Women in detention: Challenges and new approaches

Overview of women in detention

Around the world, women make up a small but growing portion of the prison population. According to the World Prison Brief[1] over 733,000 women and girls are incarcerated globally, accounting for about 6.8% of the total prison population worldwide. In Europe, the proportion is even lower, around 5% of people in prison are women[2].

While this percentage may seem small, it masks a deeply concerning trend: the dramatic and disproportionate growth in women[3]'s imprisonment. Since 2000, the global women prison population has surged by 57%, compared to a 22% increase for men over the same period[4]. This rapid rise is particularly severe in certain regions and countries. Both Asia and Oceania have seen their women prison populations more than double since 2000. Specific countries experiencing explosive growth include Cambodia, Indonesia, El Salvador, Guatemala and Brazil. The countries with the highest absolute numbers of incarcerated women include the USA (approx. 174,607), China (145,000), Brazil (50,441), Russia (39,153), and Thailand (33,057).[5-6-7]

While Europe has seen a slight overall decline in women's imprisonment, patterns vary significantly by country[8]. Excluding Russia, the women prison population in the rest of Europe actually grew by about 25% from 2000 to 2024[9]. Women make up approximately 5-6% of the European prison population, with notable variations, from as high as 9.5% in Malta and 8.5% in Czechia to as low as 3.2% in France and 3.7% in Bulgaria[10]. In absolute numbers, countries like Poland have seen their women prisoner population

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[1] Institute for Crime & Justice Policy Research. (2025, February). Female prison population growing faster than male, worldwide. World Prison Brief.
[2] Irish Penal Reform Trust. (2024, June) . Council of Europe: 'SPACE I' Annual penal statistics: Prison Populations 2023.
[3] Throughout this text, we use the term "women" instead of "female" to center the social and gendered dimensions of incarceration. Where sources use the term "female" (e.g., in data sets or reports), this reflects their original language. Our choice aligns with person-centered, gender-responsive language.
[4] Institute for Crime & Justice Policy Research. (2025, February). Female prison population growing faster than male, worldwide. World Prison Brief.
[5] United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2021, June). Data Matters No. 1: Nearly twelve million people imprisoned globally, nearly one-third unsentenced with prisons overcrowded in half of all countries.
[6] Institute for Crime & Justice Policy Research. (2025, February). Female prison population growing faster than male, worldwide. World Prison Brief.
[7] Webster, R. (2025, February). Global female incarceration on the rise. Russell Webster.
[8] Institute for Crime & Justice Policy Research. (2025, February). Female prison population growing faster than male, worldwide. World Prison Brief.
[9] Fair, H., & Walmsley, R. (2022, October). World Female Imprisonment List (5ª edition). Institute for Crime & Justice Policy Research.
[10] Eurostat. (2025, April). Prison statistics. Statistics Explained.

more than double since 2000, while others have maintained relatively stable numbers[11]. In England and Wales specifically, women make up 4% of the prison population, with 3,546 women in prison as of March 2025[12].

These trends reflect that women incarceration has grown faster than men's incarceration in many European countries over the last two decades. These alarming statistics require specific attention to understand its underlying causes and address the unique challenges faced by incarcerated women.

Understanding women's pathways to incarceration

Studies indicate that incarcerated women often follow different pathways into crime than men, reflecting different life experiences and vulnerabilities[13]. Understanding these differences is crucial for developing effective responses.

Women's pathways to incarceration are frequently characterized by economic hardship, poverty, low levels of education, lack of employment opportunities, and homelessness. These circumstances can lead to offenses that tend to differ significantly from men's patterns of incarceration. While men dominate statistics for violent crime, women are more often imprisoned for non-violent offenses, particularly property and drug-related crimes.[14] For example, in England and Wales, shoplifting accounts for 40% of women's prison sentences under six months[15], and almost two-thirds (64%) of prison sentences given to women were for less than six months[16].

In Latin America and Asia, 50-80% of imprisoned women are serving sentences for drug offenses[17], often stemming from addiction, economic necessity, or coercion by partners or family members[18].

Additionally, women in some parts of the world are incarcerated for acts considered "moral" offenses (like adultery or violating dress codes), for seeking abortions, or for running away from forced marriage or domestic violence[19]. In some cases, women commit offenses in direct response to abuse, such as

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[11] Fair, H., & Walmsley, R. (2022, October). World Female Imprisonment List (5ª edition). Institute for Crime & Justice Policy Research.
[12] Prison Reform Trust. (2025, April). Resetting the approach to women's imprisonment.
[13] Council on Criminal Justice. (2024, August). Women's justice: A preliminary assessment of women in the criminal justice system.
[14] Institute for Crime & Justice Policy Research. (2025, February). Female prison population growing faster than male, worldwide. World Prison Brief.
[15] Penal Reform International, Women Beyond Walls, & Global Campaign to Decriminalise Poverty and Status. (2025, March). *From poverty to punishment: Examining laws and practices which criminalise women due to poverty or status worldwide.*
[16] Prison Reform Trust. (2025, April). Resetting the approach to women's imprisonment.
[17] Penal Reform International, Women Beyond Walls, & Global Campaign to Decriminalise Poverty and Status. (2025, March). From poverty to punishment: Examining laws and practices which criminalise women due to poverty or status worldwide.
[18] Council on Criminal Justice. (2024, August). Women's justice: A preliminary assessment of women in the criminal justice system.
[19] Abasguliyeva, K., Misenheimer, A., Ram, S., Tromboo, H., & Tsoi, K. W. (2024, September). Prison in Pink: The Struggles of Female Incarceration. OxJournal.

retaliating against an abuser, or are pressured into criminal activity or taking responsibility for a partner's actions[20].

Rather than being serious threats to public safety, many of these offenses represent survival behaviors related to women's disadvantaged circumstances[21]. Yet punitive policies (such as harsh drug laws and crackdowns on minor crimes) have put many women behind bars, even when they pose little risk to society[22]. This is concerning, since imprisoning women for minor infractions often brings high social costs without clear benefits[23].

A system not designed for women

Prison systems worldwide share a fundamental problem: they were originally designed by men and for men[24]. Most prisons, from their infrastructure and security procedures to their healthcare and training programs reflect men's needs and patterns.

Because women constitute a minority of the prison population, their specific needs, risks, and pathways into crime are often overlooked or inadequately addressed within this man-centric framework. The 'one-size-fits-all' approach fundamentally fails to provide a safe, humane, or rehabilitative environment for many incarcerated women.

As a result, women in detention often struggle with conditions that overlook their gender-specific needs. Some key areas include:

1. Histories of trauma and mental health:

Frequently, women are victims of far more serious harms than the offenses for which they are incarcerated[25]. Women behind bars are more likely than men to have suffered abuse and trauma prior to incarceration. Research shows that over 90% have experienced some form of childhood trauma, including physical or sexual abuse, neglect, bullying, or witnessing extreme violence[26]. This early trauma often continues into adulthood, with high rates of intimate partner violence (IPV) and sexual assault.

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[20] Council on Criminal Justice. (2024, August). Women's justice: A preliminary assessment of women in the criminal justice system.
[21] Institute for Crime & Justice Policy Research. (2025, February). Female prison population growing faster than male, worldwide. World Prison Brief.
[22] Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Violence Against Children. (2020, December Leading human rights experts call for overdue implementation of the UN Bangkok Rules a decade after they were adopted. United Nations.
[23] Institute for Crime & Justice Policy Research. (2025, February). Female prison population growing faster than male, worldwide. World Prison Brief.
[24] Penal Reform International. (n.d.). UN Bangkok Rules.
[25] Abasguliyeva, K., Misenheimer, A., Ram, S., Tromboo, H., & Tsoi, K. W. (2024, September). Prison in Pink: The Struggles of Female Incarceration. OxJournal.
[26] Council on Criminal Justice. (2024, August). Women's justice: A preliminary assessment of women in the criminal justice system.

This continuous exposure to trauma contributes to high rates of mental health issues[27] among women in detention, such as depression, anxiety, PTSD, and substance use disorders[28]. In Ireland, for example, 57% of women under probation supervision experience active symptoms of mental health problems (compared to 40% of men and 18.5% in the general population)[29].

Mental health and substance use disorders are disproportionately high among incarcerated women compared to incarcerated men.[30] Women in these settings have a higher prevalence of victimization, particularly sexual abuse and different psychiatric presentations: more borderline personality disorder and depression, less antisocial/narcissistic traits compared to men[31].

A study from the Czech Republic found that among 31 interviewed women with lived experience of imprisonment, 27 had issues with drug use, often as a coping strategy for trauma or stress. A large majority (22 of 31) reported mental health issues, with anxiety (11 women), depression (11 women), and aggression (4 women) being common manifestations[32].

Yet prisons often lack adequate counseling, trauma-informed care, or gender-sensitive mental health services. This means women's psychological needs are frequently unmet, even though they may be more acute than those of incarcerated men.

2. Reproductive and healthcare needs:

Women have specific reproductive and sexual healthcare needs that prisons commonly fail to address[33]. Many incarcerated women are of child-bearing age and approximately 5-10% of women are pregnant when admitted to prison (in the U.S., about 2,000 births occur in custody each year)[34].

These women need prenatal care, proper nutrition, and arrangements for childbirth, all in a secure setting that rarely prioritizes such care. Even basic reproductive health can be neglected in prisons, with inadequate access to gynecological services, mammograms, pap smears, and even menstrual hygiene products.

The Bangkok Rules explicitly highlight that pregnant women and mothers require special safeguards and health services, and that shackling or isolating pregnant women should be prohibited as it can harm both

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[27] Penal Reform International, & Association for the Prevention of Torture. (2015). Women in detention: A guide to gender-sensitive monitoring (2nd ed.).
[28] Messina, N., Calhoun, S., & Braithwaite, J. (2012). Brief trauma and mental health assessments for female offenders in addiction treatment. Journal of Offender Rehabilitation, 51(1–2), 57–77.
[29] Probation Service. (2021, June). Towards a 'best practice' approach to working with women who offend.
[30] Council on Criminal Justice. (2024, August). Women's justice: A preliminary assessment of women in the criminal justice system.
[31] De Vogel, V., de Bruijn, M., Klein Haneveld, E., Leong, J., Robbe, E., Steunenberg, D., Verhees, M., & Vissers, A. (2023, January). Treating women in clinical forensic mental health care: A guide. Kwaliteit Forensische Zorg (KFZ).
[32] Mertl, J. (2023). Women with lived experience of imprisonment and their specific needs. Prague: RUBIKON Centrum.
[33] United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2014). Handbook on women and imprisonment (2nd ed.). United Nations.
[34] Wikipedia contributors. (n.d.). Reproductive health care for incarcerated women in the United States. Wikipedia.

mother and baby[35]. Furthermore, incarcerated women tend to have higher rates of chronic illnesses (e.g. diabetes, HIV, STIs)[36] and untreated health issues[37], often stemming from poor access to healthcare before prison.

3. Safety and dignity:

Women in prison are particularly vulnerable to sexual harassment, abuse, and violence, perpetrated by both staff and fellow incarcerated people[38]. Lack of privacy, supervision by male staff in sensitive situations, and invasive or humiliating search procedures can violate dignity and exacerbate feelings of vulnerability and fear.

International standards recommend searches be conducted by women staff, yet this is not always implemented[39]. The environment designed for security can become a source of further victimization, creating a cycle where the institution meant to deliver justice instead inflicts more harm. This reality directly undermines any potential for successful reintegration, as safety and trust are prerequisites for healing and change.

4. Family responsibilities and caregiving:

Most incarcerated women are mothers, and many were the primary caregivers for their children prior to arrest[40]. For instance, in Italy, at the end of 2021 out of 2237 women in detention 1426 were mothers (approximately 63,7%)[41]. These patterns extend beyond Italy: a large proportion of women in detention have young children who depend on them.

It is estimated that in 2020, more than 17,500 children in the UK were separated from their mother by imprisonment. Parental imprisonment can double the risk of poor mental health in children and place them at greater risk of poverty, poor health, and insecure housing[42].

When a mother is sent to prison, the impact ripples through her family. Children may be sent to live with relatives or foster care[43], and they often suffer emotional and financial hardship. The incarcerated mothers themselves carry enormous anxiety about the well-being of their sons and daughters.

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[35] Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Violence Against Children. (2020, December). Leading human rights experts call for overdue implementation of the UN Bangkok Rules a decade after they were adopted. United Nations.
[36] United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2014). Handbook on women and imprisonment (2nd ed.). United Nations.
[37] Vera Institute of Justice. (n.d.). Women's incarceration rates are skyrocketing. Vera Institute of Justice.
[38] Abasguliyeva, K., Misenheimer, A., Ram, S., Tromboo, H., & Tsoi, K. W. (2024, September 11). Prison in Pink: The Struggles of Female Incarceration. OxJournal.
[39] Penal Reform International. (2013). UN Bangkok Rules on women offenders and prisoners: Short guide.
[40] Council on Criminal Justice. (2024, August). Women's justice: A preliminary assessment of women in the criminal justice system.
[41] Associazione Antigone. (2023). Dalla parte di Antigone: Cartella stampa.
[42] Prison Reform Trust. (2025, April). Resetting the approach to women's imprisonment.
[43] Council on Criminal Justice. (2024, August). Women's justice: A preliminary assessment of women in the criminal justice system.

Unfortunately, traditional prisons make family contact difficult: there are fewer prisons for women, meaning they are frequently incarcerated much farther from their homes and families than men, visitation hours are limited and visiting arrangements may be inadequate and intimidating for children, lacking child-friendly spaces or sufficient privacy.

Women in detention may also face stigma as mothers; society often judges them more harshly for being "unfit" parents[44].

International standards and reform movements

The international community has formally recognized the inadequacy of treating incarcerated women identically to men and the need for gender-specific approaches. International standards have been developed to address these issues.

A very well known framework is the *United Nations Bangkok Rules*, formally known as the UN Rules for the Treatment of Women Prisoners and Non-custodial Measures for Women Offenders. Adopted by the UN General Assembly in 2010, the Bangkok Rules fill a long-standing gap by setting guidelines that recognize the specific needs and circumstances of women in the criminal justice system[45]. The core principle is non-discrimination, achieved by taking into account women's specific needs to ensure substantive gender equality[46].

The 70 rules cover areas such as admission procedures - recognizing vulnerability and allowing arrangements for children; healthcare - requiring gender-specific physical and mental healthcare equivalent to community standards, including trauma-informed care, reproductive health services, and substance abuse treatment; humane treatment and search methods - emphasizing dignified searches by women staff, and the care of children who accompany their mothers in detention[47].

Importantly, the Bangkok Rules urge authorities to reduce the imprisonment of women and to prefer non-custodial alternatives (like community sentences or treatment programs) whenever possible[48].

The Council of Europe has also addressed the situation of women experiencing incarceration through various recommendations and the *European Prison Rules* (revised 2006, further update 2020)[49]. These standards emphasize that imprisonment should be a measure of last resort, particularly for mothers of young children. They call for prison conditions that respect human rights (explicitly stating lack of

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[44] Easterling, B. A. (2012). Parenting behind bars: A qualitative study of incarcerated mothers (Doctoral dissertation, University of Tennessee). TRACE: Tennessee Research and Creative Exchange.
[45] Penal Reform International. (n.d.). UN Bangkok Rules.
[46] United Nations General Assembly. (2010). United Nations Rules for the Treatment of Women Prisoners and Non-custodial Measures for Women Offenders (the Bangkok Rules). United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights.
[47] Penal Reform International. (n.d.). UN Bangkok Rules.
[48] United Nations Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Violence Against Children. (2020, December 10). Leading human rights experts call for overdue implementation of the UN Bangkok Rules a decade after they were adopted.
[49] Quaker Council for European Affairs. (2007). Women in prison: A review of the conditions in member states of the Council of Europe.

resources is no justification for violation), tailored healthcare and hygiene provisions, protection from abuse, support for family contact, and consideration of alternatives to custody.

The existence of these detailed international and European standards clearly signals an awareness, at the policy level, of the specific needs of women in detention and the weakness of traditional approaches. However, the persistence of reports detailing inadequate conditions, unmet needs, and harmful experiences for women in prisons across the globe points to a significant implementation gap. In fact, today, implementing these standards remains a challenge in many countries[50], even as awareness grows that incarcerated women are a vulnerable group requiring special attention.

RESCALED movement

For women experiencing incarceration, detention houses offer clear benefits. Large-scale institutions often fail women, as discussed, but what if women were incarcerated in a more humane, community-integrated setting? Detention houses provide exactly that through three key principles:

Small-Scale: Detention houses typically accommodate only about 8 to 30 residents. This size allows for flexible, tailored placements and creates more personal, human-centered, less bureaucratic environments.

For example, the Bella Centre in Scotland is a Community Custody Unit (CCU) designed for a maximum of 16 women in custody[51]. Women there live in a setting that feels more like a domestic household than a prison, the unit includes private bedrooms and a shared living room and kitchen, fostering independent living skills.

In such an environment, staff and residents can build closer relationships. Each woman can receive a tailored plan addressing her personal needs, skills, and goals, with staff (often trained in social work or psychology) guiding her progress. This is a stark contrast to overcrowded women's prisons where individuals may be forgotten.

Finland's Vanaja Prison[52] offers another example of the small-scale principle. Housing up to 57 women, Vanaja organizes residents in separated small-scale house units for five people each, plus a special family house for mothers or fathers with children. This village-like arrangement creates a more intimate environment than traditional prisons. Each apartment house includes four to five bedrooms with shared kitchen and living spaces, fostering a sense of community while still allowing for some personal space. The small-scale design means staff can develop meaningful relationships with each resident and tailor support to individual needs.

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[50] United Nations Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Violence Against Children. (2020, December). Leading human rights experts call for overdue implementation of the UN Bangkok Rules a decade after they were adopted.

[51] Bella Centre – inspirational practices

[52] Vanaja Prison - Inspirational practises

This approach is especially helpful for women who have experienced trauma: a small-scale, calmer setting reduces the risk of re-traumatization and can be made truly trauma-informed in daily practice. In short, a smaller facility can more flexibly adjust routines and rules to accommodate women's mental health, family schedules, or reintegration programs.

Differentiation: This principle means placing individuals in the context best suited to their specific circumstances. So, there are facilities focused on different categories of people, for instance, a house for young adults, or in this case, a house dedicated to women. A women-only detention house can specialize in the women's experience. The staff are trained in gender-responsive and trauma-informed practices, and the programming is tailored for women (covering topics like healthy relationships, parenting skills, self-esteem, and women's health).

The Scottish CCUs embody this principle: they were founded on the idea that women's custody care should recognize trauma and be female-centered. For example, the Bella Centre and Lilias Centre (Glasgow) have a higher ratio of women staff and offer spaces that feel less institutional and more therapeutic. This ensures that women's unique needs, like abuse counseling or mother-child bonding are prioritized, rather than overlooked as they might be in larger prisons.

The prison for women in Řepy (Czech Republic)[53] demonstrates differentiation through its specialized selection process and treatment approach. The facility accommodates women between 20 and 70 years old who meet specific criteria, including the ability to work outside the facility. With a capacity of 56 women, Řepy divides residents into smaller groups based on security level (low versus medium). This differentiated approach allows for appropriate supervision while prioritizing rehabilitation.

Community-Integration: Detention houses are embedded in the community rather than isolated, allowing residents to remain literally and figuratively closer to normal life. This proximity has huge advantages for women. It enables better access to local community services, like healthcare clinics, mental health counselors, education and job training programs, or substance abuse treatment, because service providers can come into the facility or women can be escorted to appointments nearby. It also makes it easier for family and children to visit regularly, since the location is more accessible and visits can be organized in a normal, welcoming space.

The CCUs in Scotland illustrate this well: they were designed to allow for more open and family-friendly visits compared to a typical prison. Each unit includes family visit areas (like a community room and even a garden) that create a child-friendly environment, so children can comfortably spend time with their mothers. This setup promotes positive family interactions and helps women maintain their roles as mothers, which is crucial for their well-being and for the children.

Being integrated in the community also helps to reduce the stigma of incarceration. Neighbors, local authorities, and volunteers are often involved with the detention house, whether through information sessions, supervised visits, or joint activities, which reinforces that those women are still part of society.

[53] Řepy Prison - Inspirational practises

The economic argument for community-based solutions is compelling. Research by the Women's Budget Group shows that the cost per woman at Women's Centres ranges from £1,223 to £4,125 depending on their level of need, while a place in prison costs £52,121 per year. Despite this clear cost advantage, investment in Women's Centres tends to be short-term, inconsistent, and inadequate, limiting their potential impact. Community-integrated detention houses offer a similar cost advantage while providing the structure and support that some women need[54].

Vanaja Prison in Finland exemplifies community integration despite being located in a countryside setting. Residents regularly participate in local life, for example they shop at the community supermarket, access medical services, and work in jobs outside the prison. Most daily activities occur in the community rather than behind walls. The facility even contributes back to the community through services like gardening and by hosting popular summer open days.

Similarly, Řepy Prison in the Czech Republic has built strong partnerships with local organizations. Located in a residential district of Prague, the facility blends into its surroundings. Residents work in the community, including at a local daycare center for the elderly and a kindergarten. This mutually beneficial arrangement solves staffing shortages for community organizations while providing employment and social connections for women in detention. The facility's architecture, housed in a historic building rather than a typical prison structure, further helps residents maintain a sense of connection to normal life.

Overall, community integration means that women in detention stay connected to people, to services, and to everyday life, making the eventual transition back home much smoother.

Facilities embodying RESCALED principles can already be found in several countries, serving as inspirational practices for the movement. Scotland's Community Custody Units (like the Bella Centre in Dundee, opened 2022) demonstrate small-scale, community-integrated detention houses for women. Early reports suggest positive outcomes: women at the Bella Centre engage in local work placements and education, interact with mentors, and prepare for reintegration in ways that would be hard to achieve in a traditional prison. Other European nations offer additional examples, like Belgium's pilot detention houses for people serving short sentences, aiming to accommodate women and men in facilities that resemble home settings rather than prisons. Also, Italy has long used community-based "family house" prisons where detained mothers live with their young children in a 'normal' apartment-style unit instead of a cell, allowing the children to experience a regular upbringing. These facilities are all part of the *Inspirational Practices*, showcasing how detention houses can work in reality.

Conclusion

The evidence presented demonstrates that the traditional prison system is failing people in detention across the globe, regardless of gender. Designed largely by and for men, these institutions are fundamentally problematic for all who experience them. While women constitute a minority of the overall prison population, their numbers are growing disproportionately fast in many regions. Their pathways into

[54] Women's Budget Group. (2020, October). The case for sustainable funding for women's centres.

the criminal justice system are frequently marked by profound experiences of trauma, abuse, poverty, mental illness, and substance use, vulnerabilities that conventional prisons are ill-equipped to address and often exacerbate. The 'one-size-fits-all' approach neglects women's specific health needs, compromises their safety, severs vital family ties, and ultimately hinders their chances of successful integration in the society after their release.

International standards like the UN Bangkok Rules explicitly call for gender-responsive treatment and alternatives to custody, yet a significant gap persists between these principles and the reality within many prisons.

In light of this, detention houses offer a compelling and necessary alternative. By shifting from large prisons to detention houses, RESCALED envisions a justice system that is not only more humane for women, but also more effective for society. Women benefit from environments that respect their dignity, address their trauma, and keep them connected to their families. Communities benefit as well: because small-scale, community-integrated detention houses are more transparent and oriented toward reintegration, they can reduce recidivism and aid public safety in the long run.

This approach is taking shape, with two RESCALED partners working to establish new detention houses specifically focused on women: RISE Malta and a member organization in Spain are pioneering these efforts, putting principles into practice.

For women in detention, who have too often been unseen and underserved, approaches like detention houses offer a chance to be treated as people, not statistics, as mothers, workers, and community members who, with the right support, can successfully turn their lives around.

About the WOMEN Project

To address the challenges outlined in this blog post, RESCALED is proud to be leading the "Workspace for Mapping, Engaging, and Networking with, for, and by Incarcerated Women" (WOMEN) project.Through knowledge sharing and collaboration, the WOMEN project aims to create a paradigm shift from large-scale prisons to detention houses - small-scale, differentiated and community-integrated facilities that better support women during and after detention. The WOMEN project is a one-year transnational collaboration funded by Erasmus+ that unites three core teams from different countries:

- **Rubikon Centre**: A Czech NGO dedicated to helping individuals move beyond their criminal past
- **Silta**: A Finnish non-profit organization committed to increasing societal equality, participation, and welfare
- **RESCALED**: A European movement based in Belgium focused on implementing detention houses as an alternative to traditional prisons

By adopting a Human-Centered Design approach, the project incorporates multiple perspectives for a comprehensive understanding of incarcerated women's diverse needs.

With the support of Erasmus+, the project will develop and launch RESCALED Knowledge Workspaces, bringing together professionals, academics, policymakers, and individuals with lived experience to exchange ideas and best practices. This collaborative approach promises to enhance opportunities for incarcerated women to maintain integration with society while addressing the systemic issues that women face in traditional prison environments.

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WOMEN
DETENTION HOUSES WITH, FOR, AND BY INCARCERATED WOMEN