

Violence experienced by Brazilian female immigrants in Portugal

A violência vivenciada por mulheres imigrantes brasileiras em Portugal

La violencia vivenciada por mujeres imigrantes brasileñas en Portugal

Eliany Nazaré Oliveira¹ Félix Monteiro Neto²
Tamires Alexandre Félix³ Roberta Magda Martins Moreira⁴
Maria Michelle Bispo Cavalcante⁵
⁶Manuelle Maria Marques Matias

Abstract

This study aimed to analyze violence experienced by Brazilian female immigrants in Portugal. It was conducted in the first half of 2016, with 682 women over 18 years of age living in Portugal. Two types of data collection were made: online by the LimeSurvey Platform; and in person at the Consulates General of Brazil in Porto and Lisbon and the “Mais Brasil”

Association. Psychological violence appeared in a larger proportion; family and friends were the main source of support sought. The marital status does not influence on the violence suffered. The period of residence in the country had an influence on the types of offenders. It is believed to be crucial to create a policy that aims at transformation actions directed at the strengthening of public and collective consciousness of these female immigrants in the host country.

Keywords: Migration; Violence; Women; Emigrants and Immigrants

¹ Docente do Curso de Enfermagem da Universidade Estadual Vale do Acaraú - UVA. Docente dos Cursos de Mestrado Acadêmico em Saúde da Família /UFC e do Mestrado Profissional em Saúde da Família/UVA / RENASF. E-mail: elianyy@hotmail.com
² Doutorado em Enfermagem pela UFC. Psicólogo. Doutor em Antropologia Normal e Patológica pela Universidade de Paris V e École des Hautes Études en Sciences Sociales e em Psicologia Social pela Universidade do Porto. Docente da Faculdade de Psicologia e de Ciências da Educação da Universidade do Porto. E-mail: gleisson_nega@hotmail.com
³ Enfermeira, Mestra em Saúde da Família pela Universidade Federal do Ceará – UFC. Docente da Universidade Estadual Vale do Acaraú – UVA. E-mail: myrisinha@hotmail.com
⁴ Acadêmica de enfermagem da Universidade Estadual Vale do Acaraú – UVA. E-mail: robertamoreiraenf@hotmail.com
⁵ Enfermeira, Mestra em Saúde da Família pela Universidade Federal do Ceará – UFC. Docente do Instituto Superior de Teologia Aplicada – INTA. E-mail: michellebispo@yahoo.com.br
⁶ Enfermeira, Mestra em Medicina Social da Universidade Estadual do Rio de Janeiro (IMS/UERJ). Doutoranda em Saúde Coletiva do Instituto de Medicina Social da UERJ (IMS/UERJ). E-mail: manumatias29@gmail.com

Resumo

Objetivou-se analisar a violência vivenciada por mulheres imigrantes brasileiras em Portugal. A pesquisa foi realizada no primeiro semestre de 2016, com 682 mulheres maiores de 18 anos, residindo em Portugal. Duas modalidades de coleta de dados foram instituídas: online através da Plataforma LimeSurvey e presencialmente nos Conselhos Gerais do Brasil no Porto e

Lisboa e na Associação Mais Brasil. A violência psicológica surgiu em maior proporção; família e amigos foram os principais apoios buscados. O estado civil parece não influenciar na violência sofrida. O tempo de residência no país teve influência nos tipos de agressores. Acredita-se ser crucial a criação de uma política que tenha como objetivo ações transformadoras dirigidas ao fortalecimento da consciência cidadã e coletiva dessas mulheres imigrantes no país de acolhimento.
Descritores: Migração; Violência; Mulheres; Emigrantes e Imigrantes.

Resumen

Objetivo fue analizar la violencia vivenciada por mujeres imigrantes brasileñas en Portugal. Conduzido en el primeiro semestre de 2016, con 682 mujeres mayores de 18 años en Portugal. Dos modalidades de colectar datos fueron instituídas, *online* através de Plataforma *Limasurvey* y presencialmente en los Consulados Geral de Brasil en Porto y Lisboa y en la Asociación “Mais Brasil”. La violencia psicológica surgió en mayor proporción, familia y amigos fueron los principales apoyo buscado. El estado civil parece no influenciar en la violencia sufrida. El tiempo de residencia en el país tenía influencia en

los tipos de agresores. Acreditase ser crucial la creación de una política que tendrá como objetivo acciones transformadoras dirigidas al fortalecimiento de la conciencia civil y colectiva de estas mujeres imigrantes en el país de acogimiento.

Descriptor: Migración; Violencia; Mujeres; Imigrante

Introduction

According to the United Nations¹, the number of international migrants is growing rapidly worldwide. In 2000 there were 173 million, in 2010 already amounting to 222 million and in 2015 there were 244 million. Thus, a considerable increase in the number of migrants can be seen and an important phenomenon has happened in transnational migrations, namely the feminization. In Europe, the percentage of female immigrants in 2000 was 51.6, rising to 52.4 percent in 2015⁽¹⁾.

Farias⁽²⁾ considers that female migrants play an important role in all regions where they arrive. Until the 1960s, men predominated in labor migration and women migrated only for family reunification purposes, but currently there is an increasing number of women migrating on their own as

‘breadwinners’.

Portugal follows this immigration growth and the feminization phenomenon, and among the immigrant population in the country, Brazilians are in greater numbers. Regarding this group, Brazilians with official visas in Portugal totaled 87,493 individuals (53,537 women and 33,956 men) in 2014⁽³⁾. It is noteworthy that these data refer to individuals holding legal status, without estimating the actual number of Brazilians living in the country, since many are illegal.

Literature review

Immigrants face many challenges when they settle in a foreign country. Many factors influence this immigration experience, including the resources they bring with them and those they encounter in the host society. One of these factors is health, and especially the gender issue, which not only determines the specificity of diseases of women and men and the medical specialties, but regarding women it implies greater vulnerability in situations of exclusion, such as domestic violence, rape, trafficking, sexual exploitation and female genital mutilation. Also motherhood in migratory contexts can mean increased risks in the event of social and

economic exclusion during pregnancy or related to the newborn’s health⁽⁴⁾.

In recent years, there has been greater visibility of female immigrants, mainly because of the increase of autonomous female migration. But there is something negative in this migration process; many women are more vulnerable because they are in the immigrant position. The construction of a speech and the fixation as the "other", an image of which the immigrant is made captive, has consequences regarding the analysis of situations of violence to which these women are subjected.

Stereotypes about female immigrants are rapidly created and disseminated, and are reproduced in certain crucial settings such as courts, police stations or services. Stereotypes about these women are mainly based on three assumptions: they are passive, submissive, and unable to take care of themselves⁽⁵⁾.

According to the United Nations⁽⁶⁾, despite the benefits of migration, immigrants in general are the most vulnerable in society. They are often the first workers to lose their jobs when there is an economic downturn, they work in unhealthy settings, with lower wages, for longer hours and in worse working conditions. While for

many individuals migration is a capacitation experience, others suffer human rights violations, abuses and discrimination, particularly women and children, who are the main victims of human trafficking and various forms of violence.

All over the world, in rich and poor countries alike, women are being beaten, trafficked, raped and killed. These human rights abuses not only cause great harm to individuals but also reach the fabric of entire societies⁽¹⁾. Therefore, the legislation should ensure that survivors of violence are not deported or subjected to other punitive actions related to their immigration status when they report such violence to the police or other authorities. It should also allow immigrants who survive violence to confidentially apply for legal immigration status independently of the perpetrator. Another important recommendation relates to ensuring that survivors have the right to free legal aid, interpretation, and court support⁽¹⁾.

The multiple forms of violence that affect Brazilian female immigrants in Portugal are empirically evidenced in daily life; in general, these demands reach assistance and protection agencies in the form of request for help. However, silence over such violations prevails among these women, either

because of their vulnerability, economic dependence on the partner, being illegally in the country, not finding suitable assistance in the service network, or by not recognizing the violence they have been suffering. Violence suffered by these individuals is the product of social relations unevenly built and generally materialized against women who are in some sort of physical, emotional and social disadvantage. Social and economic inequality (poverty/misery/social exclusion) and gender, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation discrimination are factors that put people in a more vulnerable situation⁽⁷⁾.

For this reason, there is the need to carry out studies to identify the scale of the phenomenon of violence experienced by Brazilian migrant women and this investigation focuses the analysis on Portugal.

According to Duarte and Oliveira⁽⁵⁾, in the case of female immigrants the path to making a formal complaint may be even longer. The intersectionality theory applied to violence against women alerts that policies tend to be ineffective, since it is not possible to intervene separately on people subjected to double and triple experiences of discrimination based on oppression marked by gender, class,

race or nationality. These women are confronted not only with discrimination on the basis of gender inequality, but also with ethnic and racial barriers of the host society. Secondly, as a result, less restrictive immigration policies are needed as not to drive immigrants to seek refuge in clandestinity.

Given the context supported by the literature review, this article presents a study issue and three hypotheses (H):

1st How is violence suffered by Brazilian women living in Portugal characterized and what types of aid have they sought to cope with the situation?

H1: It is believed that the marital status of Brazilian female immigrants has had an influence whether they have or not suffered violence in Portugal.

H2: It is expected that the period of residence in Portugal has an influence on the types of violence and perpetrators of Brazilian female immigrants.

H3: It is expected that the period of residence in Portugal has an influence on the types of aid sought by Brazilian female immigrants who have been the target of violence in Portugal.

Therefore, this article was designed with the following objective: to analyze violence experienced by Brazilian female immigrants in

Portugal.

Methods

The research is a cross-sectional study with a quantitative approach carried out in the framework of the project entitled “Health condition and quality of life of Brazilian female immigrants in Portugal”, conducted in the first half of 2016 with 682 Brazilian female immigrants over 18 years of age living in Portugal. For the calculation of the sample size, we have fixed P at 50%, given that this value implies a maximum sample size. We have set a significance level of 5% and a relative sampling error at 8% (absolute sampling error = 4%).

According to the Portuguese Foreigners and Borders Service⁽³⁾, the Brazilian female population in the country was of 53,357 women. Based on this parameter, the population is infinite ($N = 53.357$), in which the calculation of the sample was ‘n’ size equal to 600.

For this article, we have used only the aspects related to socio-demographic information and data on violence, reported in the first part of the applied survey.

The study was presented to the consulates of Brazil in Porto, Lisbon and Faro, to the “Mais Brasil”

Association in Porto and to the Portuguese-Brazilian International Association in Santarem, with the support of and dissemination by these institutions. In addition, a group was created on Facebook (“Brazilians living in Portugal”), which served as base and support in the dissemination of the research in the social networks. Two ways of data collection were created: online via the LimeSurvey Platform; and in person in the Consulates General of Brazil in Porto and Lisbon and the “Mais Brasil” Association.

The inclusion criteria were: female gender, Brazilian, living in Portugal for more than three months, and being over 18 years of age. The information was compiled on LimeSurvey Platform, and the processing was performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0. Descriptive statistical analysis through Tests⁽⁸⁾.

For this study we obtained the approval of the Ethics and Research Committee of the State University of Vale do Acaraú (UVA), according to Process nr 1,692,063⁽⁹⁾.

Results

Introducing Brazilian female immigrants living in Portugal

Regarding age groups, Brazilian female immigrants are distributed according to the following proportions: 22.1% are between 18 and 29 years of age, 38.4% are between 30 and 39 years, 23.1% are between 40 and 49 years, and 15.5% are between 50 and 76 years. Regarding the period of residence in Portugal, 20% have been living in Portugal for one year, 25% between 2 and 5 years, 29% between 6 and 10 years, and 26% for over 10 years.

Regarding marital status, 27% are single, 48% married, 13% live in stable relationships, 2% are separated and 8% divorced, and 2% are widowed. On the nationality of the spouse, among women who have husbands, 57% of them are Portuguese, 37% Brazilian, 2% have Portuguese-Brazilian nationality, and 4% are from other nationalities, namely French (4 elements), Angolan, Cape Verdean and Spanish nationalities (2 elements each), and also German, British, Dutch and Senegalese nationalities (1 element each).

As for having children, 58.4% stated having a child and 41.6% have no children. In the sub-sample of those with children, 45% have one child, 40% have two, 12% have three, 3% have four and 0.3% (one woman) five children.

For the level of education, Brazilian female immigrants present the following distribution: 5% have not completed elementary education and 5% have completed elementary school; 8% have incomplete secondary education and 25% have completed secondary education; 15% have incomplete higher education, 15% have complete higher education, and 27%

have post-graduation. Regarding the housing situation, 69% live with their own families, 15% live by themselves, 10% live with a Portuguese family and 6% live with Brazilian friends.

Labor and the labor market framework are presented as follows: 21% are unemployed, 44% are employed, 17% are students, 5% are students and workers, and 13% are housekeepers / housewives.

Violence experienced by Brazilian female immigrants in Portugal

Table 1- Distribution of types of violence suffered by Brazilian female immigrants in Portugal, 2016.

	Not selected		Yes
	N	%	N
Physical	628	92.8%	49
Psychological/Moral	517	76.4%	160
Sexual	654	96.6%	23
Torture	668	98.7%	9
Human trafficking	674	99.6%	3
Financial/ Economical	627	92.6%	50
Intimidation	591	87.3%	86

In the sample, 23.6% have experienced psychological / moral violence, 12.7% have experienced intimidation, 7.5% have experienced financial / economic violence, 7.2%

have experienced physical violence, 3.4% have experienced sexual violence, 1.3% has experienced torture, and 0.4% has been subjected to human trafficking.

Table 2- Distribution of Brazilian female immigrants by marital status and having experienced violence in Portugal, 2016.

		N	% Yes	Standard Deviation	F	p
Have you suffered or do you suffer any type of violence in Portugal?						
	Single	182	29.7%	45.8%	5.18	0.159
	Married or Related	410	23.9%	42.7%		
	Separated or Divorced	71	35.2%	48.1%		
	Widowed	13	30.8%	48.0%		

Tests KRUSKALL-WALLIS

In the sample, the test value is higher than 5%. The percentage of women who have suffered or suffer some kind of violence is higher for separated or divorced women, and lower for married or related women. However, the differences between the categories of marital status are not statistically significant.

Regarding who was the aggressor, 11.2% answered it was an unknown person, 6.4% stated it was the boss / chief, 6.2% indicated the husband, 3.4% indicated police / law officer, 3.1 % answered ex-husband, 2.4% indicated the ex-boyfriend, and 1.6% indicated the boyfriend.

Table 3- Distribution of aggressors of Brazilian female immigrants in relation to the period of residence in Portugal, 2016.

		N	% Yes	Standard Deviation	F	P
Husband	1 year	135	1.5%	12.1%	4.039	0.007**
	2 - 5 years	166	7.2%	26.0%		
	6 - 10 years	192	10.4%	30.6%		
	over 10 years	175	4.6%	20.9%		
Ex-husband	1 year	135	0.0%	0.0%	11.97	0.000**
	2 - 5 years	166	0.6%	7.8%		
	6 - 10 years	192	1.6%	12.4%		
	over 10 years	175	9.7%	29.7%		
Boyfriend	1 year	135	1.5%	12.1%	.450	0.717
	2 - 5 years	166	2.4%	15.4%		
	6 - 10 years	192	1.0%	10.2%		
	over 10 years	175	1.1%	10.7%		
Ex-boyfriend	1 year	135	0.7%	8.6%	.680	0.564
	2 - 5 years	166	3.0%	17.1%		
	6 - 10 years	192	2.6%	16.0%		
	over 10 years	175	2.9%	16.7%		
Boss/Chief	1 year	135	2.2%	14.8%	1.895	0.129
	2 - 5 years	166	7.8%	26.9%		
	6 - 10 years	192	8.3%	27.7%		
	over 10 years	175	6.3%	24.3%		
Police/Law officer	1 year	135	3.0%	17.0%	3.553	0.014*
	2 - 5 years	166	6.0%	23.9%		
	6 - 10 years	192	4.7%	21.2%		

	over 10 years	175	0.0%	0.0%		
Unknown person	1 year	135	10.4%	30.6%	.381	0.767
	2 - 5 years	166	13.3%	34.0%		
	6 - 10 years	192	9.9%	29.9%		
	over 10 years	175	10.9%	31.2%		

* Significant difference for $p < 0.05$

**Significant difference for $p < 0.01$

Tests ANOVA**

The test value is lower than 5% for husband, ex-husband and police / law officer; therefore, there are statistically significant differences between the classes of period of residence in Portugal. The test value is higher than 5% for other offenders and there are no statistically significant differences between the classes of period of residence in Portugal.

When the offender is the husband there is a percentage increase related to an increasing period of residence (6 – 10 years) in Portugal, then it decreases when the period of residence is higher than 10 years; when the offender is the ex-husband there is a percentage increase related to the longest period of residence (over 10 years) in Portugal; when the offender is a policeman / law officer the highest percentage is for a 2 to 5 years period of

residence and lowest for more than 10 years; the differences between the classes of period of residence in Portugal is statistically significant.

In the sample, when the offender is the boyfriend, the percentage is higher for 2 to 5 years of residence in Portugal; when it is the ex-boyfriend, the percentage is lower for up to one year; when it is the boss / chief, the percentage is higher for 2 to 5 years and 6 to 10 years and lower for up to 1 year; when it is an unknown person the percentage is higher for 2 to 5 years of residence in Portugal; however, the differences between the classes of period of residence in Portugal are not statistically significant.

Among women participating in the study and found to have suffered some type of violence only 44.7% of them sought help.

Table 4 - Distribution of types of aid sought by Brazilian female immigrants who suffer violence in Portugal, 2016.

	Not selected		Yes
	N	%	N
Family	146	80.2%	36
Friends	147	80.8%	35
Police	152	83.5%	30
Religious Institutions	171	94.0%	11
Family Doctors	174	95.6 %	8
Consulate	172	94.5%	10
Portuguese Association for Victim Support – APAV	168	92.3%	14
Women Alternative and Response Union – UMAR	179	98.4%	3
Red Cross International Committee	181	99.5%	1
Porto Diocesan Caritas	182	100.0%	

In the sub-sample of women who reported having been the subjected to violence, regarding the kind of help sought, 19.8% answered that it was the family, 19.2% friends, 16.5% the police, 7.8% marked APAV, 6.0% marked religious institutions, 5.5% answered

the consulate, 4.4% reported family doctors, 1.6% marked UMAR, and 0.5% (one element) indicated the Red Cross; the Diocesan Caritas of Porto was not marked.

Table 5 - Distribution of the type of aid sought by Brazilian female immigrants to deal with violence and the period of residence in Portugal, 2016

		N	Yes	Standard deviation	F	P
Family	1 year	22	27.3%	45,6%	.384	0.764
	2 to 5 years	48	16.7%	37,7%		
	6 to 10 years	58	19.0%	39.5%		
	Over 10 years	51	21.6%	41.5%		
Friends	1 year	22	31.8%	47.7%	1.087	0.356
	2 to 5 years	48	18.8%	39.4%		
	6 to 10 years	58	19.0%	39.5%		
	Over 10 years	51	13.7%	34.8%		
Police	1 year	22	4,5%	21.3%	1.065	0.366
	2 to 5 years	48	16.7%	37.7%		
	6 to 10 years	58	17.2%	38.1%		
	Over 10 years	51	21.6%	41.5%		
Religious Institutions	1 year	22	4,5%	21.3%	.053	0.984
	2 to 5 years	48	6.3%	24.5%		
	6 to 10 years	58	6.9%	25.6%		
	Over 10 years	51	5.9%	23,8%		
Family Doctors	1 year	22	0.0%	0.0%	.442	0.723
	2 to 5 years	48	4.2%	20.2%		
	6 to 10 years	58	5.2%	22.3%		
	Over 10 years	51	5.9%	23.8%		
Consulate	1 year	22	13.6%	35.1%	1.612	0.188
	2 to 5 years	48	2.1%	14.4%		
	6 to 10 years	58	3.4%	18.4%		
	Over 10 years	51	7.8%	27.2%		
Portuguese Association for Victim Support -	1 year	22	4.5%	21.3%	1.281	0.282
	2 to 5 years	48	2.1%	14.4%		

APAV

	6 to 10 years	58	8.6%	28.3%		
	Over 10 years	51	11.8%	32.5%		
Women Alternative Union and Response - UMAR	1 year	22	4.5%	21.3%	1.493	0.218
	2 to 5 years	48	0.0%	0.0%		
	6 to 10 years	58	0.0%	0.0%		
	Over 10 years	51	3.9%	19.6%		
Red Cross International Committee	1 year	22	0.0%	0.0%	834	0.477
	2 to 5 years	48	0.0%	0.0%		
	6 to 10 years	58	0.0%	0.0%		
	Over 10 years	51	2.0%	14.0%		
Diocesan Caritas of Porto	1 year	22	0.0%	0.0%	.	.
	2 to 5 years	48	0.0%	0.0%		
	6 to 10 years	58	0.0%	0.0%		
	Over 10 years	51	0.0%	0.0%		

Tests ANOVA

The test value is higher than 5% for all types of aid and there are no statistically significant differences between classes of period of residence in Portugal.

In the sample, the types of family and Consulate aid are higher for up to one year and lower for 3 to 5 years of residence in Portugal; the help of friends decreases with the increase of the period of residence in Portugal; the types of police and family doctors aid increase with the increase of the period of residence in Portugal; the help of religious institutions is proportionally

higher for 6 to 10 years and lower for up to one year of residence; the aid of APAV is higher for over 10 years and lower for 2 to 5 years of residence; the UMAR aid is verified for the extreme classes of period of residence; and the Red Cross kind of aid is confirmed for more than 10 years; however, the differences between the classes of period of residence in Portugal are not statistically significant.

Discussion

The highest proportion of Brazilian female immigrants according

to age groups was from 30 to 39 years old, revealing that in general it is in a more mature stage that many women seek to migrate from their home countries. When grouping the ages from 18 to 39 years old the percentage is of 60.1%. The study conducted by Day and Rock⁽¹⁰⁾ corroborates this finding, demonstrating that the age group between 21 to 39 amounted to 73.3%.

Regarding the marital status, when grouping married women and women in stable relationship they represent 61% of the sample. Similar characteristics were found in the study by Gois, Marques, Padilla and Peixoto⁽¹¹⁾, were most were married or in a stable relationship (47%); the intersection of these data with the gender variable shows that there is a slightly higher proportion of women who are married or in a stable relationship when compared to men (48.3% vs. 44.3%).

Regarding the husband's nationality, the majority of Brazilian female immigrants (57%) have Portuguese spouses and 37% state that they are married to Brazilians. Other nationalities represent only 6%. It is known that international migration influences in different ways the framework of family relationships, given the increasing number of mixed

marriages between Portuguese and Brazilian both women and men, suggesting a growing trend. In Portugal, the situation of immigrants is quite different in this particular aspect, especially in view of the ethnical and linguistic identity. It can be observed that in the period between 1990 and 2000 there was a significant and continued increase of marriages between Portuguese men and Brazilian women⁽¹²⁾.

As for education, the results are similar to those found in the report "Migrant Women: Resistance and Transformation Agents", about Brazilian women in the United States regarding education level: 19.6% had higher education degree, 12.1% had incomplete higher education, 8.4% incomplete primary education, 5.6% completed primary school, 15.9% completed secondary school, 16.8% completed secondary education, 1.9% had no education and 19.6% did not declare⁽¹³⁾. There is a similarity in the proportions of both studies regarding full secondary education, 25% and 16.8% stood out, thus suggesting that most Brazilian women who migrated to Portugal and the United States have this education level.

In the research by Gonçalves⁽¹⁴⁾ the number of children was presented as

follows: 60% had no children, 24% had one child, 10% had two children, 4% had three children and 2% had more than three children. Both studies suggest that having one child is present in greater proportion among Brazilian female immigrants living in Portugal. About whom they live with, following the same trend as Gonçalves⁽¹⁴⁾, our study shows that 61% live with family/relatives, 15% with friends, 12% alone, and 12% with a boyfriend. The findings of 69% and 61% in the two studies suggest that most Brazilian women lived in a family composition.

Considering the labor aspect and migration policies, presently it can be observed that there is a new characterization of women's participation in migration flows concerning the labor market and labor circulation globally⁽¹⁵⁾. In the research conducted by Dutra⁽¹⁶⁾, 79% declared to be working, although only 29% had legal status in the destination country, and 21% were unemployed for lack of documentation that would enable them to be inserted in the formal labor market.

An important reflection on the characterization of women who migrate was made by Milesi and Marinucci⁽¹⁷⁾, stating that there is a progressively increasing number of women with an

individual migratory project, moving for employment reasons, not seldom as the main household provider. This new type of female migration is sometimes a result of the emancipation achieved by women in recent decades; in other cases, the geographical displacement aims precisely at this emancipation. Migration can be an instrument of women's empowerment, but this is not always true.

Although migrating alone, often women carry a family migration project: they must financially support the family with their remittances. The incorporation in the production space, therefore, does not eliminate the responsibility in relation to the reproductive space. This responsibility puts them in a more vulnerable position and, not rarely, forces them to accept harsh working conditions and tolerate heinous violations of their rights to guarantee the remittances. In short, there is no doubt that the profile of migrant women has changed, although this does not always represent an improvement in terms of autonomy and respect for fundamental rights.

The question "have you suffered some type of violence in Portugal?" was answered positively by 182 women, representing 26.9%. The types of violence declared in highest proportion

were psychological / moral (23.6%) and intimidation (12.7%). On the attackers, one unknown person (11.2%), the boss / chief (6.4%) and the husband (6.2%) were the most common.

According to Duarte and Oliveira⁽⁵⁾, violence is a scourge that affects developing countries and also nations and the most privileged groups of population. In Portugal, it is estimated that one third of women have suffered some type of violence, whether it was physical, sexual or psychological. When it comes to female immigrants this context becomes even more complex. The path taken by women victimized by violence is often a long and lonely one. The fear of reprisals, the sense of shame, economic dependence, fear of losing their children, among other equally relevant aspects, contribute to the fact that violence remains within the family space and is not reported. In the case of female immigrants the path towards denouncing may be even longer.

The contexts in which these immigrants live may hinder the ways of coping with any case of violence. Many have difficulties in dealing with the cultural patterns of the host country, making them more vulnerable in the face of various situations of violation of rights⁽¹⁸⁾.

Another important point that should be emphasized is that many women, even those in legal situation, fear the police and legal entities simply because they are immigrants and are not in their country. The scenario becomes more complex for illegal immigrants; they are particularly vulnerable, because they avoid reporting their victimization to the police out of fear of being deported. Thus, they feel coerced to remain silent about the crimes committed in the street or at home, which makes them feel more fearful and more cautious, limiting their lives even more severely. As a result, these women seek help only in extremely severe situations⁽⁵⁾.

Finally, it is important to remember that the violent processes and their marks can influence the process of mental health – mental disorder of the victims.

Conclusion

This research offers elements to the knowledge of the context of violence faced by Brazilian female immigrants living in Portugal. They claim to have suffered the following types of violence: psychological / moral and intimidation, physical, sexual, torture, human and financial trafficking. The attackers were: unknown, husband,

ex-husband, boyfriend, ex-boyfriend, boss / chief, and police / law officer. They have sought help from family, friends, police, family doctor, Consulate, Portuguese Association for Victim Support – APAV, Women Alternative and Response Union – UMAR and Red Cross.

For the three hypotheses, the first one was not statistically proven, that is, the civil status of Brazilian female immigrants does not influence the phenomenon of violence in Portugal. The second hypothesis was statically proven, as it was evidenced that the period of residence in Portugal influenced the types of aggression and aggressors. The third hypothesis was discarded because statistical significance was not found between the period of residence in Portugal and the types of aid found to cope with violence.

Some features of the situational context, such as the types of violence suffered and the aid sought for, are important diagnoses to build support and protection strategies for this population group.

It is understood that all these aspects require further analysis, but it is also considered that the material on this article can be a starting point for reflection and production of knowledge

on the issue of female immigrants, mainly related to migration and violence.

Limitations of this study can be considered the fact that we have not included a qualitative deepening, where the contexts of situations of violence could be a counterpoint, thus enriching the diagnosis presented.

Finally, we believe that it is crucial to create a policy that aims at transformation actions directed to strengthening public and collective consciousness of these female immigrants against various forms of violence, not reducing them, however, to the category of passive victims nor subjecting them to the stigmatization and exclusion processes in the country where they have chosen to live.

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank the College of Science of Education and Psychology of the University of Porto, in Portugal, and the State University of Vale do Acaraú (UVA), Ceará, and the Government of the State of Ceará, in Brazil.

References

1. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Handbook for Legislation on Violence

- against Women [Internet]. New York; 2010 [acesso em 10 nov 2016]. Disponível em:http://www.compromissoeatitude.org.br/wpcontent/uploads/2012/11/UN_DAW_2009HandbookforlegislationonVAW.pdf
2. Faria MRF. Migrações internacionais no plano multilateral: reflexões para a política externa brasileira [tese]. Brasília (DF): Fundação Alexandre de Gusmão; 2015.
 3. Dias P, Machado R, Oliveira A. Relatório de Imigração, Fronteiras e Asilo. Barcarena; Serviço de Estrangeiros e Fronteiras (SEF) [Internet], 2015 [acesso em 2016 jul 01]. Disponível em: http://sefstat.sef.pt/Docs/Rifa_2015.pdf
 4. Padilla B. Saúde dos imigrantes: multidimensionalidade, desigualdades e acessibilidade em Portugal. *Rev Inter Mob Hum* [Internet]. 2013 Jan/Jun [acesso em 10 nov 2016]; 21(40): 49-68. Disponível em: <http://www.csem.org.br/remhu/index.php/remhu/article/view/363/322>
 5. Duarte M, Oliveira A. Mulheres nas margens: a violência doméstica e as mulheres imigrantes. *Sociologia (FLUP)* [Internet]. 2012 [acesso em 12 nov 2016]; 23: 223-237. Disponível em: http://www.scielo.mec.pt/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S0872-34192012000100012&lng=pt&nrm=iso
 6. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs. *International Migration Report 2015: Highlights* [Internet]. New York; 2015 [acesso em 30 nov 2016]. Disponível em: <http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/publications/migrationreport/docs/MigrationReport2015.pdf>
 7. Silva VL. Tráfico de pessoas e desigualdades sociais no contexto da globalização. In: Ministério da Saúde (BR). Secretaria de Atenção à Saúde. Departamento de Ações Programáticas Estratégicas. *Universidade de Brasília. Saúde, migração, tráfico e violência contra mulheres: o que o SUS precisa saber*. 1a ed. Brasília; 2013. p. 157-67.
 8. Guimarães RC, Cabral JAS. *Estatística*. 2ª edição. Porto (POR): Verlag Dashöfer; 2010.
 9. Ministério da Saúde (BR), Conselho Nacional de Saúde. Resolução 466, de 12 de dezembro de 2012. Dispõe sobre diretrizes e normas regulamentadoras de pesquisas envolvendo seres humanos. Brasília; 2012 [acesso em 30 out 2016]. Disponível em: <http://conselho.saude.gov.br/resolucoes/2012/Reso466.pdf>
 10. Dias S, Rocha C, Horta R. *Saúde sexual e reprodutiva de mulheres imigrantes africanas e brasileiras – Um estudo Qualitativo*. Lisboa: ACIDI; 2009.
 11. Góis P, Marques JC, Padilla B, Peixoto J. Segunda ou terceira vaga? As características da imigração brasileira recente em Portugal. In: Padilla B, Xavier, M, editores. *Migrações entre Portugal e América Latina*. Lisboa: ACIDI; 2009. p. 111-133.

12. Bógus LMM. Esperança além-mar: Portugal no “arquipélago migratório” brasileiro. In: Malheiros J M, editores. Imigração brasileira em Portugal. Lisboa: ACIDI; 2007. p. 39-58.
13. Centro Scalabriniano de Estudos Migratórios. Relatório Mulher Migrante: Agente de resistência e transformação [Internet]. Brasília: CSEM; 2014 [acesso em 27 nov 2016]. 112 p. Disponível em: http://csem.org.br/images/livros/caminhos/Relatorio_de_pesquisa_CSEM_Mulheres_migrantes.pdf
14. Gonçalves V. Educação e Sociedade: A realidade da educação/ formação na vida da imigração brasileira em Portugal. Revista Migrações [Internet]. 2015 [acesso em 27 nov 2016]; 12: 113-36. Disponível em: <http://www.om.acm.gov.pt/publicacoes-om/revista-migracoes>
15. Centro Scalabriniano de Estudos Migratórios. Resenha migrações na atualidade: Dignidade humana e mulheres migrantes. Brasília: CSEM; 2015. 46 p.
16. Dutra D. Mulheres, migrantes, trabalhadoras: a segregação no mercado de trabalho. Rev. Interdiscip Mobil Hum [Internet]. 2013 [acesso em 27 nov 2016]; 21(40): 177-93. Disponível em: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S1980-85852013000100011>
17. Milesi R, Marinucci R. Mulheres migrantes e refugiadas a serviço do desenvolvimento humano dos outros [Homepage]. 2016 [acesso em 27 nov 2016]. Disponível em:

<http://www.migrante.org.br/index.php/migrantes2/321-artigo-mulheres-migrantes-e-refugiadas-a-servico-do-desenvolvimento-humano-dos-outros>

18. Rodrigues RA, Espinosa LMC. ¿Cómo mujeres inmigrantes enfrentan la violencia en la relación de pareja? Estud psicol (Natal) [Internet]. 2014 Mar [acesso em 28 nov 2016]; 19(1): 4-12. Disponível em: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S1413-294X2014000100002>

Recebido: 27/01/2017

Revisado: 03/10/2017

Aprovado: 27/04/2017