healers, whether *dhami*, *jhankri*, or
 478 otherwise, possess the capacity to insert their treatments into the patient's private
 479 and public selves because they too had to undergo a public and private initiatory
 480 transformation (Hitchcock 1976; Maskarinec 1995).

481 The traditional healer's ability to raise expectations stems from how they are
 482 viewed by Nepali society. When strictly viewed within the scientific plane,
 483 researchers may overlook the traditional healer's culturally perceived role as the
 484 guardian of an individual's psychic equilibrium and the active mediator between the
 485 human and spiritual realms (Nicoletti 2006; Sidky 2008). In fact, the traditional
 486 healer, through their spiritual role, can create religious explanatory frameworks to
 487 treat an individual's psychological and sociological existential crises (Macdonald
 488 1976; Craig et al. 2010), and it is within this psychosociological foundation that the
 489 traditional healer manipulates unconscious symbols of the body and self as a kind of
 490 culturally relevant psychotherapy.

491 In tandem with the traditional healer's spiritual and psychological benefit, the
 492 traditional healer may mobilize social support directly or indirectly. For instance,
 493 with the reintegration of child soldiers from the Maoist insurgency certain
 494 traditional healer rituals directly facilitate a patient's restoration back to an original
 495 role or transformation to a new one during a liminal state, or a state between two
 496 social roles. Unfortunately, these social rituals may also lead to the loss of
 497 opportunities during the possible transition to a more submissive role, for instance
 498 when girl soldiers must return to a patriarchal society (Kohrt 2014).

499 The traditional healer can indirectly mobilize social support as the family rallies
 500 together behind a patient whose magico-religious explanation for illness exonerates
 501 them from more stigmatizing mental illness. Social support and magico-religious
 502 involvement may even allow for material rewards, relief from unpleasant work



503 responsibilities, reduced conflict from the authority over them, and upward mobility
 504 in status (S. K. Jones 1976; Skultans 1988). Social support helps to bind the patient
 505 and their family more closely together and provide attention, a sense of inclusion,
 506 and a feeling of comfort. Magico-religious illness states and traditional healer rituals
 507 can also offer a safe space in which the patient can express their pain, personal and
 508 social conflict, distress, anger, social problems, and sometimes actual mental illness
 509 without directly attacking their oppressors. In this way, traditional healers help
 510 patients grasp a profoundly complex life situation by expressing aspects of
 511 themselves previously unexpressed (Peters 2004; van Leeuwen 2008; Sapkota et al.
 512 2014). Hence, traditional healers are thought to be particularly effective for
 513 psychosomatic illnesses and disenfranchised populations such as marginalized or
 514 unmarried women with a lower position in society and very little chance of
 515 advancing their status (Peters 2007; Sidky 2008; Hyam 2019).

516 Because the patient may perceive physical relief during the process of the
 517 traditional healer's treatment, they may in turn develop more capacity to tackle
 518 other underlying sociological issues. This explanation flows with the Nepali belief
 519 that mental distress is an everyday occurrence which must be dealt with individually
 520 (Chase and Sapkota 2017) and may explain why patients tend to attribute mental
 521 relief following a traditional healer's intervention to an incidental benefit following
 522 physical relief (Alter 2014).

523 The traditional healer may also induce a patient altered state of consciousness
 524 through the healer's own learned dissociative experiences. Recent interpretation has
 525 viewed altered states of consciousness less as abnormal but more as an alteration of
 526 normal human consciousness through special psychophysiological states (Sidky
 527 2008). Other interpretations view altered states of consciousness as a Jungian
 528 transcendent function in which mystical experiences turn existential crisis into a
 529 transformational growth experience. In this shared state, the traditional healer can
 530 provide a sense of understanding as well as an institutionalized framework for
 531 proper expression of patient mental processes which have been compartmentalized
 532 and integrated into phenomena such as spirit possession (Sidky 2008).

533 However, critics have expressed skepticism about the degree to which the
 534 traditional healer's intervention registers on a conscious level. Any speech during
 535 performances tends to be beyond the literal comprehension of both the traditional
 536 healer and patient (Maskarinec 1995). Many patients or traditional healers are
 537 unable to decipher the traditional healer's rhetoric which often is in a specialized
 538 and ambiguous vocabulary that is too idiosyncratic, non-indigenous, and special-
 539 ized, or archaic. Furthermore, patients can face difficulty when parsing the
 540 traditional healer's rhetoric given the acoustics and noise levels of the room
 541 (Winkler 1976; Brown 1988). The traditional healer's performance may also be of
 542 questionable psychotherapeutic benefit in the setting of infants, the demented, the
 543 very sick, and animals (e.g., cows or yaks) (Paul 1976).

544 On the whole, much of the reviewed literature primarily suggested that traditional
 545 healers most effectively treat mental well-being in the case of less severe pathology.
 546 In this light, others have theorized that patients perceive positive benefit from their
 547 treatment because of the patient's underlying cyclically resolving disease state.
 548 Conversely, severe, intractable, and less cyclical illnesses such as schizophrenia and

549 obsessive–compulsive disorder have a harder time being treated through expecta-
 550 tion, belief, and meaning-making. In other words, it would be expected for there to
 551 be gradual improvement regardless of the diagnosis or treatment (Sidky 2008). Put
 552 together, given the subjective nature of symptom resolution, outcomes should be
 553 open to interpretation (Kohrt and Schreiber 1999).

554 Discussion

555 Our scoping review yielded 86 studies on the relationship between the interventions
 556 of Nepali traditional healers and mental well-being, 65 of which were qualitative in
 557 study design. The reviewed literature covered a wide range of diagnostic and
 558 treatment strategies including divination, pulse checks, recitals, offerings, spoken
 559 and non-spoken rituals, and altered states of consciousness. The traditional healer's
 560 interventional approach may not deeply depend on the exact technique. Rather,
 561 patients focus on whether the outcome relates to magico-religious and locally
 562 relevant symbols such as spirits, gods, spells, astrology, and karma. Traditional
 563 healers can craft these magico-religious constructs into digestible illness narratives,
 564 offer empathy, raise expectations, and mobilize the patient's family and community
 565 to provide personal and social support, induce altered states of consciousness to
 566 facilitate catharsis, and/or shepherd the patient through an unpleasant time until
 567 spontaneous recovery from cyclical disease processes.

568 While the literature suggests that Nepali traditional healers share elements with
 569 Western psychotherapy, that is not to say that they are psychotherapists. In addition
 570 to or in place of conventional psychotherapy, traditional healers act like flexible
 571 social actors and leaders who transform into magico-religious leaders that narrate
 572 and act out meaningful, affective, and therapeutic mythological stories within the
 573 context of local cosmological beliefs. The traditional healer as social actor and
 574 leader can even involve the patient's family and community to collaborate with the
 575 patient, elaborate upon the traditional healer's diagnosis, and restore family
 576 structure, community identity, and social cohesion.

577 The traditional healer fuels the patient's superstition about why things happen or
 578 did not happen through an intuitive misunderstanding of cause-and-effect relation-
 579 ships. The treatment process relates back to the patient's issues and ailments and
 580 gives the impression that traditional healers can influence otherwise unpre-
 581 dictable and significant events without relying on the seemingly unnatural
 582 constructs of psychological insight and standard psychotherapeutic verbalization
 583 (Singh 2018). In the face of misfortune and confusion, patients generate meaning,
 584 restructure their cognition, and freely express themselves.

585 Overall, the traditional healer's unconventional approach to healing the mind,
 586 body, and spirit raises the question of whether biomedicine will ever fully unravel
 587 the mechanisms of traditional healing. Nonetheless, the contrasting nature between
 588 traditional healers and conventional psychotherapy, specifically the spiritual
 589 dimension in which the former operates but the latter does not, can at least
 590 partially explain why remote patients prefer traditional healers over medical



591 providers, even when doing so paradoxically can come at a greater financial cost
592 (Regmi 1987).

593 Thus far, the Nepali-based discussion on non-spoken rituals, altered states of
594 consciousness, and several mechanistic theories of traditional healing bears striking
595 resemblance to the broader cross-cultural work from which we based our scoping
596 review (Winkelman 2004, 2010; Nortje et al. 2016; van der Watt et al. 2018).
597 Namely, Nepali traditional healers share with non-Nepali traditional healers the
598 general techniques of hypnotic drumming, dissociative states, and physical exertion
599 in the setting of, but not expressly for, mental distress. Furthermore, scholars have
600 theorized mechanisms of healing within Nepal also described in other traditional
601 healing cultures. These include meaning-making, enhanced community cohesion,
602 and spontaneous recovery because of the natural course of chronic remitting
603 illnesses like bipolar disorder or pain.

604 **Current Findings and Potential Gaps in Knowledge**

605 We devised an overall pathways to care model to better visualize the connections
606 among our synthesized findings and to highlight themes about the relationship
607 between traditional healers and mental well-being that may be present but are
608 scarcely covered by the current literature (Fig. 2). Our model is adapted from prior
609 work by Pham et al. (2020) who themselves adopted a mechanisms of action
610 approach to breaking down a specific psychosocial intervention into its specific and
611 non-specific ingredients/processes (Alavi and Sanderson 2015).

612 For our model, we fit our results within the broader cultural literature on culture
613 and mental well-being in Nepal and highlighted relative gaps in knowledge (Chase
614 and Sapkota 2017; Nortje et al. 2016; van der Watt et al. 2018). We also offer a
615 written description of our model below. However, we must again emphasize the
616 overall heterogeneity within Nepal's cultural makeup. Therefore, while our
617 pathways to care model captures a broad snapshot of the academic community's
618 current knowledge state, it does so by sacrificing the nuanced values inherent within
619 each of Nepal's cultural systems.

620 *Access to Care*

621 The origins of Nepali mental distress may fall under biological, psychological,
622 sociological, and/or spiritual categories. Given the cultural dimensions of mental
623 health stigma, medical illiteracy, and sociological oppression, patients may self-
624 interpret their underlying psychological and sociological distress into a culturally
625 appropriate care-seeking behavior. For instance, patients may interpret their mental
626 distress as a less stigmatized biological or magico-religious complaint. Patients will
627 then present either to the biomedical treatment realm (e.g., doctors), the magico-
628 religious treatment realm (e.g., traditional healers), or both depending on the context
629 of their environment and illness. *Few studies have investigated the specific social
630 and economic barriers which influence the self-interpretation from a primary
631 psychological or social issue to a medical or spiritual one. Of interest may be the*

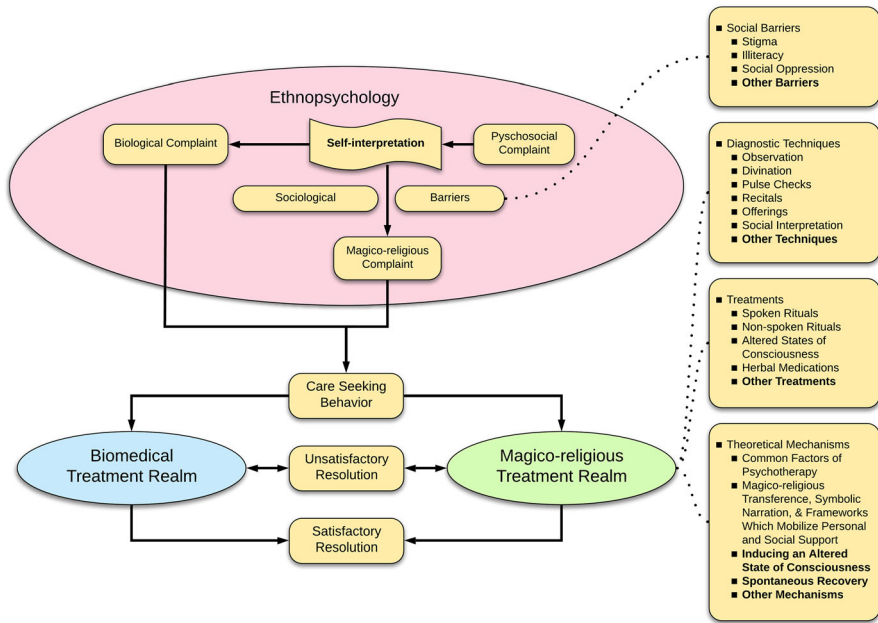


Fig. 2 A pathway to care model highlighting current findings and gaps in knowledge

632 *precise process of self-interpretation from stigmatized to less stigmatized com-*
 633 *plaints and other magico-religious complaints not yet biomedically studied.*

634 *Interventions*

635 Magico-religious diagnostic techniques include divination, pulse checks, recitals,
 636 offerings, and social interpretation. Common treatments include non-spoken rituals,
 637 spoken rituals, and altered states of consciousness. *Relationships may exist between*
 638 *a patient's specific care seeking behavior and the traditional healer's chosen*
 639 *intervention. Furthermore, relative to Nepal's deep cultural diversity, the scarce*
 640 *available research hints at other diagnostic techniques and treatments not yet*
 641 *biomedically studied.*

642 *Theoretical Mechanisms of Healing*

643 Traditional healers elicit subjective improvement spiritually through symbolic
 644 narration, psychologically through personal support, and socially through mobiliz-
 645 ing family and community. They can also induce an altered state of consciousness
 646 or more simply facilitate spontaneous recovery. *Relationships may exist between a*
 647 *traditional healer's specific intervention and the patient's mechanism of healing.*
 648 *Insufficient research has formally investigated the mechanisms of magico-religious*
 649 *healing, especially with the help of locally validated interview structures, objective*
 650 *rating scales, neuroimaging approaches, and/or other psychophysiological*

651 *measurements of bodily states, thus hinting at other phenomenological processes*
 652 *not yet biomedically studied.*

653 *Resolution of Suffering*

654 A patient may perceive a satisfactory resolution of suffering after their first visit to
 655 either the medical provider or the traditional healer. On the other hand, a patient
 656 may perceive an unsatisfactory resolution if they receive an intervention that lacks
 657 the biomedical or magico-religious background which they inherently desire. *Scarce*
 658 *research has investigated the outcomes of magico-religious healing, thus hinting at*
 659 *relationships between a patient's specific mechanism of healing and their*
 660 *satisfaction level.*

661 Given the number of exceptions which exist for a culturally diverse country such
 662 as Nepal, researchers should avoid making pan generalizations about cultural tenets
 663 and by extension magico-religious ideologies from our paper (Tol et al. 2005;
 664 Cassaniti and Luhrmann 2014). Such over simplifications may inadvertently exotify
 665 folk theories of illness from the possible underlying psychological and physical
 666 processes. Furthermore, personal testimonials regarding traditional healers and
 667 mental health cannot be taken literally, and many published anthropologists have
 668 viewed their own findings with some level of skepticism (Kohrt and Schreiber 1999;
 669 Krippner and Combs 2002; Castillo 2004; Sidky 2010).

670 **Limitations**

671 Given the diverse Nepali population, the available literature did not cover every
 672 region nor every culture, particularly those less accessible to prior researchers. For
 673 instance, healers from the northern mountainous margins of Nepal went underrep-
 674 resented likely because of our search strategy and/or inclusion/exclusion criteria.
 675 The unequal geographic distribution of our included studies may also reflect how
 676 the late 1990s to early 2000s Maoist Insurgency limited where researchers could
 677 safely travel, especially in certain rural areas. By focusing on the therapeutic aspects
 678 of patient–healer interactions and their associated psychological outcomes, we also
 679 neglected more formalized practitioners whose work may confer ritualistic healing
 680 on a more subtle level. The reviewed literature relied heavily on western diagnostics
 681 which poorly distinguish subtly dissimilar states such as dissociative trance and
 682 primary thought disorders. The reviewed literature also infrequently focused on the
 683 negative aspects of spiritual healing, possibly due to publication bias, retrospective
 684 bias, participant bias to please the researchers, or observer bias—all biases inherent
 685 from a predominantly ethnographic research base.

686 The available literature used inconsistent terminology, especially in regard to
 687 traditional healers and mental health, most likely to avoid relying on psychiatric
 688 terminology which would have missed out on nuanced Nepali phenomenological
 689 states. As a result, our systematic search had limited utility even when broadened to
 690 a scoping review, and we undoubtedly did not exhaust the full scope of the relevant
 691 literature. Furthermore, we relied on papers written primarily by Western authors

692 making the scoping review itself susceptible to western bias. This is made
693 additionally problematic in light of the Nepali preference to report physical
694 complaints over mental which consequently blurs the line among physical illness,
695 somatic complaints, and “true” psychiatric disease.

696 **Future Research Recommendations**

697 Further literature review could expand this scoping review and that of Chase et al.’s
698 (2018) into the realm of more formalized traditional practitioners such as
699 Ayurvedic, Tibetan, and/or Chinese medicine practitioners whose alternative
700 techniques and interactions may confer psychological benefit with or without the
701 ritualistic interactions emphasized in this review. As this scoping review focused on
702 diagnostic approaches, treatments, and theoretical mechanisms of healing, and
703 Chase et al. (2018) on culture, other reviews could focus on different aspects of
704 patient–healer pathways to care including epidemiological and economic patient–
705 healer data, traditional healer demographics, perceptions of traditional healers,
706 barriers to care, chief complaints, “idioms of distress,” duration and frequency of
707 traditional healer encounters, etc. Additional review of the Nepali written literature
708 would reveal insights previously hidden from English-locked reviews such as ours.

709 Research teams who work across the boundaries of culture, medicine, and
710 psychiatry should, as Höfer (1992) once suggested, frame the broader therapeutic
711 strategies of ritual and its continued gaps in knowledge through systematic,
712 empirically sound, though still culturally adapted, methods including locally
713 validated psychological tests, medical examinations and the like (Höfer 1992). To
714 date, there are few studies which have taken a systematic, objective approach to
715 examining the relationship between traditional healers and mental health in Nepal,
716 e.g., interventional clinical studies, double blinding of traditional and biomedical
717 treatment, control arms to adjust for confounding factors.

718 Consider the traditional healers from Kalabo, Zambia who have suggested
719 additional utility from traditional healer services in hospital settings, an option not
720 unlike the priest–physician relationship within US hospitals (Stekelenburg et al.
721 2005). If future research reveals similar desires among Nepali healer-goers then one
722 research design could evaluate the efficacy of in-hospital traditional healer
723 consultations. Alternatively, one could apply this approach within the outpatient
724 setting with medical providers instead permitting or not permitting the patient to
725 enlist outside, parallel traditional healer treatment. Established researchers could
726 utilize implementation science research methods, e.g., the Consolidated Framework
727 for Implementation Research, to study how collaboration succeeds or fails based on
728 programmatic, contextual, provider, and client-level factors.

729 For epidemiological and economic data surrounding traditional healer utilization,
730 the research team could draft, pilot, and deliver a structured survey instrument based
731 upon prior studies. Because traditional healers may treat mental distress secondary
732 to patient reported physical or supernatural injury, researchers ought to caution
733 themselves against surveys which exclusively measure mental illness using
734 conventional psychological terminology.



735 One area of interest has been the objective measurement of symptom resolution
 736 through neuroimaging and other psychophysiological measurements of bodily states
 737 (Seligman 2018). Prior cross-cultural work by Winkelman (2004, 2010) proposed a
 738 neurotheological explanation in which healer induced feelings of self-confidence,
 739 authority, belief and expectation intensify connections between the limbic system
 740 and lower brain structures. Here, increased activation discharges synchronous slow
 741 (theta) waves into the frontal brain supposedly creating an integrative mode of
 742 consciousness. His theories elegantly connect the general human psychophysiological
 743 tendency to the emotional, cognitive, and psychoneuroimmunological responses
 744 (Winkelman 2004, 2010). However, recent neuroimaging, brain biology, and
 745 chemistry studies have criticized his theories for lacking empirical justification and
 746 compatibility with modern findings (Sidky 2008).

747 Other innovative and scientifically sound neuroimaging studies on consciousness,
 748 while faintly related to traditional healer and patient altered states of consciousness,
 749 may also inform future neurobiological work on healers and mental-well-being in
 750 Nepal (Lutz et al. 2007, 2008a, b; Marcia 2003; Perlman et al. 2010; Acunzo et al.
 751 2013; Seppälä et al. 2014; Dahl et al. 2015). Richard Davidson has arguably
 752 pioneered this field by applying functional magnetic resonance imaging to
 753 extensively study the mechanisms of brain function and new therapeutic approaches
 754 for psychology. For instance, his findings have demonstrated how mental training
 755 and meditation can increase the strength of activation in the left prefrontal cortex,
 756 which houses positive emotions, while dampening the right prefrontal cortex, which
 757 houses negative emotions. His other studies have found similar neurocorrelates
 758 between mental training and mediation and the insula, amygdala, right temporo-
 759 parietal junction, right posterior superior temporal sulcus, limbic circuitry, and
 760 immune system (Davidson and Goleman 1977; Davidson et al. 2003; Davidson and
 761 Lutz 2008).

762 However, such “gold standard” measures, though critical in their own right, may,
 763 alone, fail to enlist participants who live far away from clinical settings or worse,
 764 test the ethnical limits of consent and blinded treatment among vulnerable patient
 765 populations. Furthermore, though traditional healers are finding themselves
 766 interacting more and more with biomedical professionals, research data from
 767 idealistic, controlled clinical settings provide limited utility for the rural and
 768 migratory residents who traditional healers primarily tend to. Instead, the
 769 Community-Based Participatory Research model would better capture the rural
 770 pathways to care which extend across formal and informal health system actors
 771 (Wilson et al. 2018).

772 As an example, researchers could explore the intertwined lives of traditional
 773 healers and medical providers as they treat shared patients in search of a holistic
 774 sense of relief. As the patient traverses their personalized care network, researchers
 775 could cross-culturally compare seemingly disparate explanatory models, diagnoses,
 776 and treatments. And rather than focusing entirely on biomedical definitions of
 777 symptoms, interventions, and outcomes, researchers could follow local conceptions
 778 of self, e.g., *man* (heart-mind), *dimaag* (brain), distress, e.g., fallen *saya* (soul), and
 779 traditional healers, e.g., *amchi*, as defined and volunteered by the patients,
 780 traditional healers, and perhaps even medical providers themselves. Local

Table 3 Ideas for future research

Domain	Potential gaps
Study design	<p>Systematic/scoping review of epidemiological and economic patient–healer data, formalized traditional healers, healer-related pathways to care, healer-related psychological outcomes, and Nepali written literature</p> <p>Community Field-based Research (CFBR)</p> <p>Technological avenues for research communication across parallel study groups</p> <p>Interventional clinical trials research</p> <p>Consolidated Framework for Implementation Research (CFIR)</p>
Structured instruments	<p>Medical examinations and psychometrics</p> <p>Standardized qualitative research tools to elicit illness narratives</p> <p>Objective rating scales to measure traditional healer interventions and magico-religious and psychiatric phenomena</p> <p>Neurodiagnostic approaches to measure biological underpinnings</p>
Access to care	<p>Specific contexts which influence access to care</p> <p>Social and economic barriers</p> <p>Common patterns of self-interpretation</p> <p>Idioms of distress not yet biomedically studied</p> <p>Solutions to overcoming barriers</p> <p>Solutions to better match care seeking behavior to the appropriate intervention</p>
Interventions	<p>Interventions not yet biomedically studied</p> <p>Relationships which link specific patient care-seeking behaviors to traditional healer interventions</p>
Theoretical mechanisms of healing	<p>Mechanisms of healing not yet biomedically theorized</p> <p>Relationships which link specific traditional healer interventions to the patient’s mechanism of healing</p> <p>Other common factors in psychotherapy underlying magico-religious healing besides empathy and raised expectations</p> <p>The comparison between traditional healers and other evidence-based providers with respect to common factors in psychotherapy</p> <p>Solutions for evidence-based providers to better interface with the factors of psychotherapy specific to traditional healers</p>
Outcomes	<p>Outcomes of magico-religious healing</p> <p>How patients seek treatment if they encounter an unsatisfactory resolution</p> <p>Relationships which link specific patient mechanisms of healing to their perceived level of satisfaction</p>



781 traditional healers might even assist the research team with negotiating and
 782 translating local disease causality models, notions of truth, relevant scientific
 783 concepts, and research priorities not shared across all cultures (Adams et al. 2005;
 784 Adams et al. 2008; Shrestha and Lediard 1980). Research teams could take a
 785 conventional field-based approach or even explore new technological avenues for
 786 communication, documentation, and analysis of complex, parallel study groups
 787 (Bhatta et al. 2015; Chib et al. 2015; Style et al. 2017; Ni et al. 2020).

788 However, researchers should balance the naturalistic approach of Community-
 789 Based Research Participation with one or several structured and locally validated
 790 instruments. For instance, Craig et al. (2010) applied an adaptation of the McGill
 791 Illness Narrative Interview (MINI) to systematically study illness narratives and
 792 explanatory frameworks among patients in Mustang, many of whom sought
 793 treatment from local traditional healers. Alternatively, Kohrt et al. (2020) used a
 794 locally validated, structured observational rating scale, titled Enhancing Assessment
 795 of Common Therapeutic factors (ENACT), to measure the psychotherapeutic
 796 factors in common between traditional healers and conventional psychotherapists
 797 within the Central Middle Hills of Nepal. Yet, blind adoption of structured
 798 questionnaires, interview formats, and biomedical diagnostics could also hamper
 799 rather than facilitate meaningful data collection. For instance, van Ommeren et al.
 800 (2000) argued that the Composite International Diagnostic Interview (CIDI), which
 801 assesses psychiatric somatic complaints, focuses too heavily on (1) the biomedical
 802 framework and (2) the assumption that all medical providers deliver diagnoses to
 803 their patients, thus confounding its cultural validity in Nepal. In other examples,
 804 questions from the locally validated Barriers to Access Care Evaluation (BACE)
 805 scale (Clement et al. 2012), applied by Kohrt et al. (2018) to assess stigma reduction
 806 among mental healthcare providers, and even the aforementioned McGill Illness
 807 Narrative Interview can prove restricting and at times misleading when measuring
 808 tacit community biases surrounding indigenous belief models (Pham et al. 2020) or
 809 blurred distinctions between the self and other, religion and medicine, etc. (Craig
 810 et al. 2010; Kohrt et al. 2018).

811 We now summarize the aforementioned ideas for future research (see Table 3).

812 Conclusion

813 In Nepal, traditional healers' perceived impact appears greatest for mild to moderate
 814 forms of psychological distress. However, the methodological and sample
 815 heterogeneity preclude uniform conclusions about traditional healing with Nepal,
 816 or more broadly in global appraisals of traditional healing. Further research should
 817 employ methods which are both empirically sound and culturally adapted to explore
 818 the role of traditional healers in mental health. Ultimately, by completing the picture
 819 on traditional healers and mental well-being, social scientists, clinicians, and public
 820 health practitioners can better understand how and for whom traditional healing
 821 impacts distress. The work is also useful to uncover the diverse conceptions of self
 822 and how these models shape healing. Medical providers, researchers, and public
 823 officials can create a collaborative, integrative, and interdisciplinary approach to

824 offer better wrap around care in a country with serious ongoing mental healthcare
 825 disparities. Globally, researchers can apply similar approaches to determine how
 826 traditional healers uniquely respond to the non-pharmacological and therapeutic
 827 needs of developing countries without resorting to overly prescriptive and medically
 828 imperialistic treatment models.

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837 Compliance with Ethical Standards

838 **Conflict of interest** On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of
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