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2 **Breaking the cycle with Mentalization-Based Treatment Trauma-Focused:**
3 **theory and practice of a trauma-focused group intervention**

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36 personality disorder
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38 **Abstract**

39 Trauma-Focused Mentalization-based Treatment (MBT-TF) is an adaptation of MBT specifically
40 developed for patients suffering from attachment or complex trauma, with the possibility of co-
41 occurring borderline personality pathology. The creation of MBT-TF was driven by previous research
42 and observations that interventions centered on mentalizing could be significantly improved by directly
43 addressing the impact of trauma. MBT-TF aims to mitigate symptoms that arise post-trauma, such as
44 hyperarousal, hypervigilance, intrusions, flashbacks, avoidance behaviours, dissociative experiences,
45 negative perceptions of self and others, and ensuing relational difficulties. Implemented as a group
46 intervention, MBT-TF typically spans 6-12 months. From a mentalization perspective, trauma,
47 particularly attachment trauma, leads to a failure in processing the effects of trauma through and with
48 others. Stress and attachment behavioural systems are disrupted, which undermines the capacity for
49 epistemic trust, and impairs mentalizing abilities. This paper offers a concise summary of the reasoning
50 for MBT-TF's creation, its theoretical underpinnings, and its clinical strategy for addressing the adverse
51 impacts of trauma. It further details the treatment phases, their main goals, and interventions,
52 supplemented by clinical case examples that underscore MBT-TF's distinctive attributes and frequent
53 clinical hurdles.

54

55 **Introduction: the rationale for MBT-TF**

56 A significant proportion of mental health patients report having experienced adversity during
57 childhood and later life (Lippard and Nemeroff, 2020, Horowitz et al., 2000, McKay et al., 2021).
58 Studies have consistently highlighted a strong link between such adversity and various forms of
59 psychopathology, noting that trauma significantly influences current functioning and treatment
60 outcomes (Bateman et al., 2023b, Horowitz et al., 2000, Huang et al., 2020, Panagou and MacBeth,
61 2022). Trauma, as we define it in this context, represents not solely an 'adverse event' or 'adverse
62 experience' per se, but also refers to the consequences thereof. We understand trauma as an experience
63 in which adverse events are of an intensity that is beyond the capacity of the individual to cope with.
64 Complex trauma specifically refers to the impact of repetitive, prolonged early negative life
65 experiences involving neglect or abuse, typically within an attachment/caregiving context or within
66 other interpersonal relationships with an uneven power dynamic, in which the attachment
67 figures/caregivers who are supposed to protect and care for the individual are at the same time a source
68 of anxiety, threat, neglect and/or abuse. The effects of trauma, including childhood trauma, may
69 translate into diagnoses of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) or, as recently defined in the ICD-11,
70 complex PTSD (CPTSD, Maercker et al., 2022), though not all patients with trauma histories receive
71 these diagnoses. The PTSD diagnosis centres around persistent intrusive mental experiences related to
72 and mental and behavioral avoidance of triggers and reminders of the event, along with alterations in
73 cognitions and mood and hyperarousal (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). In the CPTSD
74 diagnosis, these are combined with disturbances of self organization, problematic interpersonal
75 relationships, and affective dysregulation (World Health Organization, 2019).

76

77 There is a substantial overlap between these (C)PTSD diagnoses and personality disorder diagnoses,
78 especially borderline personality disorder (BPD), which is frequently linked to early adversity (Ford
79 and Courtois, 2021, Zanarini and Frankenburg, 1997). The prevalence of CPTSD is estimated at about
80 36% in adult clinical populations, rising to 50% among patients with BPD (Maercker et al., 2022, Ford
81 and Courtois, 2021, Møller et al., 2020). Similarly, PTSD prevalence in BPD patients varies between
82 30% and 50% in community and clinical samples respectively (Grant et al., 2008, Pagura et al., 2010,
83 Zanarini et al., 1998, Møller et al., 2020, van Dijke et al., 2018). These three diagnostic categories,
84 while sharing symptoms and etiological factors, can be differentiated both empirically and
85 phenomenologically and might represent a spectrum of posttraumatic syndromes (Ford and Courtois,
86 2021). This spectrum starts with traumatic victimization, evolving into more severe conditions from

87 PTSD to CPTSD (characterized by disturbances in self and relational functioning) and eventually to
88 concurrent CPTSD/BPD. Such a latent severity dimension underlying the distinct diagnostic
89 categories, is paralleled by evidence that patients with co-occurring BPD and PTSD exhibit lower
90 quality of life, more severe BPD symptoms, increased dissociative symptoms and comorbidities, higher
91 suicide attempt rates, more frequent childhood trauma, and greater feelings of worthlessness compared
92 to patients with only one diagnosis (Bateman et al., 2023c, Pagura et al., 2010).

93
94 From a treatment perspective, the complex co-occurrence of disorders following trauma has been
95 acknowledged in programs targeting personality disorders and trauma-related conditions. However,
96 approaches focusing on trauma and those addressing personality disorders have evolved separately.
97 While certain patients benefit from existing treatments for trauma or personality disorders, a notable
98 gap exists between these modalities. Early evidence suggests that in treatments like Mentalization-
99 Based Treatment (MBT) and Dialectical Behavior Therapy (DBT) for BPD, patients with concurrent
100 PTSD symptoms often exhibit more severe symptoms and worse outcomes (Barnicot and Crawford,
101 2018). Particularly, BPD patients with significant childhood trauma respond better to more intensive
102 treatment, which signifies the challenge trauma introduces in treating personality disorders (Smits et
103 al., 2022). For patients with co-occurring (C)PTSD, BPD treatments may lack an adequate focus on
104 trauma symptoms, pointing to the necessity for tailored interventions that tackle trauma sequelae,
105 including dissociative symptoms (Rüfenacht et al., 2023b, Shah et al., 2020). Conversely, in PTSD
106 treatments, patients with comorbid personality disorders find benefit but face poorer outcomes
107 compared to those without such comorbidities (Slotema et al., 2020, Snoek et al., 2020). Additionally,
108 current PTSD treatments may not effectively address CPTSD (Maercker et al., 2022). With evolving
109 clinical guidelines for CPTSD, treatment recommendations now include multi-component
110 interventions focusing on safety, psychoeducation, collaborative care, and strategies for self-
111 regulation, distress tolerance, and trauma-specific methods (Maercker et al., 2022). Hence,
112 observations from the field of trauma-focused interventions also underscore the need for tailored
113 treatments that alleviate persistent difficulties in self and relational functioning, regardless of the
114 diagnoses of personality disorder or (C)PTSD.

115
116 Such treatments are rare, though efforts to integrate trauma focus within personality disorder therapies,
117 and vice versa, are emerging. For instance, DBT-PTSD, a version of DBT integrating prolonged
118 exposure, is effective for patients with BPD and PTSD (Bohus et al., 2020, Bohus et al., 2019). Patients
119 who complete DBT-PTSD showed significant and more lasting improvements in PTSD symptoms,
120 along with reduced suicide attempts, self-harm, dissociation, trauma-related guilt, and enhanced overall
121 functioning compared to those receiving standard DBT (Harned et al., 2018a, Harned et al., 2018b).
122 Notably, these benefits were apparent only after reducing PTSD symptoms and cognitive issues, with
123 improvements in PTSD following the start of trauma memory processing. However, high dropout rates
124 occurred before this processing began, and DBT-PTSD did not outperform standard DBT in reducing
125 interpersonal problems. Still, the initial results of adaptations like DBT-PTSD are promising,
126 advocating for further refinement of treatments. This aligns with recommendations for a flexible,
127 modular-based approach that can be tailored to each patient's needs (Karatzias and Cloitre, 2019).

128
129 Similarly, Mentalization-Based Treatment has placed increasing emphasis on directly addressing
130 trauma (Luyten et al., 2020b, Luyten and Fonagy, 2019), leading to the creation of MBT-Trauma-
131 Focused (MBT-TF; Bateman & Fonagy, 2021; Bateman et al., 2023). We have always assumed that
132 trauma impairs mentalizing and limitations of mentalizing account for some trauma-related symptoms,
133 such as flashbacks and dissociation (Allen and Fonagy, 2010; 2019). The merit of mentalizing
134 interventions to address the impact of trauma is supported by evidence linking adversity to ineffective
135 mentalizing (Wagner-Skacel et al., 2022), along with studies evidencing the mediating impact of

136 mentalizing and epistemic trust in the relationship between adversity and trauma-related symptoms,
137 such as dissociation or relational difficulties (Kamplung et al., 2022, Hayden et al., 2019, Bateman et
138 al., 2023c). Moreover preliminary evidence supports the notion that improvements in epistemic trust
139 positively impact treatment outcome for CPTSD (Lampe et al., 2024).

140
141 Even though traditional MBT has been shown to be quite effective for patients with a history of
142 (complex) trauma (Smits et al., 2022), these patients often have considerable difficulties engaging in
143 the treatment, especially in the early phases, due to their avoidance strategies. This negatively impacts
144 their own treatment process, potentially leading to stagnation or drop-out, and can also affect the
145 engagement and treatment process of other patients. Therefore, to optimize treatment outcomes, there
146 was a need for a more explicit focus on trauma and its consequences within MBT.

147 In keeping with other models of trauma treatment, MBT-TF follows a phased approach to treatment
148 (Herman, 1998). MBT-TF differs from traditional MBT in this more specifically phased approach, its
149 (treatment and sessional) structure and the more explicit focus on trauma processing. It is based on our
150 notion that for patients significantly impacted by (complex) trauma, merely enhancing general
151 mentalizing abilities may not adequately improve an individual's capacity to manage trauma memories
152 and their impact. MBT-TF, therefore, explicitly addresses the ineffective mentalization of traumatic
153 experiences and the consequences for self- and other-representations and relational functioning. To
154 attain this, MBT-TF highlights the role of trauma symptoms and their consequences during the
155 assessment phase, placing them at the centre of a co-created trauma-informed formulation of the
156 patient's functioning. MBT-TF places an even greater emphasis than traditional MBT on establishing
157 shared group norms and values at the onset of treatment to promote safety and reduce the need for
158 mental and social isolation. In this way, avoidance behaviors which in traditional MBT tended to
159 disrupt the treatment process, are mitigated. Moreover, particularly in the second phase, MBT-TF
160 sessions are more structured than traditional MBT group sessions, facilitating the sharing and
161 processing of traumatic memories and providing the necessary emotional scaffolding. Finally, in the
162 ending phase, MBT-TF explicitly focuses on mourning and the loss caused by trauma in the patients'
163 lives. Overall, MBT-TF's unwavering focus on improving trauma-focused mentalizing and promoting
164 salutogenesis necessitates a process-oriented approach to intervention, facilitated by an experienced
165 team of healthcare professionals, distinguishing this approach from peer support groups.

166 Unlike most trauma treatments, MBT-TF is delivered in a group setting, utilizing group therapy as a
167 means to recalibrate the traumatized mind, often mired in shame and isolation, hindering recovery
168 (Leskela et al., 2002, Øktedalen et al., 2015, Schomerus et al., 2021, Stotz et al., 2015). Although
169 evidence supporting the effectiveness of group treatment for PTSD is accumulating (Schwartz et al.,
170 2019, Sloan et al., 2013, Griffin et al., 2023), group trauma treatment is still underrepresented in
171 treatment guidelines and (empirical studies on) group interventions targeting CPTSD are scarce. Yet,
172 from a mentalizing perspective on trauma, a group-based approach may be helpful as it provides an
173 optimal context to foster social connection within a mentalizing framework which is assumed to be
174 crucial for mitigating trauma's detrimental effects on self and relational representations and dynamics.

175
176 This paper is the first to comprehensively outline the rationale, development, and core principles of
177 MBT-TF, along with a detailed clinical illustration based on our two years of accumulated experience
178 with the model. We first summarize the mentalizing perspective on trauma as a basis for understanding
179 the presumed change mechanism and core principles of MBT-TF. Subsequently, we present the clinical
180 approach, covering the treatment structure, phases, key principles, interventions, and common
181 challenges, illustrated through the clinical vignette of Ellen.

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Context: A mentalizing approach to trauma

Emerging research indicates that trauma, especially complex trauma, disrupts three central capacities vital to the development of psychopathology, alongside severe dysregulation of the stress system (Luyten et al., 2020a, Luyten et al., 2020b, Nolte et al., 2023): (a) the ability to form healthy attachment relationships, (b) mentalizing, that is, the capacity to understand oneself and others in terms of intentional mental states such as needs, desires, feelings, beliefs, and goals (Allen et al., 2008, Allen and Fonagy, 2006); and (c) epistemic trust, or the ability to accurately identify specific others as trustworthy and, therefore, being able to adequately rely on the information they convey as personally relevant and generalizable and by that means, the individual's capacity to accept and internalize new information; hence the addition of the descriptor 'epistemic' to indicate a specific element of general trust in others (Fonagy et al., 2015, Fonagy et al., 2019).¹

In typical development, the attachment system activates in response to increased arousal or threat, leading individuals to seek closeness to responsive attachment figures, thereby reducing distress (Bowlby, 1988, Bowlby, 1973, Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). Attuned parenting, marked by significant affect mirroring and the use of clear cues (e.g., eye contact, motherese), fosters attachment security and, in turn, the development of epistemic trust in children, meaning trust that the parent is a reliable source of knowledge about the internal and external world (Fonagy et al., 2007, Fonagy and Luyten, 2018). This trust is essential for the unencumbered expression of the innate capacity to learn through social interactions and is linked with resilience and salutogenesis, that is, the ability to benefit from others' positive influences (Antonovsky and Sagy, 1986) and their co-mentalizing. Being recognized and mentalized within this attachment relationship helps regulate arousal, develop secondary representations of self-states and exercise effortful control, ultimately fostering broader mentalizing abilities (Fonagy and Allison, 2023, Nolte et al., 2023). However, this adaptive cycle is disrupted by stress and adversity, with trauma particularly impacting the development of epistemic trust and mentalizing abilities. Complex trauma often places individuals in a paradoxical situation where caregivers, expected to provide comfort and reduce distress, are also sources of severe conflict, abuse, or neglect (Teicher and Samson, 2013), leading to a defensive suppression of mentalizing to protect against the painful perspective of the abuser.

¹ Epistemic trust is a key concept in understanding how people (refrain to) learn from and relate to their social environments, through interpersonal communication and relationships. Epistemic trust is developed through consistent, reliable, and positive interpersonal interactions that signal safety, competence, and benevolence, beginning in the context of early childhood within secure attachment relationships, where caregivers respond sensitively and predictably to the child's needs, continuing into adulthood, as trustworthy interactions encourage individuals to be open to receiving and integrating new information from others. Trauma – and attachment trauma in particular – typically disrupts this process, resulting in persistent epistemic vigilance (mistrust) or epistemic naivety (credulity) that in turn exacerbate negative attachment experiences and hinder the process of resilience in reaction to situations of distress that – in normative development - is provided by social referencing and calibration of one's mind with the mind of others (social learning). Hence, the cessation of excessive epistemic vigilance and (re)establishment of epistemic trust are of key importance in psychotherapy in general, and even more so when treating complex trauma, in order to re-instate a process of resilience through social learning (Fonagy et al., 2015, 2019).

213 As a result, individuals might excessively use hyperactivating or deactivating secondary attachment
214 strategies² to adapt to environments marked by inconsistent, unresponsive, or abusive figures (Ein-Dor
215 et al., 2010, Ellis et al., 2011, Luyten et al., 2021). These environments may also cultivate high levels
216 of epistemic mistrust and vigilance as adaptations to perceived malintent or mistreatment, or
217 conversely, engender an epistemic naivety due to the misjudging of trustworthiness resulting from
218 erroneous filtering of what can be trusted and what cannot (Luyten et al., 2020a). This situation is
219 linked with an increased risk of disrupted self-other boundaries, distorted secondary representations, a
220 fragmented and depleted self-concept, and overall impaired mentalizing and affect regulation abilities
221 generally (Fonagy et al., 2017, Fonagy et al., 2002, Fonagy et al., 2010). Empirical evidence shows
222 that insecure and disorganized attachment patterns, often associated with adverse childhood
223 experiences, mediate trauma symptoms (Luyten et al., 2020b, MacDonald et al., 2008, Liotti, 2006,
224 Byun et al., 2016). Moreover, recent studies highlight that mentalizing mediates the effect of
225 attachment on interpersonal distress (Hayden et al., 2019). Following this, we recognize that ineffective
226 mentalizing can make an individual particularly vulnerable as it exaggerates the negative consequences
227 of adversity.

228 The interplay between trauma, attachment, mentalizing, and epistemic trust is complex and reciprocal
229 (see Figure 1). The lack of co-regulation and the opportunity to recalibrate the traumatized mind within
230 a secure mentalizing attachment relationship detrimentally affects both the ability to mentalize
231 effectively and the concurrent development of epistemic trust. Furthermore, deficiencies in attachment,
232 epistemic trust, and mentalizing may in turn also exacerbate the impact of trauma on an individual's
233 experience and functionality, as early adversity leads to an over sensitized attachment system and
234 heightened vulnerability to stress. This increases the likelihood of future adversities, especially in
235 interpersonal contexts. Without stress co-regulation, individuals often remain in a state of heightened
236 arousal and vigilance to perceived threats, resulting in cognitive difficulties, irritability, and aggression
237 as they persist in fight, flight, or freeze responses. Additionally, reliance on secondary attachment
238 strategies can be detrimental over time, trapping individuals in the belief that others are ultimately
239 unavailable for care and support. This misperception intensifies the reliance on ineffective modes of
240 mentalizing and (self)destructive behaviours to shielding against overwhelming feelings of anxiety,
241 anger, shame, guilt, and a disintegrated sense of self.

242
243 [INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE: The interplay between trauma, attachment, mentalizing, and epistemic
244 trust]

245
246 Trauma also typically results in an unstable self-concept and a disjointed, distorted self-narrative,
247 influenced by ‘alien-self’ experiences; such experiences are conceptualized as involving the
248 internalization of an abusive caregiver's or perpetrator's perceptions or attributed thoughts, defining the
249 self with these painful, unmentalized aspects (Fonagy, 2021) e.g. ‘I am shameful and should be
250 ashamed’. These alien-self experiences often lead to self-destructive acts as the traumatised individuals

² Secondary attachment strategies are behaviors and coping mechanisms that individuals develop as adaptive responses to experiences of inconsistency, unavailability, or unresponsiveness from their primary attachment figures. They are categorized into (a) hyperactivating strategies, where individuals seek attention and closeness intensely, often appearing clingy and anxious, seeking constant reassurance and validation; and (b) deactivating strategies, which involve suppressing the need for closeness to avoid emotional pain, leading to emotional distance, self-reliance, and avoidance of intimate relationships (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2012).

251 attempt to gain control of an internalized abusive figure, who they experience as hurting them from
252 within, by externalisation and projection. Such efforts then lead to interpersonal conflicts, often
253 triggered by reminders of trauma, intensifying feelings of shame, guilt, or worthlessness, and fostering
254 destructive behavioural patterns. These re-enactment cycles, that is patterns of interpersonal interaction
255 used to manage trauma symptoms that particularly resemble the traumatic relational patterns from the
256 past and are repeated in current interactions, contribute to high levels of revictimization (Widom, 1999,
257 Cloitre et al., 1997) and the intergenerational transmission of trauma and psychopathology (Berthelot
258 et al., 2019).

259
260 The bidirectional impact of these processes implies that ineffective co-regulation and mentalizing of
261 traumatic events and its effects perpetuate distress, leading to breakdowns in mentalizing in which pre-
262 mentalizing modes³ dominate functioning (Allen and Fonagy, 2010, Luyten et al., 2020a). Conversely,
263 when experienced in pre-mentalizing modes, the emotional re-experiencing of trauma may in turn feel
264 more immediate and destabilizing, such as flashbacks in the psychic equivalence mode of inside-out
265 thinking when subjective experience is felt to be equivalent to external events. The intensity of
266 unmentalized experiences may prompt avoidance strategies through dissociation in pretend mode or
267 may instigate physical, and sometimes (self)destructive, actions to cope with unbearable self-states
268 from a teleological perspective. Unmentalized, distorted perceptions of others that foster relational
269 mistrust further sever social connections, contributing to mental and social isolation. The associated
270 emotional experience of shame, often linked with trauma, obstructs resilience through social
271 referencing and help-seeking. Consequently, individuals may erect barriers of mistrust and social
272 vigilance, avoiding potentially beneficial social interactions and the opportunity for positive social
273 feedback (Campbell et al., 2021, Kampling et al., 2022, Nolte et al., 2023) that would contradict their
274 trauma-influenced perceptions. Ironically, even when exposed to alternative, constructive reflections
275 of themselves, individuals may struggle to accept these perspectives due to their epistemic mistrust and
276 the lack of resonance of this more benign mirroring, with their entrenched negative self-views and
277 perceptions of others shaped by trauma. It is as though individuals lack not only the internal
278 mechanisms to steer clear of harmful experiences but also they evade the social referencing needed to
279 adjust their internal compass.

280
281 In summary, from a perspective focused on mentalizing, we suggest that trauma instigates a sense of
282 epistemic dysfunction, a distrust in the reliability and trustworthiness of the world. This lack of trust
283 significantly hinders an individual in social settings, as they miss the opportunity to learn and
284 sustainably adjust their beliefs and feelings through positive social interactions and experiences. As a
285 result, the traumatic experience remains isolated, lacking social context, which perpetuates distorted
286 thoughts and emotions, such as shame and guilt. Following this, we propose that re-establishing social
287 connections within a context that emphasizes mentalizing can effectively counteract the widespread
288 negative effects of trauma on both self-perception and relationships and alleviate shame and isolation.
289 We assume this process of reconnection and shared understanding of experiences to be crucial for the
290 recalibration of the traumatized mind and for interrupting the cycle of harmful self- and other views

³ Pre-mentalizing modes of experiencing subjectivity reflect ineffective mentalizing that developmentally antedates the capacity for full mentalizing. The mentalizing framework has heuristically identified; (1) the psychic equivalence (or ‘thinking inside-out’) mode, characterized by a sameness of what is experienced internally and assumed as external reality and in which thoughts and feelings become too real and the individual can consider no perspectives other than his/her own (‘I think therefore it is fact’; ‘I feel shame, therefore I am shameful’); (2) the teleological (or quick-fix/doing-) mode, characterized by concrete understanding and focus on external reality, in which experience can only be altered by means of concrete actions (‘Actions speak louder than words!’); and (3) the pretend (or ‘bubble’) mode, characterized by a profound sense of disconnection between the acute context/reality and inner experiences that, in the extreme, leads to feelings of derealization and dissociation (Allen and Fonagy, 2010, Luyten et al., 2020a).

291 generated by trauma, that instigate vicious patterns of interaction that are harmful and potentially self-
292 perpetuating.

293

294 **Key Principles and Mechanisms of Change in MBT-TF**

295 MBT-TF, rooted in the mentalizing framework for understanding trauma, posits that the traumatic
296 effects of adversity stem not solely from the event itself but more so from the isolation of the
297 individual's mind and the experience of enduring these overwhelming experiences alone, without
298 another mind to help buffer the emotional intensity and to assist in making sense of it through social
299 referencing. Therefore, MBT-TF focuses on four main goals: (1) improving mentalizing related to the
300 trauma, (2) reducing psychological isolation, (3) decreasing social vigilance, and (4) alleviating shame,
301 thereby also fostering the potential for epistemic trust and facilitating social referencing (Bateman and
302 Fonagy, 2021).

303

304 Critical to the understanding of the principles of MBT-TF is our notion that merely enhancing general
305 mentalizing abilities may not directly improve an individual's capacity to manage trauma memories
306 and their impact. Rather, concentrating on the ineffective mentalization of traumatic experiences is
307 likely to strengthen a more generalized mentalizing process that gradually extends into extra-
308 therapeutic relationships. Designed as a group intervention, MBT-TF emphasizes the processing of
309 specific trauma memories through sharing and collectively mentalizing these experiences as a shared
310 aim between all participants. Discussing and processing trauma memories in a group setting is crucial,
311 as patients often try to avoid (talking with others about) these memories, seeking to block them out due
312 to the debilitating shame and overwhelming emotions they elicit. However, such avoidance keeps
313 trauma experiences unmentalized, isolated, and frozen in time, leading to the activation of these
314 memory fragments in certain contexts (causing symptoms such as intrusions, flashbacks, dissociation).
315 As this tendency is shared but is deployed in a context specific to each member of the group, collective
316 processing of trauma related thoughts and feelings benefits each traumatized individual.

317

318 Trauma processing sessions in MBT-TF, where the trauma narrative is shared and reflected upon in a
319 group, are not intended as mere exposure or desensitization. Instead, the focus is on fostering a
320 mentalizing process around the traumatic experience, expressed within a framework that allows social
321 referencing of the experience, aiming to integrate the memory as a mentalized and reflected upon
322 experience. This involves activating all aspects of memory—autobiographical, semantic, as well as
323 procedural and emotional, implicit memory—that encapsulate coping mechanisms and the general
324 views the individual has about self and others related to the traumatic event. Beyond mentalizing the
325 trauma itself, MBT-TF addresses the impact of trauma on self and relational functioning, which is
326 crucial for breaking the repetitive cycles of re-enactment prevalent in patients' lives. Sharing and
327 exploring the impact trauma has had on thoughts and affects about oneself in relation to these events,
328 and then hearing others' perceptions and understandings of you, offers a chance for 'recalibration'
329 through the understanding of others, particularly those more likely to be trusted because of shared
330 experiences. Sharing reduces isolation and shame and helps modify both self- and other representations
331 through the actual experience of interpersonal interaction, potentially enabling a more profound and
332 sustained change than mere cognitive reappraisal.

333

334 Developing a collective understanding of how trauma affects current functioning, from "we-mode" or
335 a shared perspective⁴ restores a sense of belonging and agency, and provides a context for revising self
336 and other representations perspective (Fonagy et al., 2022, Bateman et al., 2023b, Gallotti and Frith,
337 2013). Witnessing and listening to others' experiences helps diminish shame and enhances the
338 mentalization of previously unprocessed traumatic content. Genuine interactions with others, when
339 emotional arousal is well-managed, allow for new social experiences which, by influencing self and
340 other representations, reduce epistemic mistrust and vigilance or inadequate credulity. Encountering
341 empathy and compassion from individuals with similar traumatic backgrounds, and hearing them
342 express their challenges and its impact on their current lives, prompts a dissonance that encourages
343 patients to recognize and question social actions that come from alien self-experiences. Listening to
344 others share and reflect on their experiences indirectly aids in gradually adjusting distorted self-views.
345 Moreover, the group setting offers a safe environment for social learning and positive exchanges
346 among patients.

347
348 Given the profound effects of trauma on stress regulation, MBT-TF places a special emphasis on
349 embodied mentalizing. MBT-TF addresses explicitly the failed interoception as a key aspect of
350 ineffective mentalizing brought about by a traumatized mental state, by focusing on bodily sensations
351 and connecting them to mental states. This approach is particularly critical for individuals whose bodies
352 are sites of trauma, such as in cases of sexual or physical abuse, where dissociation and a complete
353 disregard for bodily symptoms or avoidance of internal experiences have become survival strategies
354 due to feeling unsafe in their own bodies.

355
356 MBT-TF is structured into three phases, aligning with established recommendations for trauma
357 treatment: the first phase includes psychoeducation about mentalizing, trauma, and strategies for
358 managing intense emotions and dissociation, aiming at symptom stabilization and installing safety
359 along with promoting epistemic trust. The second phase is dedicated to processing specific traumatic
360 memories, while the third phase deals with grief, acceptance, and focuses on moving forward. These
361 phases correspond to the three three distinct processes of communication as conceptualized within the
362 mentalizing framework, that are assumed to cumulatively account for change in psychotherapeutic
363 treatments (Luyten et al., 2020a, Fonagy et al., 2019):

364
365 *1. Communication System 1* focuses on establishing epistemic trust and creating an 'epistemic match'⁵
366 in a secure, low-arousal environment. The therapist provides a model for understanding the mind that
367 aligns with the patient's experiences, promoting recognition and comprehension.

368
369 *2. Communication System 2* emphasizes the re-emergence of mentalizing, is pivotal in MBT-TF for
370 processing traumatic memories. As patients become more receptive to social communication, the
371 therapist and patient engage in a collaborative process of understanding and integration. This is
372 characterized by a mutual genuine interest and curiosity about their own minds and those of others,

⁴ We-mode refers to a state in which two or more individuals achieve mutual understanding of each other's perspectives, emotional, thoughts, behaviors, as a product of their engaging in joint attention, maintaining their distinct minds while acknowledging their commonalities. It involves seeing the other as a separate yet connected entity, sharing the experience of reciprocity. This shared higher order mental state is assumed to enhance the ability to understand oneself in a social context and facilitate new ways of understanding and interacting (with) others (Fonagy et al., 2022; Galotti & Frith, 2013).

⁵ An epistemic 'match' pertains to the alignment of compatibility between a patient's understanding of their own experiences and the model of the mind as provided by the therapist, which allows for the patient to feel recognized, understood and mirrored as an autonomous agentive self by the therapist, fostering epistemic trust and feelings of agency (Fonagy et al., 2019; Fisher et al., 2023).

373 reinforcing and building upon epistemic trust. This, in turn, initiates a virtuous cycle where enhanced
374 and balanced mentalizing facilitates more meaningful engagement with social information and
375 networks.

376
377 *3. Communication System 3* focuses on applying social learning to broader contexts. It underscores the
378 importance of extending therapeutic achievements - namely, the restoration of epistemic trust and
379 improved mentalizing abilities into the patients' lives beyond the treatment setting. In MBT-TF, this
380 involves specifically addressing grief, acceptance, and the process of moving forward to be able to
381 orientate towards the social world with all its benefits; central amongst which is that deposit of
382 accumulating human understanding: culture. Whilst not often talked about in the context of
383 psychotherapy, being deprived of access to shared social knowledge is a central problem of the
384 traumatised individual. Therapy works when a traumatised person reconnects with the collaborative
385 process of learning and teaching about how the world is which being human is all about (Fonagy and
386 Allison, 2023).

387
388 **Population**
389 MBT-TF addresses the effects of complex trauma. Patients (1) report a history of complex traumatic
390 experiences and (2) display a wide range of psychopathology, including (3) significant challenges in
391 personality functioning manifesting as pervasive difficulties in identity, self, and relational functioning,
392 which (4) often lead to destructive behavioural patterns. Additionally, they exhibit (5) enduring post-
393 trauma symptoms such as hyperarousal, hypervigilance, intrusions, flashbacks, avoidance behaviours,
394 and dissociative experiences. The exclusion criteria for MBT-TF are minimal. MBT-TF does not
395 exclude patients who exhibit self-destructive behaviours, recognizing these behaviours as attempts to
396 manage unprocessed intrusions or dissociative states caused by trauma. However, tailored
397 interventions may be necessary for individuals who experience prolonged and severe dissociation
398 (Rüfenacht et al., 2023b). Establishing a consensus on a collaboratively developed crisis plan is crucial
399 at the onset of treatment. Current substance dependency might be considered a contraindication if more
400 specific treatment for reduction of substance use is required.

401
402 Ellen, as depicted in Box 1, serves as a representative example of a typical patient whose progression
403 through MBT-TF will be elucidated below through clinical illustrations spanning the different stages
404 of the therapeutic process.

405
406 [INSERT BOX 1 HERE: The Case of Ellen]

407
408 **MBT-TF's clinical approach: treatment phases, foci and key principles**

409
410 **Phase 1: Stabilization, Safety, epistemic match and shared formulation**

411 This initial phase consists of a brief series of individual sessions, ranging from four to six sessions. As
412 with other contemporary trauma treatment approaches, the emphasis at this stage is on ensuring safety
413 and stabilization and, in MBT-TF, developing relationships with the therapist and group members, that
414 help generate a safe group environment. Establishing a consensus on a jointly created crisis plan is
415 critical at the treatment's outset, as is stimulating their motivation and commitment to work on trauma
416 within a group setting. Patients are also encouraged to involve their significant others (attachment
417 figures) in at least one individual session to educate them about the treatment approach, thereby
418 enhancing support and facilitating the generalization of safety measures and therapeutic progress in the
419 patient's life outside (see box 2). The practicality of including individuals from the patient's external
420 environment largely hinges on the positivity and suitability of the social context, as some clients may

421 lack any supportive social contacts or have become so isolated that involving others in their treatment
422 only becomes feasible as progress is made.

423
424 [INSERT BOX 2 HERE: Enhancing Safety and Grounding Techniques in the Early Stages of Ellen's
425 Treatment]

426
427 Individual sessions focus on psychoeducation and an individualized assessment of trauma's impact on
428 the patient's life. With this, clinicians present a coherent model to help patients understand traumatized
429 minds, the symptoms associated with trauma, and how treatment can address these issues. Conversely,
430 therapists learn from patients, adapting the model to fit their unique narratives, thoughts, and feelings.
431 This mutual educational and assessment process, characterized by a genuine, curiosity, the inquisitive
432 stance (Bateman et al., 2023b), treats the patient as an independent entity, being seen as capable of
433 making decisions, enhancing their sense of being listened to, recognized and potentially understood.
434 This can support the re-establishment of epistemic trust.

435
436 The initial assessment evaluates the mentalizing strengths and vulnerabilities, which is continued in
437 momentarily assessments throughout treatment, with the objective of continuously balancing the
438 optimal level of arousal and tailoring interventions to the patients mentalizing capacity to avoid the
439 potential iatrogenic harm of re-traumatization. Assessment includes a comprehensive mental health
440 review covering current symptoms, treatment history, context, and crucially, resilience factors, with a
441 particular emphasis on trauma history, triggers, and the identification of the most pressing trauma
442 symptoms experienced by the patient. These symptoms include (1) intrusions, flash-backs, nightmares
443 (2) anxiety and dissociative symptoms linked to trauma triggers connecting current to past experiences;
444 (3) trauma-related emotions such as shame or feelings of being "dirty"; (4) self-perception issues like
445 self-criticism, negative self-image, and alien-self experiences of "badness"; and (5) avoidance
446 strategies that in turn potentially exacerbate trauma effects, as a result of detachment from internal
447 experiences including physical, emotional, and mental intimacy. A relational map and attachment style
448 assessment help visualize and explore trauma's effects on current relational functioning and identify
449 interpersonal difficulties contributing to trauma re-enactment cycles (see Figure 2 and Box 4 for an
450 illustration of Ellen's re-enactment cycle). The aim is to develop a shared initial understanding between
451 therapist and patient regarding the patient's current challenges in relation to their traumatic experiences
452 and their effects on self, others, and their broader world interactions (Bateman and Fonagy, 2021). This
453 is more than solely the patient's experience or the clinicians understanding of that experience. This
454 mutual understanding is translated into a shared formulation, which entails a mutually construed picture
455 of a reality that is now shared between patient and clinician and available to be explored jointly.

456
457 The MBT-TF formulation (see Box 3 for Ellen's initial MBT-TF formulation) follows the key
458 principles of the formulation as described in the generic model of MBT (Bateman et al., 2023b). First,
459 the structure and format of a formulation is tailored to the preferences of the patient. It is for the patient;
460 it is not to show the depth of the clinicians psychological understanding. Many are done in written form
461 (often the shorter the better) but an equal number are done in diagrammatic form. Second, the central
462 reference point is mentalizing and its vulnerabilities. Third, it is collaborative and jointly generated.
463 Fourth, it has to be understandable to the patient and stimulate a feeling and representation in them of
464 the clinician recognizing them ("I am with someone who is seeing me as I see myself"). Fifth, it is
465 dynamic and changes as treatment evolves and is reviewed and re-written at regular intervals. The
466 patient uses the brief formulation (relational passport) to introduce themselves to the group and it is
467 used subsequently throughout group sessions. Identifying trauma reminders or triggers, which can
468 reactivate negative or self-destructive responses, enables patients, therapists, and group members to
469 recognize potential re-enactments as they may occur within group sessions. The development of this

470 formulation is often complex given trauma's typical impact on memory coherence and patients'
471 challenges in articulating their experiences. The formulation thus remains tentative, requiring
472 adjustments as understanding deepens. Emphasizing the exploration of the internal world over the
473 formulation "product" is a key goal.

474
475 [INSERT BOX 3 HERE: Ellen's Initial MBT-TF formulation]

476
477 Identifying a distressing memory closely linked to current trauma symptoms for further exploration in
478 phase 2 group processing sessions is a further critical objective of the individual preparatory sessions.
479 Pinpointing a specific memory can be a challenging task for individuals burdened with multiple,
480 interconnected traumatic events.

481
482 In the therapeutic approach and clinical emphasis of MBT-TF, fostering the renewal of epistemic trust
483 is prioritized in the initial phase, although reigniting social learning is recognized as a key mechanism
484 of change throughout all later stages of therapy. Therapists should remain attuned to any forms of
485 avoidance or withdrawal, especially during the early stages of treatment and the transition into group
486 sessions, as is customary in MBT. Avoidance or withdrawal might not always be evident through
487 physical absence but can occur at a level where there's resistance to accept and assimilating insights
488 from others. Participants may seem to listen attentively to feedback yet not exhibit expected
489 behavioural changes. In MBT-TF, therapists must be particularly vigilant in maintaining a balance
490 between activating the attachment system and the tendency to revert to survival mechanisms in reaction
491 to trauma triggers associated with social or interpersonal contexts. These triggers can lead to
492 heightened (fight/flight) responses or reduced arousal (dissociation), moving the individual outside
493 their window of tolerance and obstructing mentalizing abilities. This sensitive balancing act is a critical
494 aspect of why MBT-TF, as a group intervention, poses challenges but yet is instrumental in disrupting
495 maladaptive cycles and fostering new social experiences, which in turn enable self-reflection.

496
497 After the preparatory phase 1, individual sessions may be offered according to patient need and
498 depending on the context. The holding environment of treatment is an important anchor to provide
499 safety. When needed, therapists offer follow-up calls or reach out to follow-up on commitment issues.
500 Importantly, MBT-TFs presumed working mechanisms focus on group work.

501
502 [INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE: Ellen's re-enactment cycle]

503 [INSERT BOX 4 HERE: Ellen's re-enactment cycle]

504
505 **Initial group sessions: building relationships, ensuring safety and psycho-education**

506 In the early group sessions, the main objectives of phase 1 of establishing safety in the group and
507 developing epistemic trust are prioritized in order to facilitate the trauma processing in phase 2. Patients
508 get to know each other and the two facilitating therapists and work together to create group norms and
509 values (such as fairness, mutuality, confidentiality, kindness, open communication, respect, having a
510 shared purpose centred on processing of trauma experience and the aim of mentalizing one another).
511 Developing shared values is the first step to creating a reality in the group that is jointly owned, that
512 can be referred back to by the group facilitators or patients when safety, or group cohesion are
513 challenged. The individual sessions of phase 1 help prepare the patient to introduce themselves to
514 others. Initial group sessions are to match the individual presentations with each other to create a
515 collective identity within the group and a shared purpose, both of which form part of 'we-mode'
516 mentalizing. Therapists use exercises designed to enhance safety and regulate arousal, which vary in
517 nature - some are more interactive and playful, while others focus on bodily awareness. These activities
518 are particularly beneficial for patients who dissociate frequently, allowing them to feel part of the group

519 without the pressure of having to share personal information or concentrate on potentially destabilizing
520 topics. However, it's crucial to monitor for trauma responses that these exercises might inadvertently
521 trigger (i.e. by increasing awareness or the perceived pressure to perform), necessitating careful
522 observation and management by the clinicians of arousal levels in the group as a whole and in
523 individual patients. Successful navigation of these moments of movement outside a 'window of
524 tolerance' enables group members to start to notice and recognize when this occurs, giving the
525 opportunity to rewind and learn how to manage it without collapsing into fight and flight or avoidance.,
526 Jointly focusing on the anxieties as they happen increases mentalized affectivity, that is gives context
527 and meaning to the experience while remaining in the momentary emotion, which stimulates a
528 mentalizing understanding of their reactions without directly confronting traumatic content.

529
530 The group's focus then shifts towards collective psychoeducation, covering topics like a) the impact of
531 trauma on body and mind, b) the window of tolerance of anxiety and its benefits for mentalizing
532 effectively, c) epistemic trust, d) emotion regulation strategies (particularly for anxiety, shame and
533 avoidance); e) understanding and managing common symptoms such as dissociation, flashbacks, and
534 nightmares; f) mentalizing versus prementalizing states and g) the value of social learning. Therapists
535 clearly outline the treatment structure, furthering the psychoeducational goal and fostering
536 interpersonal connections within the group. Collective psychoeducation is helpful in creating a shared
537 culture for the group, contributing to it being a safe place to learn. This first phase also focuses on
538 learning to identify and manage anxiety in a group setting. By sharing their personal formulations,
539 patients learn about each other's trauma triggers and the persistence of the effects of trauma in current
540 relationships through cycles of re-enactment. Discussions of trauma histories are deliberately avoided
541 at this point. Reflections on the experience of anxiety, particularly how trauma-related anxiety impacts
542 current functioning, are encouraged. Patients are urged to be attentive to bodily sensations, which can
543 become focal points at the beginning and at the end of each group session, helping them begin to link
544 physical states to arousal and emotional states. The objective is for group members to recognize bodily
545 sensations within themselves and observe subtle changes in others, fostering curiosity about the mental
546 states these changes indicate, thereby enhancing embodied mentalizing. This approach requires
547 openness and sensitivity, as it may provoke feelings of shame or activate avoidance strategies, which
548 can however, then also become topics for joint mentalization.

549
550 The group collectively holds responsibility for being attuned to the re-emergence of trauma symptoms
551 and re-enactment cycles. A continuous joint focus on promoting safety and mentalizing, prevents
552 patients from re-experiencing trauma symptoms and re-enactment patterns in non-mentalizing modes,
553 thereby avoiding iatrogenic harm and re-traumatization. Complete avoidance of re-enactments is not
554 feasible, moreover, these experiences enable patients to gradually make sense of and move beyond
555 states that initially seem insurmountable, cultivating new coping mechanisms, providing a context for
556 new social experiences facilitated by the support patients provide towards each other. These new
557 experiences of navigating complex emotions and interactions may later be used outside the group in
558 patients' own social contexts.

559
560 At the conclusion of phase 1, a group review session (see box 5) allows members to reflect on their
561 thoughts and feelings about the group work thus far, setting the stage for phase two. Clinically,
562 determining when the group is sufficiently safe to move to phase two may not be obvious and can be
563 challenging. Regardless of whether the transition between phases is fixed by the number of sessions or
564 remains flexible, clinicians often express concerns about progressing to phase two due to interpersonal
565 challenges in the group. These challenges often stem from the live re-enactment of trauma cycles in
566 interactions among group members, which can complicate group dynamics. Common issues include
567 feelings of being different, singled out, isolated, disliked, or experiencing a sense of being targeted,

568 bullied, or abused. Such experiences may echo past traumas but can also evolve into a significant belief
569 system within the group's dynamics, leading to conflicts among members or with facilitators. These
570 tensions and anxieties within the group are actively addressed and managed in the context of
571 psychoeducation and require attention when they occur in order to ensure they are addressed with a
572 mentalizing stance. Importantly, therapists should avoid excessive delays in moving to the trauma
573 processing of phase 2 and adhere to the agreed structure as much as possible, to prevent the
574 perpetuation of avoidance behaviours.

575
576 [INSERT BOX 5 HERE Review Session Following Phase]

577
578 When ready for the transition, information about phase two is revisited, and group members
579 collaboratively decide the sequence of presentations for the trauma processing sessions in the next
580 phase. This includes discussing the protocol if a member fails to attend their scheduled session. There
581 is no prescribed answer and the group have to decide how to manage such eventualities. Patients are
582 asked to commit to attending all groups in the second phase using when possible a restatement of one
583 of the main values of the group e.g. mutuality and respect. Anxieties and shame related to sharing
584 trauma experiences are discussed in the group setting, fostering curiosity among members about the
585 similarities and differences in their experiences to help them join together around common themes
586 which stimulates we-mode mentalizing and promotes connection through a collective perspective. As
587 an optional yet consistently applied approach, group members are encouraged to briefly share their life
588 narratives at this point, preparing them to talk about personal experiences and help everyone begin to
589 place each other in historical context.

590
591 Intermittent group review sessions, which can be reintroduced in phase two as necessary, offer a venue
592 to address and repair relational disruptions, reaffirm the group's norms and values, restore a collective
593 mindset and re-kindle we-mode, and facilitate reflection on how insights gained might apply to
594 interpersonal dynamics outside the group.

595 **Phase 2: Trauma Processing – Revitalizing Mentalizing Around Traumatic Memories**

596 The second phase focuses on the processing of trauma memories identified by each participant during
597 their individual preparatory sessions in phase 1. Group members proceed in a pre-agreed sequence with
598 their processing sessions. It is recommended to organize these sessions into two rounds, allowing each
599 participant to complete their first session before having a group review session of how the group is
600 functioning, followed by a second round for all (see box 6 and 7). This structure ensures that all
601 members benefit from the group's increasing cohesion and, provides a period for individuals to recover
602 from the impact of the first session. When starting their second round, group members are invited to
603 outline their experience of their first processing session and to reflect upon the personal take-home
604 message, formulated at the end of the first session. This approach allows for a richer experience in
605 subsequent sessions, as social recalibration is reinforced in all sessions through a) actively sharing as
606 the presenter; b) taking the role as listener to others sharing; c) mentalizing in group about how the
607 group is responding to the presenter and d) discussing the influence of trauma processing sessions on
608 external functioning and relationships. Trauma processing sessions are carefully organized and adhere
609 to a stepwise procedure, which, in practice, may unfold non-linearly. The steps include:

610
611
612 *1. I-mode recall of the trauma narrative:* The patient designated to share is encouraged to recount their
613 trauma narrative as openly as possible supported by one of the group therapists, while the rest of the
614 group and a co-therapist listen with minimal interruptions. Their task is to help the presenter express
615 their narrative and not to comment on it in any judgmental way. The aim is to gradually expand on the

616 trauma narrative, vividly invoking associated feelings to facilitate affective mentalization of the trauma
617 narrative (meta-cognition).

618

619 *2. Me-mode reflection on the trauma's impact on themselves and their perceived experience of how*
620 *others see them:* The group aids the patient in articulating feelings related to the trauma and how others
621 see them as a person who has experienced such devastating events, both at the time of the event and
622 currently. This collective reflection helps deepen their understanding of the trauma's emotional
623 aftermath through understanding the reflection of others (first order mentalizing).

624

625 *3. We-mode joint meta-perspective:* This involves reflecting on the group's shared understanding of the
626 trauma narrative, considering both past and present perspectives.

627

628 One facilitator guides the patient through exploring the narrative, assisting them in connecting with
629 and discussing the memory. Meanwhile, the co-facilitator focuses on the other group members, ready
630 to intervene and help regulate any distress, whether through eye contact or direct acknowledgment of
631 how expression of the trauma narrative may affect listeners (establishing a we-mode). Throughout this
632 process, both facilitators and group members are committed to adopt a stance of empathetic validation,
633 support, and curiosity, prioritizing the sharing of the narrative over ascribing meaning to the events.
634 While providing reassurance may be instinctive - for instance, in response to expressions of shame
635 (“don’t feel like that, you are not like that!”), the facilitators guide the group towards exploring these
636 feelings more deeply rather than foreclosing and invalidating by offering simple reassurances. Group
637 members are discouraged from giving excessive comforting, proposing solutions, or sharing
638 unmentalized perceptions of the perpetrator. Instead, they are encouraged to remain aware of their own
639 reactions while listening to the narrative, whilst keeping the person that is presenting in mind and
640 consider the impact of the narrated experiences on their perception of the person sharing, particularly
641 in terms of self-view and interpersonal relationships. How does listening change their understanding
642 of the presenting patient? Can they verbalize this change in their perspective on the individual? Can
643 they relate the presenters’ experiences to themselves too (“ Now I see them in this way does that change
644 how I see myself”)? This approach helps reduce the likelihood of psychological avoidance, decreases
645 reliance on distancing behaviours, and enhances engagement with the memory retrieval process.

646

647 The act of sharing traumatic experiences can activate intense emotions related to the past, often proving
648 painful and frightening for patients. Narration styles vary, with levels of fragmentation and recall detail
649 differing significantly among individuals. Memories are frequently fragmented and recalled in states
650 of low mentalization, heightening the emotional impact and potentially causing considerable distress
651 both for the individual sharing and for other group members. Clinically, managing the arousal levels
652 of both the individual and the group presents a challenge, requiring a variety of approaches such as
653 collaborative arousal regulation through physical exercises, taking brief pauses, providing verbal and
654 non-verbal support, or employing appropriate humour. Therapist balance the optimal level of arousal
655 in order to avoid shifts into prementalizing modes, thereby avoiding the risk of re-traumatization.

656

657 [INSERT BOX 6 HERE: Ellen's First Trauma Processing Session]

658

659 Each trauma processing session begins with a review of its structure, including reminders for listeners
660 to seek facilitator assistance as needed and prompts to help the narrator consider necessary support.
661 Therapists also focus on creating a safe and supportive physical environment, such as adjusting seating
662 arrangements for the narrator's comfort. Patients are urged to think about and communicate how the
663 group might help regulate their distress. Recognizing and explicitly addressing each other’s trauma
664 triggers helps to establish safety time and time again. Interventions aim to foster a sense of agency and

665 empowerment in regulating distress and maintaining safety. Patients might bring personal objects for
666 grounding that help them to remain in their window of tolerance or be reminded of effective self-
667 soothing techniques, like breathing exercises or engaging the senses by focusing on a chosen object.
668 Therapists remain acutely aware of shifts in the group towards pretend mode. In pretend mode there is
669 a decoupling of mental states from reality and so the discussion lacks focus, is not rooted within
670 emotion and context. Quick transitioning from working with implicit emotional memory to activating
671 semantic memory (considering general tendency rather than personal experience) may also indicate
672 pretend mode. The sudden shift from expression of feeling to meaning can lead to a de-coupling of
673 affect from thought leading to increasingly general and detached discussions lacking the processing of
674 content with emotional involvement. Therapists strive to minimize the onset of pretend mode,
675 managing participants' anxiety by leveraging the group's encouragement, support, and positive
676 reinforcement. While some level of avoidance might be necessary for patients to remain within a
677 mentalizing threshold or “window of tolerance”, facilitators ensure avoidance does not become
678 excessive, adjusting the level of exposure to personal experience on the individuals' ability to connect
679 with their emotions, bodily sensations, memories, and manage dissociation. Even if patients
680 occasionally exceed their window of tolerance, opportunities for mentalizing about these experiences
681 arise, potentially during a second processing session or as a continued focus throughout treatment.

682
683 For those with severe clinical presentations and/or more severe trauma histories, especially individuals
684 who frequently dissociate (including those with but not restricted to dissociative identity disorder),
685 modifications may be necessary, as patients may struggle to access or recount more specific episodes
686 of trauma. Instead of focusing on specific traumatic memories, these patients might be encouraged to
687 discuss events more generally, still aiming to achieve continuity in their personal narratives and social
688 recalibration of their mental processes.

689
690 The emphasis on elaborating on thought and feelings during the processing sessions encompasses both
691 the domain of understanding the emotions and entrenched beliefs related to the trauma, and equally
692 crucial, examining how trauma influences interpersonal relationships. Ideally, these areas are explored
693 concurrently, though typically, the focus on mentalizing the trauma narrative precedes a more
694 concentrated examination of its effects on interpersonal dynamics. This approach often results in the
695 initial processing session concentrating more on the trauma narrative itself, while subsequent sessions
696 explore the trauma's impact on the individual's (current) interpersonal life, with group members
697 possibly focusing more on one these aspects at a time. Some patients may choose to introduce a
698 different trauma experience in their second session, possibly influenced by others' stories or driven by
699 desire to share something previously withheld. It is important that discussions of the trauma's impact
700 on relationships and self-other perceptions should not be bypassed. A relational map can be a valuable
701 tool for reflecting on how relationships structured in a manner that minimizes the risk of reactivating
702 traumatic memories. Engaging in mentalizing about how patients perceive themselves and are
703 perceived within the group can prompt insights into potential improvements in relationships outside
704 the treatment context. This reflective process can broaden from a specific focus on trauma to include a
705 wider examination of attachment styles, self and other representations, and behavioural and
706 communicative strategies.

707
708 [INSERT BOX 7 HERE: Ellen’s Second Processing Session – Impact on Relationships]
709

710 **Phase 3: Mourning and Loss - Generalization and Rehabilitation**

711 As the focus shifts from trauma-specific mentalizing to broader considerations of self and relational
712 dynamics, MBT-TF transitions to phase 3. This final phase, generally shorter than phase 2 with
713 flexibility depending on the context, begins with a review of the changes that have occurred and the

714 understanding achieved relative to the initial treatment goals and expectations. This review involves
715 both personal reflection and consideration of the progress of other group members. The emphasis then
716 moves to considering the individual's relationship with the wider world and their present life, aiming
717 to comprehensively shift the focus from past experiences to current reality. The goal is to cultivate a
718 more integrated self-narrative and a coherent self-identity in relation to current and, importantly, also
719 future life, positioning traumatic experiences within the past. This process includes fostering
720 acceptance within self-identity and exploring evolving self-perspectives (see box 8).

721
722 The conclusion of the group sessions may arouse feelings akin to rejection and can in itself reactivate
723 trauma symptoms or avoidance behaviours. Avoidance is proactively addressed through efforts to
724 ensure commitment, outreach to those who may not attend at this time, and highlighting the
725 significance of a constructive group conclusion. Additionally, the recognition that not all issues have
726 been resolved - and for some, the desire for more from the group or facilitators - can prompt collective
727 reflections on mourning and loss. The conversation gradually shifts to focus on grief, loss, and
728 mourning over missed life opportunities linked to the trauma. Grief work is multifaceted, involving
729 acceptance of immutable facts (such as lack of support during the traumatic event) and the irrevocable
730 nature of the trauma itself, as well as its life-long impacts.

731
732 Frequently, patients may have denied themselves positive life experiences (e.g. a worthy relationship)
733 due to trauma-induced beliefs about themselves or others. This realization becomes clearer as
734 awareness of trauma re-enactment patterns increases. Phase 3 facilitates navigating these realizations,
735 managing the ensuing distress, and learning to coexist with these realities. Furthermore, discussions
736 about the future encourage patients to contemplate their self-view in managing current and future
737 challenges, set goals for personal development, and decide what learnings from the group they wish to
738 retain in their external relationships. Clinical experience suggests that concluding the group often
739 involves a mix of growth in self-efficacy, appreciation for having shared long-isolated thoughts and
740 emotions, as well as sadness and regret at the group's end.

741
742 [INSERT BOX 8 HERE: Moving Forward: Ellen's Final Phase of Acceptance, Grief, and Further
743 Growth]

744 745 **Conclusion**

746 Following the experience of complex trauma, patients frequently encounter profound difficulties
747 related to the enduring effects trauma imposes on mentalizing. The impact on their attachment
748 relationships, emotion regulation and self-other perceptions combine to impose further limitations of
749 mentalizing leading to cycles of re-enactment that persistently affect self and interpersonal dynamics.
750 These cycles prevent progress by allowing trauma to dominate present functioning and obstruct future
751 aspirations. MBT-TF introduces a group intervention that mirrors the natural repair and resilience-
752 building mechanisms that can be observed in spontaneous recovery from trauma. It leverages a shared,
753 mentalized viewpoint to mitigate the detrimental impact that trauma has by facilitating the recalibration
754 of trauma-induced experiences, and self and relational beliefs. Whereas a brief series of individual
755 session is used to prepare for the trauma-focused work, the group environment is a prerequisite to
756 facilitate the virtuous cycles of recalibrating the traumatized mind. Individual sessions may – tailored
757 to the patient and context - be used as supportive to this key process in group.

758
759 To date, two applications of MBT-TF have been introduced in clinical settings: a comprehensive stand-
760 alone MBT-TF program for patients dealing with complex trauma, with or without a concurrent
761 personality disorder diagnosis, and an MBT-TF module designed as an adjunct to existing MBT
762 programs for BPD patients also impacted by complex trauma (Bateman and Fonagy, 2021, Rufenacht

763 et al., 2023a). Research initiatives, including randomized clinical trials comparing MBT-TF to standard
764 care for individuals with complex PTSD and co-occurring personality disorders, are underway using
765 both these approaches.

766
767 Preliminary clinical feedback is encouraging. A recurrent clinical observation has been the significant
768 level of cohesion achieved within groups reported by both clinicians and patients, despite participants
769 presenting with substantial psychopathology and, occasionally, interpersonal tensions arising from
770 trauma re-enactments affecting group dynamics. Yet, engagement and attendance rates have been
771 impressively high. Initial quantitative and qualitative findings from these clinical pilots will be shared
772 in an upcoming publication focused on clinical implementation, highlighting key insights and
773 addressing common challenges, as illustrated through Ellen's case. Consistent with mentalization-
774 based approaches, peer supervision and consultation have been vital in fostering ongoing reflective
775 practices for clinicians throughout the intervention.

776
777 Current pilot studies will inform further refinement and adherence to a definitive MBT-TF manual with
778 better developed measures of fidelity needed to underpin efficacy trials. Future research should aim to
779 identify specific populations that could benefit most from the trauma-focused interventions described
780 here and research patient experiences of therapy and in-session processes through qualitative
781 methodologies to better monitor and understand the underlying mechanisms of change.

782
783 **Conflict of Interest**
784 AB, PF, PL, MS, LN, TN, JdV, LS are involved in the development, training, and/or dissemination of
785 mentalization-based treatments. Apart from this, the authors are not aware of any affiliations,
786 memberships, funding, or financial holdings that might be perceived as affecting the objectivity of this
787 review.

788
789 **Author Contributions**
790 AB, PF conceived and designed the theoretical framework and presented ideas for clinical
791 implementation. ER and LS first implemented the clinical framework and added to clinical material
792 included in the manuscript. JdV provided the clinical case material for the vignette. MLS drafted the
793 first version of the manuscript. JdV, ER, LN, LS, TN, PL, PF, AB contributed to the revision and final
794 writing of this paper. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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806
807

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1046 **Figure and textbox captions**

1047
1048 **Figure 1.** The interplay between trauma, attachment, mentalizing, and epistemic trust

1049
1050 **Figure 2.** Ellen’s re-enactment cycle

1051
1052 **Box 1.** The case of Ellen

1053
1054 **Box 2.** Enhancing Safety and Grounding Techniques in the Early Stages of Ellen's Treatment

1055
1056 **Box 3.** Ellen’s initial MBT-TF formulation

1057
1058 *Note Box 3.* The clinician and Ellen draft a shared MBT-TF formulation during the initial sessions.
1059 This formulation is inherently dynamic, changed and rewritten at regular intervals as treatment evolves.
1060 Ellen used this formulation as a basis to formulate *a relational passport*; summarizing in her own
1061 words why she attends the group, with a focus on the relational challenges she experiences. The
1062 brackets refer to mentalizing processes for clarification and may or may not be discussed (in other
1063 terminology) with the patient.

1064
1065 **Box 4.** Ellen’s re-enactment cycle

1066
1067 **Box 5.** Review Session Following Phase 1

1068
1069 **Box 6.** Ellen's First Trauma Processing Session

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1071 **Box 7.** Ellen’s Second Processing Session – Impact on Relationships

1072
1073 **Box 8.** Moving Forward: Ellen's Final Phase of Acceptance, Grief, and Further Growth

1074

1076 **Box 1. The case of Ellen**

1077 Ellen, a 47-year-old woman, has been living alone since her divorce two years prior. She is a mother
1078 to a 22-year-old daughter and a 20-year-old son and works in a home for elderly. Ellen's principal
1079 challenges include difficulties in forming relationships, isolation, recurring depressive episodes, self-
1080 harm, mood instability, and struggles with daily life management. She is plagued by persistent painful
1081 memories, dissociative episodes, nightmares, and physical ailments. Ellen was directed to a
1082 Mentalization-Based Treatment (MBT) program designed to address Borderline Personality Disorder
1083 (BPD) pathology. Additionally, MBT-Trauma Focused (MBT-TF) was introduced as a supplementary
1084 modular program to her standard MBT regimen.

1085 Ellen, the daughter of mixed parentage, grew up with a younger brother in a strict religious community
1086 in Turkey, where social norms heavily influenced and dominated daily life. Ellen's childhood was
1087 marked by maltreatment and neglect. She recalls her mother as perpetually anxious, fearing any
1088 misbehaviour from her children. Both her parents were prone to adopting a highly accusatory stance
1089 when they perceived their children's actions as deviating from social or religious norms, resulting in
1090 punishment. Her father, a dominant figure with a devout religious stance and substance dependency,
1091 occasionally exhibited violent behaviour towards his wife and children. She recalls being witness to
1092 extreme violent inter-parental conflict. Ellen became an anxious child, overly cautious about making
1093 errors and from a very young age, felt compelled to manage and protect her younger brother. She
1094 remembers being scared all the time, ruminating a lot over what she had said or done to deserve
1095 punishment (being sent to her room, or having to write out and practice prayers for hours), convinced
1096 that she was at fault and a bad child. A pivotal moment came at 15 when her mother decided to relocate
1097 to her home country with her children, forcing Ellen to adapt to a new country and culture, a transition
1098 fraught with challenges. At school, Ellen often felt singled-out, re-imbursing her belief that there was
1099 something wrong with her. Being bullied at school instigated her way of handling fear by retreating in
1100 herself, trying to block out her feelings. Feelings of guilt were intensified by seeing her mother
1101 struggling to build a new life, for which she would blame Ellen and her brother during emotional
1102 outbursts. Although Ellen managed to finish her education, married, and raised two children, with
1103 whom she has relatively stable relationships, she experiences recurrent difficulties in relationships.
1104

1105 **Box 2. Enhancing Safety and Grounding Techniques in the Early Stages of Ellen's Treatment**

1106 Ellen was eager yet apprehensive about her involvement in the MBT-TF program. To alleviate her
1107 concerns, therapists extended reassurance, support, and empathy, and provided an overview of the
1108 MBT-TF program's objectives and structure, which helped reduce her anxiety. Ellen identified as
1109 treatment goals, being able manage dissociative symptoms and share about her traumatic memories,
1110 along with being able to manage overwhelming feelings of negative self-thought and mistrust towards
1111 others in a way that would alleviate the need to withdraw herself and allow her to connect with others
1112 and alleviate her loneliness. In the initial assessment and engagement phase, discussions about her
1113 coping mechanisms included strategies to handle dissociation within the group setting. Ellen
1114 discovered that moving around helped mitigate the onset of dissociation, and she pinpointed three
1115 grounding techniques that were particularly beneficial. Additionally, she found solace in visualizing
1116 her dog, imagining being with her pet at home as a means to decrease arousal. Ellen, her therapist, and
1117 her group peers agreed to remain vigilant for signs of dissociation and to offer support as needed.

1118 During the individual sessions of MBT-TF, Ellen invited her adult son to attend a session with her.
1119 This provided Ellen an opportunity to discuss her traumatic past, much of which was previously
1120 undisclosed to her son. Although her son was initially shocked by these revelations, the disclosure
1121 facilitated a deeper understanding of Ellen's behaviour and its impact on their relationship, prompting
1122 him to offer his support. This process also allowed Ellen to reflect on her feelings of shame for not
1123 having shared her experiences sooner. The formulation of a crisis prevention plan was another critical
1124 step, with a particular focus on Ellen's propensity to isolate herself when feeling threatened. Her son
1125 committed to recognizing and addressing this behaviour by signalling to Ellen and actively reaching
1126 out during such times.
1127

1128 **Box 3. Ellen’s initial MBT-TF formulation**

1129 We have discussed your childhood and the difficult circumstances you experienced. It is unsurprising
1130 that you ended up becoming frightened and easily startled by others and don’t trust anyone. Your
1131 independence and trustworthiness were key strengths that helped you to build a life for yourself and
1132 raise your two children, who are doing well, which you can be proud of! Also, at work, you manage to
1133 overcome arousing and threatful situations, which is not easy but very important to you, as taking care
1134 of the elderly provides you with the sense of belongingness and connectedness that you often deprive but
1135 can long for as well. When you are with others, you are often scared and you mostly try to hide from
1136 others. You also rightly try to keep your past out of your mind most of the time, so you can function.
1137 When the past does come to your mind (in flash-back memories or nightmares) you panic and cannot
1138 think. We have called that ‘blow-up time’ and we need to watch out for it – when it occurs and if it
1139 occurs in treatment (*psychic equivalence*). Don’t forget, the first thing to do to get mentalizing back is
1140 to calm down so we will work on that first and have also agreed that your son will try to help you when
1141 this happens at home.

1142

1143 **Impact of traumatic events**

1144 Between us we decided that you will talk about a violent episode between your father and mother and
1145 try to express what you experienced when it was happening. You identified one particular memory of
1146 an incident in which your father was violent towards your mother when you were 10 years old, and
1147 you and your brother hid upstairs. You tried to protect your brother from witnessing the violence, but
1148 could not prohibit him from running down the stairs, after which he got hurt by your father as well. For
1149 you, this memory captures the violent atmosphere you grew-up in, as well as the feelings of fear, shame
1150 and guilt that you felt and still often experience. In sharing this episode in the group, you will try to
1151 listen to others’ responses as they try to help you express the experience.

1152

1153 **Relationship to yourself and others**

1154 We have talked about how you think about yourself (*I-mode*). Much of the time, you experience
1155 yourself as worthless and shameful and blame yourself for not protecting your brother from the
1156 violence and fear. Listening to others is hard for you as you constantly imagine that they are against
1157 you or might want to hurt you (*Me-mode personalised*). This might make you anxious in the group and
1158 difficult to consider what others say. You tend to care for others and might need to watch out for this
1159 in the group when others present (*Me-mode*). Hiding from others is your way of making it safe for
1160 yourself, with the downside of leaving you feeling alone and separated from supportive social
1161 interaction. As this might happen in the group as well, it is important to let the others in the group know
1162 about this. We will try to work together to keep you from completely distancing from yourself and
1163 others.

1164 **Hopes/goals/aims for the group**

1165 Change is possible if you can ‘borrow’ others minds to reconsider yourself. This is what the group is
1166 for (*generation of We-mode experience*). You want to be able to confront and face painful feelings
1167 without dissociating, and try to allow people to get to know you and connect with them.

1168

1169

1170

1171 **Box 4. Ellen's re-enactment cycle**

1172 Ellens' abusive background has left her hyper-vigilant in current social interactions, anxious and fearful
1173 of others' aggression. *Trauma reminders*, such as raised voices or (non-verbal) signs of criticism,
1174 trigger *trauma symptoms* such as intrusive thoughts or memories of her father's violence and thoughts
1175 such as "the other is out to harm me". Ellen's *deep-seated belief* in her worthlessness and self-blame
1176 ("I am worthless") and the *experience of the other* as malevolent fuels her suspicion towards others,
1177 anticipating harm or criticism from them. In response to feelings of self-blame and shame that dominate
1178 her experience, Ellen withdraws mentally and physically to manage her stress and arousal (*avoidance*),
1179 actively trying to avoid thinking and feeling and avoiding close contact with others. This, in turn,
1180 causes others to perceive Ellen as distant, instigating interactions that particularly resemble the
1181 traumatic relational patterns from her past (*re-enactments*). Others react by distancing themselves
1182 instigating the emotional neglect Ellen experienced as a young child, or conversely, try to re-connect
1183 with her in ways that Ellen experiences as intrusive by for example by raising their voices or make
1184 physical gestures in attempts to engage her, which in turn increase Ellen's need to distance herself.
1185 Arousal can get so extreme that she frequently dissociates. For example, at a young age, Ellen's
1186 children would persistently physically try to get her attention, which would arouse her even more when
1187 she was in an anxious mental state causing her to dissociate. Also, in group therapy, therapists could
1188 overwhelm Ellen with questions, instigating more internal chaos, anxiety. During the assessment
1189 phase, Ellen and her therapist addressed this cycle (see also Figure 2) and its negative impact on her
1190 friendships, jobs and, potentially, the treatment process. Over time, Ellen - with the help of therapists
1191 and group members - became increasingly aware when this cycle was activated.

1192

1193 **Box 5. Review Session Following Phase 1**

1194 In Ellen's group, the review session concluding phase 1 served to examine several key areas: the group's
1195 effectiveness in collaboration, adherence to established group values, and resolution of some
1196 interpersonal issues. Members acknowledged their commitment and efforts and recognized the group's
1197 challenges. Group members shared their anxieties and concerns about phase 2, many of which were
1198 shared between group members, which led to a feeling of mutual support and reciprocity. One member
1199 proposed instituting a check-in about how each person had experienced the group at each session's end,
1200 a suggestion that received unanimous support and was incorporated into the group's routine. During
1201 this session, Ellen expressed empathy towards other group members, noting that this mutual
1202 understanding helped her adopt a more empathetic view of herself.

1203

1204 **Box 6. Ellen's First Trauma Processing Session**

1205 Ellen selected a vivid traumatic memory involving her father's abuse of her mother for her processing
1206 session. Initially, she was concerned that the memory might not be deemed severe enough, fearing
1207 judgment from others. The therapeutic environment, enhanced by group members' empathetic
1208 responses, helped Ellen regulate her emotional response and engage in the processing work.

1209 As Ellen shared her story, the therapist's inquiries into her location, her parents' whereabouts, sensory
1210 details (what she saw, smelled, heard), and her bodily impressions, and physical sensations helped
1211 navigate through the fragmented and intrusive nature of her memory. A particularly distressing moment
1212 Ellen recalled was her attempt to hide upstairs with her younger brother, who, in his distress, ran
1213 downstairs and was also hurt. Sharing this incident evoked profound self-directed anger for not
1214 protecting her brother. Nonetheless, with the group's support, Ellen articulated these intense feelings,
1215 weaving them into her narrative and shifting from distress to a moment of relief and brief pride.

1216 During and after Ellen shared her story group members responded supportively, prompting reflection
1217 on the group's collective experience during the session. The therapists facilitated an exploration and
1218 validation of these varied experiences, carefully managing arousal levels. This dialogue and empathetic
1219 engagement, free from blame and emphasizing support represented a shift from Ellen's habitual
1220 patterns of re-enactment. Through these group interactions, Ellen experienced a sense of being
1221 understood, diminishing her self-critical views. A particular response from a group member, expressing
1222 concern over Ellen's self-criticism ("You were 10 years old, just a child yourself, you were not to
1223 blame!") initially introduced confusion for Ellen. This particular response offered a new,
1224 compassionate viewpoint, countering Ellen's fears of being judged as inadequate for not protecting her
1225 brother against their parents. Past experiences of criticism and shame had led her to isolate herself.
1226 However, facing a collective group response that understood her reaction, neither blamed nor criticized
1227 her, but instead provided support and challenged her self-criticism, presented a new type of interaction,
1228 diverging from her usual pattern of re-enactment. The process of considering alternative viewpoints
1229 prompted Ellen to question her entrenched self-perceptions and assumptions about others, aligning
1230 with her treatment goal of adopting a less self-critical approach and allowed her to question her
1231 proneness for withdrawal and exploring the possibility to connect with others. At the end of the session,
1232 Ellen was invited to formulate for herself a 'take home message' to further reflect upon afterwards,
1233 which she formulated as: 'Try to be more considerate with regards to the responsibility I carry for what
1234 has happened in my past. Not everything was my fault, I was still only a child! I may try to stop blaming
1235 myself and be more compassionate.'
1236

1237 **Box 7. Ellen’s Second Processing Session – Impact on Relationships**

1238 During her second trauma processing session, we first reflected upon Ellen’s experiences of her first
1239 session and the ‘take home message’ she had generated for herself. She has since used the message
1240 repeatedly as reminder to herself of the empathic responses she had experienced and the nuanced
1241 perspective this had brought with regards to her felt guilt and responsibility during the first session.
1242 She shares that she has been reflecting upon this quite a lot since the first session. Ellen also shared
1243 about how listening to the trauma accounts of others since her first session co-facilitated this process
1244 of reflection, as hearing others and feeling empathic towards them, impacted how she was able to
1245 reflect upon her own experiences, further mitigating her feelings of guilt and installing a more empathic
1246 understanding towards herself. The session then proceeded to focused on the exploration of the effect
1247 of Ellen's traumatic experiences on her self-perception, her views of others, and shape of interpersonal
1248 relationships. Ellen discussed her enduring fear of aggression and criticism from others, and how her
1249 feelings of unworthiness had hindered her ability to form friendships. She was able to describe her
1250 experience of loneliness and sadness due to the absence of positive relationships, and how her
1251 experiences of sharing thoughts and feelings within the group helped reinforce her desire for change.
1252 Ellen also expressed her perceived obligation to protect her brother, a responsibility she feels even
1253 more acutely for her children. Unlike in the past, where such emotions would trigger dissociation
1254 (linked to alien self-experiences of shame and self-blame), Ellen now found herself more capable of
1255 describing, understanding, and appreciating sharing these feelings with the group. At the end of the
1256 session, she added to her previous take home message: ‘Try to be more considerate with regards to the
1257 responsibility I carry for what has happened in my past. Not everything was my fault, I was still only
1258 a child! Whenever I start feeling like a failure and disappointment to others, try to take a brief moment
1259 to consider whether the other is really being so negatively judging me (and if so; then leave them be
1260 and turn to my trusted others!) or whether it is me judging myself and try to be more empathic and less
1261 harsh on myself.’”

1262

1263 **Box 8. Moving Forward: Ellen's Final Phase of Acceptance, Grief, and Further Growth**

1264 In the concluding phase, discussions centred on Ellen's journey through the processing phase, her initial
1265 hopes ("relief from all trauma"), the benefits she derived from the group, and aspects that remained
1266 unchanged. Ellen experienced grief for her lost childhood and anger towards the events that transpired.
1267 Unlike her initial self-directed anger, she now acknowledged her anger as a response to the actions
1268 done to her. Additionally, she expressed sadness over her parents' lack of emotional understanding.
1269 Ellen began to feel a sense of compassion towards herself, recognizing the undue responsibility she
1270 felt to protect her brother while she was just a child. Gaining a deeper understanding of the pervasive
1271 impact of her trauma and her responses allowed Ellen to view her reactions as natural and justified
1272 given her experiences. Moreover, Ellen experienced that in everyday life she had on multiple accounts
1273 been able to signal feelings of failure and disappointment, (i.e. triggered by feedback from colleagues
1274 at work), and recognize these feelings as triggers for high arousal, guilt and shame related to her past
1275 experiences. Being able to signal this had led her to feel a bit more in control over these situations, and
1276 capable of exploring for herself and – in some instances with trusted others - her experience in these
1277 moments, allowing her to connect in a more intimate way with her children and a good friend. She
1278 shared her plans to visit her country of birth with her children, aiming to share parts of her story with
1279 them, marking a step towards integrating her past with her present and envisioning a future of healing
1280 and personal growth.