



Complex Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder: A Review

Karmaşık Travma Sonrası Stres Bozukluğu: Bir Gözden Geçirme

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ABSTRACT

Complex trauma is a diagnosis that occurs due to repetitive, long-term and interpersonal traumatic events and its symptoms are different from post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Although many studies have been conducted on complex trauma for many years, it has not been accepted as a different diagnosis. The 11th Edition of the International Classification of Diseases (ICD-11), published by the World Health Organization in 2018, includes complex post-traumatic stress disorder, a new diagnosis, besides post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) under the category of "Stress-Related Disorders". In addition to the three diagnostic criteria of PTSD (re-experiencing, avoidance, and hypervigilance), 3 new symptoms related to self-organization have been added to this new diagnosis, namely emotion dysregulation, problems in interpersonal relationships, and negative self-concept. In this review study, firstly, the differences in the diagnosis of PTSD according to DSM-5 and ICD-11 were examined. Then, the history, definition and differences between complex PTSD disorder and other disorders were examined. Finally, studies on the methods used in the treatment of Complex PTSD were reviewed.

Key words: Post-traumatic stress disorder, complex post-traumatic stress disorder, ICD-11

ÖZ

Karmaşık travma, tekrarlayan, uzun süreli ve kişilerarası ilişkilerden kaynaklı travmatik olaylardan dolayı meydana gelen ve belirtileri travma sonrası stres bozukluğundan (TSSB) farklı olan bir tanıdır. Karmaşık travma ile ilgili olarak uzun yıllardır çalışmalar yapılmasına rağmen farklı bir tanı olarak kabul edilmemiştir. Dünya Sağlık Örgütü tarafından 2018 yılında yayınlanan Uluslararası Hastalık Sınıflandırmasının en güncel versiyonu olan 11. Baskısı (ICD-11), "Stres İle İlişkili Bozukluklar" kategorisi altında travma sonrası stres bozukluğu ile birlikte yeni bir tanı olan karmaşık travma sonrası stres bozukluğuna yer vermiştir. Bu yeni tanı, TSSB'nin üç tanı ölçütünün (yeniden yaşantılama, kaçınma ve hipervijilans) yanı sıra duygu disregülasyonu, kişiler arası ilişkilerde sorunlar ve olumsuz benlik kavramı olmak üzere benlik organizasyonu ile ilgili 3 yeni belirtiyi de içermektedir. Bu derleme çalışmasında ilk olarak Tanısal ve Sayımsal El Kitabının (DSM) 5. baskısının (DSM-5) ve ICD-11'e göre TSSB tanısındaki farklılıklar incelenmiştir. Daha sonra karmaşık TSSB bozukluğunun tarihçesi, tanımı ve diğer bozukluklarla arasındaki farklılıklar incelenmiştir. Son olarak Karmaşık TSSB'nin tedavisinde kullanılan yöntemler ile ilgili çalışmalar aktarılmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Travma sonrası stres bozukluğu, karmaşık travma sonrası stres bozukluğu ICD-11

Introduction

Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) was included as a diagnosis for the first time in the 3rd edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Diseases (DSM-III, American Psychiatric Association 1980). The data obtained from the essential and innovative empirical studies conducted for many years continued to be developed with the editions of the DSM in 1987 and 2000. They took their final form in the DSM-5 (APA 2013). Significant changes have been made regarding the diagnosis of PTSD in the DSM-5, the latest edition of the DSM. Criterion A is not only the key component of PTSD nosology, but it is also the most controversial. Many researchers criticized

criterion A in the DSM-IV for being too inclusive (Spitzer et al. 2007, McNally 2009). However, criterion A continued to exist in the DSM-5 but was modified to limit its inclusiveness. Criterion A of the DSM-5 requires "real or threatened death, serious injury, or sexual violence" (APA 2013). Stressful events that do not involve an immediate threat to life or physical injury, such as psychosocial stressors (e.g., divorce or job loss), are not considered as trauma. Another change between DSM-IV and DSM-5 is the number of the symptom cluster. There were three symptom clusters in DSM IV (re-experiencing, avoidance/reduction in reactivity, and hyperarousal), while four symptom clusters in DSM-5 (re-experiencing, avoidance, change in cognition, and hyperarousal) (APA 2013). Compared to DSM-IV, DSM-5 covers changes in mood and cognition such as guilt, shame, and insecurity as a

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new set of criteria. This new criterion has been added as they are commonly reported with PTSD, particularly in military incidents, emergency response, and individuals exposed to interpersonal violence. Conceptually, this addition represents an extension of the traditional fear response focus of PTSD to include other emotional reactions. This expansion resulted in the DSM-5 working group defining PTSD with four criteria and requiring at least 8 out of 19 possible symptoms (Galatzer-Levy and Bryant 2013). However, both versions require that the symptoms have been present for at least a month and that there is impairment in at least one area of functionality. Despite this expansion made in the DSM-5, unlike the DSM-IV, it remains a matter of debate whether the diagnostic criteria in the DSMs are sufficient, especially in terms of discrimination against other diagnoses (Brewin et al. 2017).

Recently published Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, fifth edition, text revision (DSM-5-TR; APA 2022) retained the DSM-5 PTSD diagnostic criteria with only one change. In criterion A.2 criterion, “witnessing the traumatic event does not include events witnessed electronically, on television, in films or pictures,” was removed for children who are six years old and younger.

Another handbook used to identify mental health problems like the DSM is the ‘Manual of the International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems (ICD)’ published by the World Health Organization (WHO). A comprehensive revision of trauma-related disorders is included in the ‘Stress-Specific Disorders’ category in the 11th version of the International Classification of Diseases (WHO 2018) published in recent years. Studies on Complex PTSD, which is accepted as a diagnosis together with ICD-11, are increasing day by day in the literature. This study aims to examine the diagnostic criteria of Complex PTSD, its prevalence, relationship with other diagnoses, and intervention methods will be reviewed considering the literature. Moreover, this review study aimed to inform both researchers and clinicians about Complex PTSD.

Diagnosis and Diagnostic Criteria

The PTSD diagnostic criteria in ICD-11 aimed to minimize overlap with other diagnoses such as depression and anxiety disorders and to capture a minimal set of criteria that capture the ‘essence’ of the post-traumatic event response. Diagnostic criteria for ICD-11 PTSD include (1) reliving the traumatic experience here and now, (2) avoiding traumatic reminders, and (3) an increased sense of present threat. Diagnosis of PTSD includes exposure to an extreme stressor and the presence of at least one symptom from each cluster (Hyland et al. 2018). The reduced number of symptoms in ICD-11 also reduced the combination of symptoms for PTSD diagnosis. In contrast, Galatzer-Levy and Bryant (2013) revealed 636120 different possible symptom combinations for the DSM-5 PTSD diagnosis criteria. Shevlin et al. (2018) stated only 27 possible symptom combinations for the ICD-11 PTSD diagnosis criteria.

One of the most important differences between the two diagnostic systems is the rate of co-diagnosis with mental health such as depression and anxiety disorders (Barbano et al. 2019, Bruckmann et al. 2020). The most recent versions of both diagnostic systems claimed that they aim to reduce the diagnosis of PTSD and various co-morbid conditions. However, most of the symptoms included as criteria for diagnosing PTSD in the DSM-5 overlap with other disorders. For example, sleep and concentration problems and irritability are common symptoms of generalized anxiety disorder. In addition, major depressive disorder is characterized by negative beliefs about oneself and the world, self-blame, decreased interest in activities, separation from others, and numbness. Therefore, the probability of co-diagnosis with PTSD is relatively high, especially in depression (Afzali et al. 2017). It is noteworthy that compared to the DSM-5 diagnostic criteria, the ICD-11 diagnostic criteria showed lower rates of comorbidity, especially with depression and anxiety disorders (e.g., Wisco et al. 2017, Oe et al. 2020). For example, Shevin et al. (2018) reported that 27.4% of the participants who met the diagnostic criteria of DSM-5 PTSD also met anxiety disorders and depression criteria. However, this rate decreased to 21.0% who met the diagnostic criteria of ICD-11 PTSD. In a study (O’Donnell et al. 2014) conducted with a sample of 953 injury cases, it was found that PTSD was associated with an 11% higher comorbidity rate of depression compared to ICD-11 according to DSM-5 diagnostic criteria. However, the difference was not statistically significant. In another study, Shevlin et al. (2018) reported no significant difference in the comorbidity rates of depression and anxiety disorders accompanying PTSD between the DSM IV-TR and DSM -5 diagnostic criteria. However, the diagnosis of PTSD made with the ICD-11 diagnostic criteria showed significantly lower comorbidity rates compared to both DSM-IV and DSM-5 diagnostic criteria. Another innovation in ICD-11 is the Complex PTSD diagnosis, which was included to identify broader and more complex post-traumatic reactions (Maercker et al. 2013). The concept of complex PTSD is not new and was included as a diagnosis for the first time in ICD-11. First, in the 1990s, Terr (1991) and Herman (1992a) suggested a meaningful clinical distinction between single traumatic events experienced by the individual and repetitive, long-term, and interpersonal traumatic events.

Herman (1992a) stated the long-term negative impact of chronic stress experienced by the individual on emotion regulation, self-regulation, self-perception, and interpersonal functioning. Herman defined this phenomenon as ‘complex trauma.’ Also, according to Herman (1992b), being a victim of childhood sexual and physical abuse, domestic violence, being victim of a commercial sexual exploitation, or the slave trade; or being a child soldier; who has been subjected to torture, genocide, or other forms of organized violence, show a different set of symptoms that can distinguish from PTSD. In support of this idea, studies conducted in the following periods also draw attention to the deficiencies in this area of functionality, especially in individuals exposed to childhood maltreatment. For example, some studies (Pollak et al. 2000, Maughan and Cicchetti 2002, Southam-

Gerow and Kendall 2002) showed that maltreated children have difficulty with emotional expression, recognition, reactivity, and social interactions compared to children who have not been maltreated. Charuvastra and Cloitre (2008) stated that the impact of interpersonal traumas are quite intense because social ties strongly affect the sense of self and relational and emotional regulation capacities. In another study, Cloitre et al. (2005) reported that emotion regulation and interpersonal problems among women with a history of childhood abuse were strong predictors of functional impairment beyond PTSD symptom severity.

In previous years, diagnoses similar to the clinical picture of Complex PTSD were emphasized. These include 'Disorders of Extreme Stress, DESNOS' and 'Enduring Personality Change after Catastrophic Experience, EPCACE' (WHO 1992, Wilson et al. 2001, Classen et al. et al. 2006). These diagnoses aimed to describe the symptoms in patients who have experienced a severe, recurrent, and/or traumatic event early in life. (Herman 1992a, Brewin et al. 2017, WHO 2018). Empirical studies (Cloitre et al. 2009, Dvir et al. 2014, Lonergan 2014) revealed that repeated interpersonal trauma experience (especially in childhood) hinders the individual's emotional and cognitive development and may affect self-organization skills. DESNOS was first introduced as a result of DSM-IV field trials. Initially it was thought of as an independent DSM diagnosis consisting of six symptom clusters: somatization, changes in the regulation of emotions and impulses, attention or consciousness, self-perception, relationships with others, and meaning systems (Ford et al. 2005). However, as a result of DSM-IV (APA 2000) field studies conducted to test the validity of the DESNOS construct, it was observed that very few of the participants (between 4 and 6%) showed DESNOS symptoms without PTSD diagnostic criteria. Therefore, this diagnosis did not confirm the idea of an independent diagnosis (Van der Kolk et al. 2005). As a result, DESNOS symptoms were included in the DSM-IV not as separate diagnostic criteria but as "associated features" of PTSD (Cloitre et al. 2011). Persistent and exaggerated negative beliefs or expectations about oneself, others, or the world, referred to in the DSM-5 as "complex"; persistent negative emotional state; reckless or self-destructive behavior; and signs of depersonalization and derealization have been included in the diagnosis of PTSD (Friedman 2013).

A clear concept related to complex post-traumatic diagnosis was recognized in the ICD more than in the DSM. EPCACE is a diagnosis in ICD-10 which was similar to complex PTSD. This diagnosis is characterized by a hostile or distrustful attitude towards the world, social withdrawal, feelings of emptiness or hopelessness, a chronic sense of "extreme" as if under constant threat, and alienation. It has been stated that individuals cannot be diagnosed with EPCACE and PTSD together (WHO 1992).

While PTSD (as defined by ICD-11) remains a core component of complex PTSD, it includes three clusters of disturbances in self-organization. This cluster comprises 4-emotion dysregulation, 5-interpersonal dysfunction, and 6-negative self-perception (ICD-11; WHO 2018). Emotion dysregulation symptoms include

hyperactivation (e.g., high emotional reactivity and anger outbursts) or hypoactivation (e.g., emotional numbness or dissolution) (Dvir et al. 2014). Negative self-symptoms reflect excessive and negative self-evaluations and persistent negative views of the self. Studies (e.g., Badour and Adams 2015) suggest that people develop a negative self-perception after exposure to a traumatic event (especially interpersonal traumatic events). Disorders in interpersonal relationships reflect difficulties in developing and maintaining interpersonal relationships (for example, feeling distant from others, having difficulty maintaining relationships) or displaying reckless or aggressive behaviors in interpersonal relationships. Social withdrawal, isolation, and disconnection from others are commonly observed results of exposure to interpersonal traumas at an early age (Walsh et al. 2010).

Complex PTSD and Other Disorders

The most apparent distinction between complex PTSD and PTSD is the traumatic event that the person experienced. Studies show that PTSD is associated with a single traumatic event in adulthood (Cloitre et al. 2013) or with multiple exposures to the same traumatic event (Glück et al. 2016). Some empirical studies (Knefel and Lueger-Schuster 2013, Knefel et al. 2015, Karatzias et al. 2017, Frewen et al. 2019, Van der Kolk, Ford, and Spinazzola 2019) have shown that complex PTSD is associated with long-term interpersonal relationships. It is related to multiple traumatic events experienced (especially in childhood). In addition, while anxiety symptoms increase in PTSD (Knefel and Lueger-Schuster 2013), depressive symptoms that increase more in complex PTSD (Hyland et al. 2017a, 2017b) come to the fore. The degree of impairment in functionality is also essential in distinguishing these two diagnoses. Cloitre et al. (2013) stated that participants diagnosed with complex PTSD showed significantly more impaired functionality than participants with PTSD. In addition, individuals diagnosed with complex PTSD show higher levels of dissociative symptoms than people diagnosed with PTSD (van Dijke et al. 2015, Hyland et al. 2019; Powers et al. 2019). Furthermore, exposure to a traumatic event early stages of life is a risk factor develop Complex PTSD symptoms than PTSD (Van der Kolk et al. 2005).

Studies conducted with community samples and self-report tools showed that ICD-11 PTSD and Complex PTSD have different prevalence rates. For example, in a study conducted in the United States (Cloitre et al. 2019), PTSD and complex PTSD prevalence was reported as 3.4% and 3.8%, respectively, according to ICD-11 diagnostic criteria. In a study conducted in Israel (Ben-Ezra et al. 2018) prevalence rate of PTSD (9.0%) is higher than complex PTSD (2.6%). In another study conducted in the German sample, the prevalence of PTSD (1.5%) and complex PTSD (0.5%) was lower than in Israel and the USA. These data show that PTSD and complex PTSD are common disorders seen in the population sample according to the ICD-11 diagnostic criteria (Cloitre et al. 2019).

A critical discussion about Complex PTSD defined in ICD-11 is

its similarity with the DSM-5 borderline personality disorder diagnosis (Lewis and Grenyer 2009, Kulkarni 2017). In the DSM-5, borderline personality disorder includes nine diagnostic criteria: emotional instability, impulsivity, suicidal or self-harming behaviors or threats, inappropriate or intense anger or difficulty controlling anger, unstable interpersonal relationships, intense efforts to avoid abandonment, identity disorder, chronic emotional emptiness, and temporary stress-related paranoid thinking or severe dissociative listed as symptoms. These symptoms are associated with significant functional disorders (APA 2013). There is a link between these symptoms of borderline personality disorder and complex PTSD symptoms (i.e., emotion regulation, relationships, and self-beliefs) and cause adverse effects on interpersonal relationships (Macintosh et al. 2015).

Moreover, Resick et al. (2012) suggested that all BPD symptoms, except for suicide and fear of abandonment, can be interpreted as overlapping with complex PTSD symptoms. In addition, although a causal relationship between exposure to trauma and borderline personality disorder has not yet been established (Ball and Links 2009), it is reported that approximately 97% of individuals diagnosed with borderline personality disorder experienced traumatic events in their childhood (Temes et al. 2017). Findings from neurological studies (Cattane et al. 2017) have shown that brain changes associated with childhood trauma, such as those affecting the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis, are risk factors for borderline personality disorder. In addition, dissociation is one of the common symptoms of complex PTSD (Hyland et al. 2019) and borderline personality disorder (Scalabrini et al. 2017). These findings have led some authors to propose reclassifying borderline personality disorder as a trauma-related disorder (Lewis and Grenyer 2009).

There are distinctive differences between complex PTSD and borderline personality disorder (Cyr et al. 2022). For example, characteristics of borderline personality disorder are present in various contexts from early adulthood, whereas complex PTSD symptoms must appear after one or more traumatic events (APA 2013, WHO 2018). Emotional reactivity is one of the similarities between borderline personality disorder and complex PTSD (Brewin et al. 2017). However, although present in complex PTSD, anger, suicide, and self-harming behaviors, which are evaluated within the scope of emotional reactivity, are more central symptoms of borderline personality disorder (Cloitre et al. 2014).

Moreover, changes in identity and relationships in borderline personality disorder are characterized by a view of oneself and others that alternate between extremely positive (i.e., idealization) and negative (i.e., devaluation) poles, whereas in complex PTSD patients are consistently linked with distrust of others. They have a consistent negative self-concept (Cloitre et al. 2011). As Ford and Courtois (2014) summarize, “excessive alertness to harm” is at the center of complex PTSD, while “hypersensitivity to perceiving oneself as abandoned” is central to borderline personality disorder.

Treatment

Studies related to the treatment of PTSD support the effectiveness of treatments such as trauma-focused Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT) and Eye Movement Desensitization and Reprocessing (EMDR) (Mendes et al. 2008, de Jongh et al. 2019, Lewis et al. 2020). These approaches have also been reported to be effective for a range of PTSD survivors, including victims of sexual abuse, refugees, war veterans, and motor vehicle accident victims (Foa et al. 2009). However, most of the available evidence regarding these interventions is used to treat a single type of trauma experienced in adulthood (Bisson et al. 2013).

Whether these methods used in treating PTSD are suitable for more complex traumatic cases such as Complex PTSD is a matter of debate. The “Complex Trauma Study Group” established within the International Association for the Study of Traumatic Stress (ISTSS) is working to develop clinical guidelines aimed at the treatment of complex PTSD (Weiss 2012). This group published the “Specialist Treatment Handbook for Complex PTSD in Adults” in 2012 (Cloitre et al. 2012). This handbook has been prepared to consider Herman’s (1992a) early work on complex trauma (Cloitre et al., 2012). Herman recommended a three-phase treatment plan for complex PTSD cases: stabilization, trauma memory processing, and reintegration. Although the duration of each step in this treatment plan is not predetermined (depending on the client), it can also be applied in short periods, such as a single session (Courtois and Ford 2013).

The first phase, namely the stabilization phase, aims to strengthen the emotional awareness and expression capacities while focusing on the client’s safety. It also includes psychoeducation, which provides information to the client about trauma and complex PTSD (Cloitre et al. 2011). Due to delaying the following stages, this stage is criticized as whether necessary for the treatment process (Bicanic et al. 2015, De Jongh et al. 2016). The second phase involves the exploration of traumatic memories first to reduce the acute emotional distress arising from the memories and then re-evaluate their meaning and integrate them into a coherent and positive identity. In other words, at this stage, the focus is on reviewing and evaluating the memories of the trauma to facilitate the mental reorganization of the traumatic event and its integration into memory. At this stage, the emotions arising from complex traumatic stress disorder are also focused on (Cloitre et al. 2012). However, the focused emotions are not limited to anxiety. Shame, anger, grief, and mourning are usually focal points (Courtois et al. 2009).

Regarding the third and final stage, two primary purposes can be mentioned: (1) to show interest in themselves by getting rid of the emotions developed in the context of trauma, and (2) to focus on “power and control feelings” in relationships and increase these feelings in the person. According to Cloitre et al. (2012), the transition to the third stage is a process that is decided together with the client as the complex PTSD symptoms of the client begin to subside. Some studies (Courtois and Ford 2009, Courtois 2010) have drawn attention to the importance

of working with the development of identity and self-esteem after clients integrate their memories of trauma and become aware of the losses, they have experienced due to trauma. These studies recommend focusing on developing relationships in the third stage, including working on social skills to develop trusting relationships and support networks.

Studies investigating the effectiveness of this treatment method (Cloitre et al. 2010, Dorrepaal et al. 2010) showed that this treatment approach is effective in the treatment of PTSD symptoms. Moreover, it has been reported to be effective in recovering persistent and pervasive emotion regulation problems, relationship problems, changes in attention and consciousness (e.g., dissociation), negatively affected belief systems, and somatic symptoms. The recommendation of a phase-based approach as a treatment strategy for complex PTSD has been endorsed by other specialist organizations focusing on trauma disorders (for example, the National Institute for Clinical Excellence 2005).

Van der Kolk et al. (2005) stated that patients with complex trauma histories complained more about functional impairments in affect and interpersonal functioning and sought help in these areas rather than seeking treatment to alleviate PTSD symptoms. Accordingly, it was argued that the main goals in the treatment of complex PTSD should be developing emotion regulation strategies and/or focusing on interpersonal problems (Cook et al. 2004, Stein and Allen 2007, DePrince et al. 2011, Brown et al. 2012, D'Andrea and Pole 2012, Blalock et al. 2013, Cloitre et al. 2013, Jepsen et al. 2013, Tummala-Narra 2014).

Conclusion and Recommendations

The diagnostic criteria for PTSD and complex PTSD proposed in the ICD-11 result from an attempt to develop a new international classification for stress and trauma-related disorders. These criteria in ICD-11 not only increase the clinical utility and applicability of the two diagnoses but also try to simplify the definitions for both diagnoses, reduce the number of symptoms, and clarify the differences as well as the relationship between the two disorders (Brewin et al. 2017). Brewin (2020) states that complex PTSD, as a new diagnosis, can be easily distinguished by clinicians working in a practical context and meets a long-discussed need. Besides its clinical benefit, it is also an important development for empirical research. For example, recent studies indicate that difficulties in emotion regulation play a mediating role in the relationship between negative experiences in childhood and mental health problems, especially PTSD (Alpay et al. 2017, Messman-Moore and Bhuptani, 2017, Crow et al. 2021). With the definition of complex PTSD in a classification system, complex PTSD should be investigated in future studies. Emotion regulation should be considered a criterion for this diagnosis rather than a precursor of PTSD, especially due to the neglect and abuse experienced in childhood.

However, empirical studies of complex PTSD are scarce, although it has been studied for a long time. One of the most important reasons for this low interest is the lack of measurement tools to

evaluate this diagnosis. After defining complex PTSD in ICD-11, Cloitre et al. (2018) developed a scale called the International Trauma Questionnaire to evaluate this disorder. The scale is currently translated into 28 languages, including the Turkish version of the scale (<https://www.traumameasuresglobal.com/itq>). Many recent studies (Hyland et al. 2017a, Vallières et al. 2018, Redican et al. 2021) show that this assessment tool is a valid and reliable measurement tool.

It is believed that this diagnosis is essential. Because many methods used in the treatment of PTSD have been shown to be ineffective in the treatment of this disorder, Brenner et al. (2019) highlight the need to develop and evaluate new interventions in rehabilitation that address the complexity of the new disorder with greater psychopathological burden and more intense impairments in functionality in stigmatized PTSD compared to PTSD. Some intervention modalities have been suggested to be effective in the treatment of complex PTSD. However, there is limited research on the effectiveness of these methods. More randomized controlled studies should be conducted on this subject, and the effectiveness of these treatments should be scientifically proven. In our country, it is seen that these treatments have not been translated into Turkish yet. These treatment methods must be translated into Turkish and applied.

Many studies with adults show that complex PTSD emerges from various traumatic experiences (especially negative experiences and multiple traumas in childhood). However, studies on children and adolescents are very limited. There are no studies on how this disorder begins in childhood and the protective factors and risk factors in the development of the disease. It is recommended that researchers conduct studies on the impact of complex PTSD and how it develops in child and adolescent samples. As a result of these studies, it is thought that the treatments can be done much earlier with the preparation of early intervention programs.

To sum up, the number of empirical studies showing that Complex PTSD, a very new diagnosis, is associated with recurrent, long-term, and interpersonal traumatic events is very limited. More empirical studies are recommended to increase the scientific evidence required for this diagnosis. Thus, clinicians need to distinguish these symptoms first and refer patients with this diagnosis to treatment programs recommended for the treatment of complex PTSD. Especially with the increase in studies on Complex PTSD in our country, it is recommended to separate these patients from PTSD patients and to apply for appropriate treatment programs.

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