

**A systematic study on Fatherhood identity and the impact of
unemployment in South Africa and other African countries**

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Declaration

Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Social Science (Clinical Psychology) in the School of Applied Human Sciences, College of Humanities, University of KwaZulu-Natal.

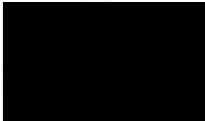
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Signature of Student

S'thombe Gumede



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Dr Phindile L. Mayaba

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I am thankful to the Lord Almighty for walking me through this challenging yet rewarding journey. To my family for always believing in me, mama this degree is for you, thank you for your constant prayers.

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To my friends, who have become family. Thank you for your unwavering support.

To my loving children, we have many distinct roles in this world, being your mother has been the greatest. I hope you soar above all obstacles and that you always remember you can become anything you set your mind to. I pray that as you grow, you learn to trust in your abilities. Work hard, follow your dreams, and live your best life.

The field of psychology gets tiring and painful, it is competitive and demands so much from a person. However, we shall triumph; this has been a journey worth travelling. To reaching many more stars, the sky is not the limit.

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Abstract

Fatherhood identity has been associated with their ability to fulfil societal gender role expectations. Historically, the role of fathers consisted of the caregiving role. However, due to the post-industrial revolution, fathers were forced to leave their families for work purposes. The separation between mothers and fathers resulted to the separation of work and family life which led to fathers identifying with the provider role. Black South African fathers in particular, were then socially constructed to be breadwinners who stayed in the city, leaving their partners and family to take care of the children (Lesenjane, 2006). This systematic review showed that the available literature on this topic has focused mostly on Black fathers and the reasons for this are not clear at this point. Other parts of Africa have not focused on this topic, which limited the number of studies representing Africa as a whole.

This systematic review focused on a social constructionist framework which looked at fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment in South Africa and other African countries. The review intended to contribute to the gap in literature regarding fatherhood. Previous studies have based their research on motherhood and the challenges in which mothers have encountered, however, the struggles encountered by fathers have not been fully addressed. A total number of 55 studies were extracted and the findings offer insight pertaining to fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment.

Key words: Fatherhood, identity, provider role, gender, social constructionism, South African, African.

Iqoqa

Ubunikazi bobaba buhlotschaniswe namandla obaba okufeza okulindelwe yiqhaza lobulili emphakathini. Ngokomlando, indima yobaba yayihlanganisa indima yokunakekela njengenye yezindima zabo eziphambili. Kodwa-ke, ngenxa yenguquko eyenzeka ngemuva kwezimboni, obaba baphoqeleka ukuba bashiye imindeni yabo ngenxa yezinjongo zomsebenzi. Ukwehlukaniswa phakathi komama nobaba kuholele ekwehlukaneni komsebenzi nempilo yomndeni, okuholele ekutheni obaba bakhombe ngendima yomhlinzeki. Obaba abamnyama baseNingizimu Afrika, ikakhulukazi, ngaleso sikhathi babakhelwa umphakathi ukuba babe ngabondli abahlala edolobheni, beshiya abalingani babo nemindeni yabo ukuba banakekele izingane (Lensenjane, 2006). Lokhu kubuyekeza kukhombisile ukuthi imibhalo etholakalayo ngalesi sihloko igxile kakhulu kobaba abamnyama futhi izizathu zalokhu azicaci okwamanje. Ezinye izingxenye ze-Afrika azigxile kulesi sihloko, esikhawulele inani lezifundo ezimele i-Afrika yonkana.

Lokhu kubuyekwezwa okuhlelekile okulinganiselwe kugxile ohlakeni lokwakhiwa kwezenhlalakahle olwalubheka ubunikazi bukababa nomthelela wokuntuleka kwemisebenzi eNingizimu Afrika nakwamanye amazwe ase-Afrika. Ukubuyekeza kuhlose ukufaka isandla kwiqoqa lezincwadi eziphathelene nobaba. Ucwangingo lwangaphambilini lugxile komama kanye nezinsalelo abahlangabezane nazo, kepha ke, izingqinamba obaba abahlangabezane nazo azange kubhekwane nazo ngokuphelele. Yinani eliphelele lezifundo ezingamashumi amahlanu nanhlanu ezitonyuliwe futhi imiphumela inikeza ukuqonda okuphathelene nobunikazi bukababa kanye nomthelela wokungasebenzi.

Amagama angukhiye: Ubaba/indima yobaba, ubunikazi, Indima yomhlinzeki, ubulili, ukwakha umphakathi, Iningizimu Afrika, iAfrika

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

Fatherhood and father identity have been investigated over the years, and this concept has changed through the decades. However, society has continued to reinforce the link between motherhood and care, and fatherhood with work. Research has described fathers in a multidimensional picture of what fatherhood is and has offered a wide variety of perspectives where fatherhood can be understood in a biological, cultural, and social context (Mitchell et al., 2007). Fatherhood cannot be studied or understood independently from the factors which influence it and contribute to giving meaning to it. There has been a change in gender roles over the years and a strong perception that fathers have neglected their roles due to factors such as unemployment, poverty, gender power and income inequality (Chili, 2013). Over the past few decades, major world conferences and summits under the United Nations have called for attention towards issues affecting family roles, responsibilities, and men's participation in family life (Barker & Pawlak, 2011).

Although fathers are still seen as mostly economic providers and disciplinarians, they have slowly taken over new responsibilities, which include caregiving and providing emotional support. However, there has been a few studies which have been systematically collected to further understand these changes in depth. Furthermore, although research has focused on the high rate of absent fathers and poor support, some research suggests that many fathers still try to support their children despite their living conditions (Richter et al., 2012).

The identity of fatherhood has been constructed over the years through their ability to provide for their families. Around the year 1936, many fathers moved away from home to earn money on the mines of the Witwatersrand or in the sugar-cane fields of KwaZulu Natal. However, other fathers resided in the rural parts of South Africa, on land which enabled them to harvest and milk throughout the year in order to provide for their homestead (Wilson, 2006). Although most fathers in the rural areas lived in poor communities, with no income or material resources, many lived reasonably secure lives within supportive communities and had access to food. However, some were left destitute and were forced to travel away from home to look for work (Townsend et al., 2006). Previous research also found that most young fathers denied paternity due to financial constraints, which resulted to them being shamed and ridiculed by their partner's family (Bhana & Nkani, 2014). Bhana and Nkani further indicated that

fatherhood was and is still viewed as a financial burden for most men, as a result, many fathers have contemplated taking responsibility.

The image of fatherhood in the southern African region, has been undergoing crucial changes over the years, particularly Black African fathers. The socio-cultural and political changes have contributed to their status of “authority” being slowly undermined; this has resulted to increased conflicts between men and women, older and younger men, rural and urban systems which have all been in pursuit of authority (Lesejane, 2006). The conflict has come after years of hierarchical and patriarchal authority, where fathers were acknowledged as the ultimate power. However, this symbol of fatherhood no longer has national resonance. Although many fathers were honoured as good, wise, and protective providers, there has been increased cases of violence and sexual abuse which has tarnished their image (Boonzaier,2005).

Furthermore, fatherhood is still viewed as a vital role which has been associated with positive outcomes for the household, such as increased protection, children’s improved access to resources and a higher level of expenditure (Redpath et al., 2008). However, many fathers have been excluded from playing an active role due to economic difficulties, and this has had a social and psychological impact (Mavungu, 2013).

This systematic review will draw on masculinity and fatherhood identity, which are both socially constructed but are also influenced by traditional practises and personhood. Furthermore, it will explore literature on how these constructs have formed over the years whilst incorporating the changes which fathers have encountered whilst fulfilling the expectation of a provider role. This systematic review also aims to contribute to the relatively few studies which focus solely on fathers. Dabula (2018) stated that the South African databases did not reveal the number of profiled fathers in the country which also indicates the low interest of research in this area.

1.2 Problem Statement

Literature on fatherhood and father identity has been growing slowly over the years. However, this concept has changed through the decades; although society has continued to reinforce the link between motherhood and care, and fatherhood with work. Fatherhood has been understood as an integral element in the construction of masculinities and many have questioned their masculinity and identity due to the inability to provide for their families. Although many have sought work to live up to societal expectations, some have struggled to fulfil the expected “providing” role which has contributed to many challenges. Therefore,

gaining an understanding on these challenges is crucial in order to identify interventions that will enable fathers to fulfil their roles whilst receiving support.

1.3 Research aim:

This is a systematic review which explores fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment.

1.4 The study objectives and research questions

The main objectives of the study are as follows:

- i. To systematically explore Black African fatherhood identity over the years.
- ii. To explore what constitutes being a good father.
- iii. To establish how unemployment affects fatherhood identity.

The study was guided by the following research questions:

- i. How do fathers perceive their identity as fathers?
- ii. Do fathers believe they have carried out social constructions of a good father?
- iii. How has unemployment affected fatherhood in an African context?

1.5 Significance of the study

A study on fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment has the potential to contribute towards the understanding and the impact in which socially constructed phenomena may have towards a specific society. The study hopes to uncover how fathers have viewed their roles over the years and whether unemployment has limited their ability to play their role in society. Identifying these factors will hopefully aid to guide professionals such as social workers, psychologists and legal practitioners to better assist fathers who find themselves in compromised situations.

1.6 Scope and limitations of the study

Conducting a systematic review was challenging and finding a sufficient number of relevant studies was a limitation. This systematic review was limited to 64 studies which focused on either fatherhood identity or the impact of unemployment. The process of reviewing, analysing and synthesising data was time consuming. Wright et al. (2007) stated that the process of conducting a systematic review is subject to biases which can either be because of language or publication. Publication bias often occurs when the reviewer selects studies that are positive for their study but excludes studies which may have a negative impact

on their study. The researcher had to ensure that such biases were prevented by going through a thorough selection process which included all the relevant studies. Furthermore, copyright breaches were prevented by including references and studies which are in the public domain. Therefore, permission and ethical clearance was not required from the publishing authors.

1.7 Clarification of used concepts

The following concepts will form part of the study:

Father: Makusha (2013) stated that father means male parent, and this is derived from the Latin word “pater”. A father is an individual who takes the responsibility to protect and care for the child. Within African communities, any adult male figure can take the responsibility to care for the child, although this term is commonly used on adoptive and biological fathers.

Fatherhood: There is no clear definition for fatherhood as this term changes according to a society. In the African context, fatherhood has always been associated with manhood and the ability to take on a father role (Richter & Morrell, 2006).

Patriarch: The term patriarch has been used to denote a social group that exercises dominance over another. This concept specifically depicts the father as the family's ruler, and the ideology that evolved as a result of the elevation of "the idea of the leadership of the fathers (Coetzee,2001)."

Patriarchal: Patriarchal describes a general structure in which men have power over women. A patriarchal society consists of a male-dominated power structure throughout organised society and in individual relationships, this power is related to privilege. In traditional patriarchy, older men have more power over younger men (Napikoski, 2010).

1.8 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the background and the motivation for the study, the problem that will be investigated and the study aims and objectives. The key terms that were employed in the study were also defined. Chapter 2 covers empirical literature which is relevant for this current study.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this review is to assess fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment. This chapter discusses some of the literature that has been reviewed for this study. The chapter is divided into two sections, that is, the theoretical framework and the empirical literature on understanding fatherhood.

2.2 Theoretical Framework: Social Constructionism

Social constructionism can be understood as a perspective which emphasizes that human existence exists as it does due to social and interpersonal influences (Gergen, 1985). Social constructionism acknowledges the influence of genetic inheritance on human life and practices; however, it focuses on investigating the social influences on communal and individual life. The importance of cultural impact and context in comprehending what happens in society, as well as the built knowledge based on this understanding, is emphasized within social constructionism. (Kim, 2001). The idea of social constructionism has had an influence in the construction of gender roles and how society builds gender identity through biological sex differences (Anderson & Hamilton, 2005). Gender classifications have resulted to specific social expectations and behaviours which lead to specific notions of femininity and masculinity from the moment children are born, parents behave a certain way towards their children by influencing the way they behave and act, and by the toys they buy them (Aronson et al., 2011). These gender classifications have resulted to ongoing consequences which have in some way, negatively affected these genders.

2.3 Fatherhood Identity

Fatherhood identity has been defined as internalized sets of father role expectations which are believed to have an influence in the way fathers behave. Fathers have been understood from the social identity approach, which has been used to illustrate father involvement, asserting that father involvement indicates the importance they attached to this role (Olmstead et al., 2009). Fatherhood identity includes different aspects such as, competence, investment in the father role, satisfaction, and involvement despite the relationship status with their partner (McLaughlin et al., 2014). The reality of fatherhood identity is that, irrespective of fathers who have endorsed new representations of fatherhood, fathering practices have continued to be identified and understood under the workplace setting,

which means that fathers should work; and the belief that being a good father means that one is an effective provider (Coltrane, 2004).

The expectations that fathers have placed on themselves and by society have been inherently gendered and constructed around the working father and providing father. Alongside the different cultural and traditional representations of fathers, stands the societal expectations and representations of masculinity and fatherhood (Este & Tachable, 2009). Fatherhood identity has been highly about the provider role over the years (Daly & Palkovitz, 2004). However, fatherhood identity is diverse and cannot be understood under one umbrella within different cultures (Lewis & Lamb, 2007). Moreover, Weisskirch (2020) stated that being a father was an elusive notion until the baby was born. He further indicated that, experts have found that men often make life changes towards their familial lives once they become fathers and this shift results in the development of fatherhood identity. There is a direct link between the development of fatherhood identity and father involvement and the more a father sees himself as a father, the more likely he is to be involved in his child/ren life. Furthermore, identity is formed, evolved, and renegotiated because of ongoing changes in an individual's life.

Forste et al. (2009) stated that fathers have been left to define their own identity and the meaning of fatherhood due to the decline in consensus regarding fatherhood and the lack of clarity regarding cultural norms which may assist to guide them. The ambiguity of fatherhood identity heightens the challenges that fathers are faced with. The dissimilarities in father backgrounds, contributes to the diverseness and limitations in creating a single and significant definition for fathers and fatherhood.

2.4 Gender roles

Gender roles refer to a set of behavioural and social norms that are socially “appropriate” for individuals of a specific sex (Burn, 1996). Society has recognized two gender roles for a long period of time which are masculinity (having the qualities attributed to males) and femininity (having qualities attributed to females). Mankind has always created boxes which males and females have been expected to fit into. However, Burns further indicated that fitting into these boxes has been influenced by normative and informational pressure, which are the main reasons individuals are motivated to conform to gender expectations. Informational pressure refers to the need to heavily rely on available social information in the attempt to increase our knowledge and adapt to social norms. This concept may arise not only from a fear of social rejection, but also from a lack of self-awareness of one's own feelings and

opinions. On the other side, normative pressure refers to the necessity to comply to societal pressures in order to avoid social rejection. The self-identification of any individual as a man or woman has highly depended on what label has been attached to them from childhood and this has been further influenced by these societal pressures. Although gender roles are breaking down within developed countries, there is more difficulty within developing countries due to less access to education. This means that women who have been unable to further their studies have had to find a husband to take care of them. The need to be taken care of has manifested a male's inherent need to dominate (Mckenzie, 2012).

Although education is a system which is believed to assist in bringing about societal change, it has in some way contributed to stagnation towards this change. Wood (1994) emphasized that educational institutions still hold power and are agents of socialisation, they are responsible for teaching history, literature, and any social organisation. Therefore, they have an influence in the development of gender roles and expectations. In addition, Wood stated that gender differentiation and equality has been communicated through the educational system by firstly setting roles of males and females in schools which has been considered as "normal". Men have often held positions of status and power such as that of chancellor or principal whereas, women have often held positions that hold less power. However, in all girl's school more women have held roles of power. Although the education system is not entirely responsible for gender roles and inequality, it has played a role alongside other male-dominated institutions in perpetuating patriarchy (Burr, 1998). Fatherhood has continuously been described under these archetypes of provider, protectors, and patriarchs (Marschall, 2019).

Women have been expected to be feminine, selfless, loving and nurturing whilst men have been expected to be masculine providers and protectors. The nurturing side of fathers has been commonly undervalued (Sigh, 2004). The conceptions of femininity and masculinity are understood to be a result of socialisation (Creswell, 2013). Hence, the theoretical framework of social constructionism which has been used in this study to seek further understanding on masculinity and the roles in which fathers have had to play in order to fit into these ideologies and how this has had an impact on them. Historically, Black South African fathers dealt with visitors, made all the decisions, and attended public meetings. Furthermore, they owned the hut and its contents whilst young boys were taught to herd and provide for the family at a tender age. Parenting went far beyond meeting the basic survival needs but also the emotional development and behavioural habits (Moges & Weber, 2014).

Gender roles exist in different spheres of society such as the division of labour within family settings. Roles of men and women are not only socially determined but they are

culturally determined. As indicated above, in most cultures, men have been expected to grow into natural leaders, decision makers and providers within a society whilst women are the child bearers, caregivers, followers and supporters of men (Pretorius, 1998). However, although men worked through the years, women slowly entered into the labour market from 1960 which also brought various changes to the family setting, as a result, there was role confusion as to who does what between men and women.

The above, clearly highlights and clarifies that gender roles form part of social constructs which are based on cultural, educational, and socio-political factors and that these constructs change over time depending on external and internal influences. However, defiance towards these constructs may contribute to societal rejection.

2.5 Social construction of masculinity

The understanding of masculinity under a social constructionist approach, has been challenged by essentialists. Essentialists strongly believe that gender characteristics are innate and that their essence is in chemical and biological differences. However, social constructionists have argued that gender constructs are solely contributing factors of historical, social, and cultural aspects (Swart, 1998). Masculinity is neither automatic or determined biologically but it is socially constructed and can change over time. Furthermore, there are any different ways of being a man and there is no one way of a universal masculinity (Schippers, 2007).

Morrell (2001) argued that it is a mistake to assume men as a gender which has one fixed essential masculine identity. He further stated that although images of masculinity had been distilled from society, men experienced their masculinity through their own individualistic and personal spaces. Therefore, there is diversity in masculinities which is highly influenced by different cultural, social, generational, and racial milieus (Demetriou, 2001). In Black and White South African communities, militarist masculinity was used to urge men in either protecting their privilege or in urging them into their pursuit for freedom. Black and White men viewed force as a legitimate process to carry interests of their own social group and in the struggle of liberation, being referred to as a comrade or young lion gave men from poor and discriminated communities a sense of belonging and a proudly held status (Xaba, 2001). Xaba (2001) further highlighted that the newfound status often led to disproportionate egos, as many young men were being coveted by women. According to du Pisani (2001) the Afrikaner masculinity was responsible for the silencing and marginalization of the Black masculinity through the social and political struggles and this in a way emasculated Black men.

Furthermore, although the fight for liberation was a great cause, it sadly meant that most men were left under-qualified and unemployed which increased the use of guns and violence in the country. There has not been a clear response to the changes amongst Black men; however, there seems to be a great difference in expression which has been observed between rural and urban men (Carton, 2001).

Connell (2002) argued that there are four main types of masculinity, complicit versus oppositional, and dominating versus submissive. Men are expected to act in a certain way and those who diverge from the societal expectations are considered less masculine. Different masculinities do not usually complement or sustain each other, but rather utilize relations of hierarchy and dominance. Although Connell indicated that there are four different types of masculinities, there is a form of hegemonic masculinity which encompasses complete cultural dominance (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). Hegemonic masculinity tends to exclude non-White, non-heterosexuals and working-class men whilst further contributing to racism, misogyny, homophobia, and compulsory heterosexuality.

Hegemonic masculinity has often linked fatherhood identity with employment and it relates to complete cultural dominance of a society as a whole. The survival of this form of masculinity depends on the subordinate and the marginalisation of other forms of masculinities (Strier, 2014). Furthermore, this concept also explains how men are powerful in relation to women and they hold a privileged position in society's economic platforms and political organizations. However, although this concept is domineering towards women it also creates marginalization towards other men who do not fit into the hegemonic masculinity criteria (van der Walt, 2007).

The notions of what it means to be a "man" has also contributed to the increase of toxic masculinity. Previous studies have shown that most men have engaged in violence and risky behaviour and have identified this as an important way to display power and control (Herber, 2017). In countries such as South Africa, young men have displayed control over women in intimate relationships as they consider this as an essential way to display their masculinity. Men who are identified under toxic masculinity often avoid behaving in a manner that may be interpreted as feminine, due to the fear of being identified as feminine. Hong (2000) indicated that being identified as feminine has been stereotypically identified as being homosexual and this fear has been expressed through homophobia and overcompensation to prove being "straight".

Research in other African countries has shown that, although masculinities have contributed to violence against women and children some research has presented men in

simplistic and overly negative terms (Barker, 2005). Men and boys have been made vulnerable by rigid social constructs of masculinity whilst also making women vulnerable. Men and young boys have encountered difficulties in the construction of their identity. Rural young boys in countries such as Botswana, have had to be responsible for herding cattle which has forced many to drop out of school whilst young men and fathers in Nigeria have been unable to marry due to unemployment and sometimes participating in ethnic violence. Countries such as Uganda have had young men abducted to serve as combatants (Ruddick, 1998). Although the countries are different and have different cultural practises, the struggle of manhood and masculinity has been a common factor. However, there is no one version of manhood but a turn of numerous masculinities (Connell, 2003).

2.6 Fatherhood Masculinity

Early fatherhood studies indicate that there has been ongoing development on fatherhood and alternative masculinities. The link between masculinity and fatherhood cannot be ignored and should be considered in a socio-historical context. The concept of paternal masculinity and manhood have been mutually constructed and maintained over the years (Haywood et al., 2003). The fatherhood-masculinity model was suggested by Pleck (2010) and it highlights how men's gender identity has had an impact on the way they perceive fatherhood practises. Pleck's model suggests that there is a parallel between strong masculinity identification and hegemonic masculinity.

Fatherhood is an important element in the construction of masculinities; however, it can be interpreted in various ways. In the Western culture, it is widely understood that a man becomes a father when he impregnates a woman. This explanation emphasizes the biological happening as the main criterion to becoming a father. However, due to artificial insemination and a range of technological procedures human life is possible without direct impregnation and this has also forced new definitions of fatherhood (Morrell & Richter, 2004). The various definitions of masculinity are significantly influenced and defined according to different cultural backgrounds (Hadebe, 2010).

Fatherhood has often been associated with manhood, as a result, this has created the notion that when one is a "man" they are able to take on the fatherhood role (in the African context, fatherhood has more to do with family ties rather than medical paternity). Fatherhood has been an ascribed status rather than an achieved one, and one does not become a father by biologically fathering a child. However, children are believed to belong to a broader family and community (Lesejane, 2006). According to research, fathers were the primary caregivers

and carried primary responsibilities for their children prior to the industrial revolution because they worked the land closer to home. Their tasks included teaching their children moral standards (Rotundo, 1985). However, post industrial revolution, fathers were forced to move into the cities where most of the industries were located. Cecil John Rhodes ensured that the labour system was achieved by replacing individual land ownership which ensured that land could be bought and sold by individuals. By taking away the land, citizens were forced to look for employment (Hamann et al., 2012). This resulted to the mothers gaining domestic power whilst the fathers gained less authority and their caregiver role diminished. During this process, fathers attained the role of being sole providers which became a natural role for them over the years (La Rossa, 1988). Previous research conducted by Rousseau (1987) compared family settings to a political society, he stated that leaders depicted the image of fathers towards their children. The difference was that the father's love for his children compensated for his care, whereas the society leader did not command love from the people he led. The father's masculinity and authority were based on his physical strength and this became the basis for a patriarchal government. Previous studies also stated women were educated in the realm of feelings whilst men only displayed emotions and stress through thought (Howson, 2006).

The term fatherhood has been commonly used to make an explicit difference between biological fathers and the social role of fathering (Morrell, 2001). Eagle (1997) indicated that in the context of a developing world, there has been other important categories of father such as economic and social. Economic fathers are men who have contributed to the upkeep of a child, whilst social fathers include men who either live with the child or take care of their everyday needs. Men who are referred to as social fathers may find themselves in situations where they have formal adoption, form part of an extended family and become responsible for the family needs or are in a living relationship with the mother. The perceptions of fatherhood will continue to have a huge impact on the next generation of fathers, as it has in the past. Although studies show that the younger generation of fathers believe that fatherhood is important, their general view on this role has been solely centred on the emotional and economic support (Bunting & McAuley, 2004). However, parenting entails the ability to also provide safety, support, security, and nurturing. The difficulty which parents face is that the parental role is not an innate skill, and everything is achieved through trial and error (Richter & Naicker, 2013).

In the process of desiring to “become a man” young boys and men may mobilise their sexuality and use their power over girls and women, which may cause conflicts and disagreements (Mager, 1998). Sociologists have also shown that fathers who have insisted on

playing the authoritative role have not served their families but have rather oppressed their wives and this has contributed to a questionable scope of fatherhood (Gutmann, 1997). Research has also shown that men tend to believe that impregnating a woman will make them feel “more of a man”, this perception has contributed to many admitting to having had forced sex whilst others impregnated at a young age (Anderson & Mhatre, 2003). The role of fatherhood has often represented a patriarchal structure which has contributed to the cause of women oppression and has limited their autonomy. However, it is also imperative to note that fatherhood roles changed drastically in the past, and they were forced into new restricted roles of being a provider and the head of the family (Gillis, 1996). Their move from their homesteads weakened their ability to provide emotional needs for their children, and their increased economic power influenced the establishment to become authoritative figures at home, adding to their worthiness.

The above, has solely focused on studies conducted in South Africa and although research on fatherhood has slowly become an area of interest it remains limited, not just in South Africa but in other African countries. In other parts of Africa such as the rural parts of Mozambique, fatherhood masculinity has been readdressed. In a documentary called “The pregnancy is ours”, which was produced by Galle (2018), Participant 1 stated that in Mozambique there are certain places where a family father does not do anything all day. The wife is required to work on the field, and she is basically the sole breadwinner. Participant 1 indicated his disapproval for this practise, further emphasising the need for change. In the same interview, Participant 2 indicated that his wife has a choice to either work or not and when he is at home, he prefers to assist with the chores. Participant 3 also alluded to his disapproval of gender roles regarding parenting and emphasised that caring for his children is his sole responsibility. However, the fathers highlighted the lack of support from older family members who did not approve of their choice to assist within the household.

Although some parts of Mozambique have tried to challenge the common practises of a patriarchal system, fathers in Ghana have focused on the parental framework. According to, William (2015) the father’s responsibility is confined to issuing instructions and for the mother and children to obey. The reality has been that fatherhood masculinity is unlikely to change based on the women’s view, but rather, men change their role or responsibility according to personal preference. In Ghana, fathers are disciplinarians and providers, their presence at home is to instruct their children to behave a certain way and the child’s good or bad behaviour becomes a reflection of the fathers skill to manage his family (De Genova & Rice, 2002). Therefore, the absence of fathers within these households creates instability.

The dominant perceptions of masculinity are common in most countries. The ideologies of what it means to be a man or father, depend on the local and social cultural contexts which are highly infused with globalized ideologies through the influence of mass media (Edwards-Jaunch, 2016). Research on this concept in Africa is still limited therefore, the understanding of masculinities in Africa has not been represented holistically.

2.7 Fatherhood: The Provider

Historically, the father's role has always been to materialistically provide the needs of the child, rather than to be emotionally available to the needs of the child (Morrell, 2001). However, as mentioned above Demos (1986) stated that the "provider" role surfaced post-industrial revolution where fathers were forced to move into the cities in search for work. The separation between mothers and fathers also led to the separation of work and family life which contributed to the disappearance of important traditional fatherhood elements. The "provider" was then viewed as the "good father" and this was internalised within the Black community and thus, men attached "manhood" to a provider role and the ability to provide was further interpreted as the ability to provide "fatherhood" (Bhana et al., 2007). Being employed and earning a lot of money has been a popular conceptualization in both the black and white community. There has also been a high level of unemployment within the black community and this increase is slowly being visible within the white community which has presented a threat to men's self-esteem (Elliott, 2003). The rise of fatherhood low self-esteem due to unemployment has not only been evident in African countries but it has also been an issue abroad. A study by Fodor (2006) indicated that one of Hungary's major gender differences in the experience of poverty was that men often found themselves in a gender role crisis, when they were unable to provide due to insufficient finances.

Although many fathers within the Black community were away from home for an extensive period of time; due to work and the direct impact of an unfair political system, any man that could provide for their family was viewed as a good father (Morrell & Richter, 2004).

However, this view on fathers being providers has contributed to painful and detrimental experiences for those who are unable to provide for their families (Campbell & Carroll, 2007). Previous studies done by Komarovskiy (2004) found that patriarchal and traditional fathers suffered the most from unemployment as compared to fathers who were flexible with their gender identity. Studies conducted in South Africa have indicated that fathers who face challenges with providing, have often been shamed and criminalized by

society and the media (Chauke & Khunou, 2014). However, there was no significant difference in psychological distress between unemployed men and women (Gallie, 2004).

The division in gender views has a crucial impact in the way men and women experience unemployment, which has further transformed unemployment as a major threat to men's psychological wellbeing (Anderson et al., 2005). According to gendered views of masculinity, employment has always been highlighted as a crucial factor for men's identity (Doucet, 2006). Cottle (2007) indicated that men experienced unemployment as a traumatic event that contributed to symptoms resembling loss and post-trauma. Unemployment is seen as a risk factor for many individuals as it deprives individuals of time structure, personal status, contact with others, identity, and social activities (Strier, 2014). Elliot (2003) further indicated that some women tend to taunt or shame men who are unemployed and the poor support for being homemakers further worsens their self-esteem towards house chores. Most men tend to buckle under pressure, and they become estranged with their children due to conflictual interactions with the mother of the child.

The ongoing increase of unemployment has deepened social differentiation and has had an impact on relational patterns. Monetary gifts within the African culture have continued to fuel relationships and men have utilized this to express their "manhood" whilst fulfilling their role as a "provider" (Hunter, 2004). The overemphasis of the provider role by fathers and mothers themselves, has made it difficult for alternative father roles to be promoted and developed (Mavungu, 2013). Although biological fathering is relatively easily attainable, fulfilling the social fatherhood role can be challenging.

Fathering practises within the Black African households have been fundamentally influenced by customary practises that include negotiations between the paternal and maternal families of a child (Mfecane, 2018). However, it is important to highlight that not every Black African family undergoes these customary practises. Customs evolve as cultural patterns and people evolve (Hunter, 2010). Mfecane stated that the process of "inhlawulo" which refers to damages paid to the family of a woman who became pregnant out of wedlock, has supported the move towards alternative masculinities which contribute to values such as patience and respect that form an important part of fatherhood. Although the practise of "inhlawulo" has been conceptualised as "paying damages" the main aim has been to bring families together, whilst acknowledging emotional and financial responsibility for the child. This cultural practise has been practised for many years however, although it has changed, it has remained complex (Nkani, 2017).

There has been an ongoing rise of child births outside of marriage and a decline of marriages which has caused a shift on the father role (Hatch & Posel, 2018). The father's role and presence in the child's life has been influenced and negotiated through their ability to perform any customary requirements and processes. The payment of "inhlawulo" has been used to mediate the father's involvement in their child's life (Mkhwanazi & Block, 2016). However, the high levels of unemployment which then contribute to poverty, has restricted fathers from fathering practises and limited their access to their offspring (Mvune et al., 2019). Masculinity, culture, and materiality seem to interlock in the shaping and development of hierarchies.

2.8 Conclusion

The understanding of masculinities and fatherhood in the African context, has often been associated with the provider role and financial responsibility which has been unobtainable by many fathers. This chapter highlighted that the conceptualization of fatherhood identity changes over time and that it can be better understood under the social constructionism framework. Fatherhood identity is directed by social and cultural practises.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on the perceptions of fatherhood identity and their role as providers which has been understood under the theoretical lense of social constructionism. The historical background and available literature on this topic will guide the process for this systematic review. A systematic review is described as a process of identifying, evaluating, and interpreting available research on a topic (Kitchenham, 2004). Systematic reviews should be built on a protocol that reports on the rationale, hypothesis and the planned methods used in a review. Systematic reviews are standard references for synthesizing available data, particularly on evidence in the healthcare sector because of their methodological thoroughness (Moher et al., 2015). The planning process is the first and most important component of a systematic review as it promotes consistency and transparency. Whilst the second part accounts for the execution process required. Pettigrew and Roberts (2008) highlighted the important stages involved in a systematic review which have been considered in this review. The stages include defining of research questions, determining which studies should be included in the study based on the criteria: performing a literature search to identify suitable studies; screening of studies; synthesis of these studies and reporting of results.

In this chapter, a discussion on the design and methods used for this study will be provided. The chapter will focus on the following: article selection and the selection strategy; search strategy for research articles and stories; and the selection analysis of the data. Furthermore, it will highlight the planning process and the need to conduct this review.

3.2.1 Methods

The study took a qualitative systematic review approach to explore currently available literature on fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment. Although systematic reviews are considered as vigorous research, which focus on the past and current evidence of a topic (Sinnott et al., 2013), a systematic review of limited scope was conducted for the purposes of this master's thesis. The systematic review included qualitative evidence, from previous empirical studies, which were solely built on people's views and experiences which may be meaningful and relevant for this study. According to Gergen (2001) a person assigns meaning to everything that he encounters within his own context whether social, cultural, or academic. The need for research reviews can only be understood and appreciated when there is a link between the past, present and future research (Denyer & Transfield, 2009). A systematic study can be defined as a method which critically aims to appraise, summarize

whilst attempting to reconcile existing research (Hallinger, 2013). Hallinger (2013) further indicated that it plays a vital role in the advancement of knowledge by emphasizing other milestones of progress by identifying blind spots. The stages involved in this systematic review included literature searching, data selection, data extraction and synthesising. This review aims to assist towards the understanding of fatherhood identity and the effects of unemployment.

The methodology for this systematic review was guided by the preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses (PRISMA) checklist, which was developed by a group of 29 review authors, clinicians, consumers, and methodologists (Moher et al., 2009). It aimed to focus on ways the researcher could ensure a complete and transparent process of systematic reporting whilst further ensuring that it was planned and explicitly documented before the review process began (Chan et al., 2004).

3.2.2 The PRISMA checklist

PRISMA focuses on the different steps which authors should utilize, to ensure that there is a transparent process in reporting research data. However, it does not address direct or detailed steps of conducting a systematic review (Atkins et al., 2005). The PRISMA checklist consists of 27 items; however, the author in this review did not address all the items in this checklist. As indicated by (Liberati et al., 2009) authors need not address all the items in this order (see Appendix A). What follows is a description of the items from the PRISMA checklist, and the addressed items have been clearly highlighted.

Item 1: Focuses on the title and abstract. The author needs to clearly identify the report as a systematic review, meta-analysis, or both. The title for this thesis clearly identified it as a systematic review which focuses on fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment. Montori et al. (2005) stated that some authors fail to describe to the readers whether a study was a systematic review or a meta-analysis, in the title or abstract, which makes it difficult to identify studies while searching research databases.

Item 2: Requires the author to provide a structured summary which includes the background of the study, the objectives of the study, data sources, eligibility of study criteria, participants, synthesis methods, results, limitations, and conclusion. For this thesis, this item was fulfilled by the author through the writing of the six different chapters. The abstract also provided key information to enable the reader to understand the scope, processes, and the findings of this review. Structured abstracts provide the reader with more complete information that assists the reader to find the information (Froom & Froom, 1993).

Item 3 focuses on the rationale for the review. The readers need to understand the whole rationale for the systematic review and the author needs to clarify whether the review is new or an update of an existing one. Authors should further indicate if a review is an update and the reasons why it is being updated. The rationale for this review was provided in Chapter 1 which highlighted the importance for the review and the aim.

Item 4 includes the objectives of the study which were provided in Chapter 1. The author needs to explicitly state the research questions and the rationale for them. The questions need to be precise to allow the reader to understand the authors scope and focus for the review. The questions in this review were clear and they clearly stated the population of focus, interventions or exposure of interest, the comparators, the outcome of interest and the chosen study design was also indicated from Chapter 1 and clearly detailed in Chapter 3. The chosen study design for this review was a qualitative systematic design. Counsell (1997) stated that good questions may be narrow or broadly focused. The questions in this review were narrow and specific.

Item 5: The PRISMA also considers a protocol and registration to aid in avoiding repetition and bias in review methods. A protocol specifies the outcomes of a primary study and how authors may extract information regarding those outcomes and methods used to summarise data quantitatively. A protocol was not included in this limited review.

Item 6: The eligibility criteria forms an important part of a systematic review. The author needs to specify the considered characteristics for the review which is essential for validity/trustworthiness. A criterion ensures that studies are selected systematically and avoid any biased manner. The author specified the criterion in Chapter 3. The criterion specifically highlighted that reviewed papers were in English, from South Africa and other African countries and they focused solely on fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment and the year of publication was from the year 2000 to 2020.

Item 7: The author needs to describe all the information sources which were included in the review and the process it took to extract these sources or studies. This review utilized a Mendeley search engine and the process was detailed in Chapter 3. It is also important for authors to indicate who published the study and this was highlighted in Chapter 3, Table 4 Furthermore, the author needs to consider the use of supplementary approaches to identify studies. The author in this current systematic review searched through reference lists and Google Scholar.

Item 8 focuses on the process it took to search through data. The Mendeley application was used during the search process and search terms in line with the research questions were

used to assist in identifying relevant data. The search keywords were included in Chapter 3, Table 1. The search process forms an important part of a systematic review and perusing a search strategy informs the reader of the comprehensiveness and completeness of the search strategy (Golder et al., 2006). Some of the keyword searches were: *fatherhood identity in South Africa*, *father unemployment in South Africa*, and *father challenges in Africa*, etc.

Item 9: The study selection process was guided by the criterion. Research studies were screened according to the language, geographical area, population, and a relevant title and abstract which guided the extraction process. The PRISMA flow chart was used to summarize the study selection process in Figure 2. Although it is important to enhance objectivity and avoid any mistakes by including two or multiple investigators, the author in this review independently screened and retrieved research studies due to the limited review.

Item 10: The data collection process was conducted independently by the author. A data extraction sheet was used in the process with the authors name, date of publication and the relevance of the study to this review. Reviewers collect data from each study and either critique, present or summarize.

Item 11: Data items such as the characteristics of the inclusion and exclusion criteria were highlighted in Chapter 3. 4. It is important for readers to know what information the author focused on although limited reviews such as this one may only focus on the limited obtained data. It is also important for authors to mention any assumptions indicated in the process.

Item 12 focuses on the risk of bias in individual studies. Reports made on a systematic review and the likelihood of the truth obtained from these reports depends on the validity/trustworthiness of the studies included in the review. Therefore, it is vital for the author to indicate the methods and processes used to avoid the risk of bias within the review (Moja et al., 2005). The author ensured that studies were thoroughly analysed and included studies that focused solely on the research question and that suitable data segments were extracted. All included studies were appropriate for this research.

Item 13 requires the author to state the principal summary measures. Authors are required to specify the outcomes of primary interest, risk ratio, odd ratio and risk differences. This item as not applied in this review.

Item 14 focuses on the planned methods of analysis and the process of handling data and combining results found in the extracted studies. Authors need to ensure that studies are processed before concluding their suitability for a review. Authors need to report how they

planned study variability. The process of handling data was explained in detail in Chapter 3, under sections 3.2.3 to 3.4.1.

Item 15 focuses on the risk of bias across studies. Reviewers need to explore the possibility that extracted data may be bias. Results from available studies may be examined for clues which may suggest any missing data which may cause biasness. If a review protocol is available for a study, the outcomes in the protocol can be compared with the current review. In the absence of a protocol, an outcomes list in the methods section can be compared for studies with presented results. Studies were compared during this review process and presented in the results section in chapter 4.

Item 16 requires the author to indicate any additional analyses such as sensitivity analyses which may be common for reviews that focus on patient treatment plans. Authors may seek to analyse whether the results found in the review are robust. Sensitivity analyses may be used to explore how the review findings may have been affected by changes which could have been made in the used data or methodology. Readers of a systematic review should be made aware of any meta-aggressions such as the over-interpretation of findings (Higgins & Thompson, 2004). This limited review did not reference any additional analysis.

Item 17 was the main item, which was considered for this process in Chapter 3. This item focused on the study selection. The author had to report ideally with a flow diagram and provide the number of studies screened, included, or excluded in the review.

Item 18 considers the study characteristics of the included studies. It is important for the reader to be aware of the study characteristics and why these were included, and the author should provide enough information to allow the reader to make their own judgement (Glasziou et al., 2008). The study characteristics for this review were detailed under the inclusion and exclusion criteria in Table 2 and section 3.4. The study characteristics guided the author to answer the research question relevantly.

Item 19: This item recommends that authors should assess risk of bias for the included studies using a defined criterion. The author included quality assessment items in Table 3, which guided the process of assessing risk of bias within the study. The Cochrane collaboration tool for assessing bias, also requests that authors should substantiate assessments with any relevant texts from the original extracted studies (Higgins & Altman 2008).

Item 20: Results of included individual studies should be considered and presented. The inclusion of summary data and publication allows the readers to assess the impact of including and excluding particular studies in a review. Furthermore, the presentation of the

results from individual studies assists in identifying errors (Altman & Cates, 2001). The included studies for this review were tabled in Table 4.

Item 21: The synthesis of results is important and should be presented in an orderly manner. The descriptions of studies can facilitate the examination of patterns across the different studies and also provide information on the applicability of evidence on a particular topic. Authors conducting a meta-analysis should provide a measure of consistency of the included results. However, for this study of limited scope, the author included a summary of the used studies and extracted data in chapter for.

Item 22: Authors should present results on any assessments of risk of bias across the different studies. Authors should specify the effect of estimate and describe how statistical significance has been tested. The authors should also inform readers if pre-specified analyses for assessing risk bias was not completed such a having a few studies. This item was not applied in this review and all items on risk assessment were discussed under item 15.

Item 23: This item considers additional analyses. The author should report on any sub-groups of analysed sensitivity. The included data in each additional analysis should be specified if it is different from the man analyses. All-important data analyses should be specified and not particularly data that is statistically significant. This item was also not applied in this limited review as it focuses mainly on meta-analyses studies.

Item 24: This item requires the author to summarize the main findings, including the strength of the extracted evidence. This item focuses mainly on medical trials which may be undertaken during a review. Authors should give evidence and a summary of findings which show potential relevance for policy decisions and ongoing research in the future. The author discussed the findings on this review in Chapter 5 and recommendations were made for this specific research question. There was no statistical evidence presented in this study.

Item 25 discusses the limitations of the study such as risk bias or incomplete retrieval of research studies. Readers may find it interesting and helpful for the author to indicate any encountered limitations during the review process. The applicability of the review may be negatively affected if there is limited data on the suggested research question (Glasziou et al., 2008). The encountered limitations for this review included the limited number of studies from other African countries which contributed to the poor representation of this research question within other parts of Africa. Most of the extracted studies also focused on Black South African fathers which did not give a clear picture of African fathers in their diverseness.

Item 26: A conclusion is required to provide a general interpretation of the results and the implications for research studies in the future. However, systematic studies sometimes draw

on overly optimistic conclusions and they often do not consider the harm that may be caused by a study but rather focus on the benefits. Authors should state when conclusions have too much uncertainty and are drawn from a few reliable studies (Hopewell et al., 2008). Authors should also relate their findings to other available data and provide recommendations. A detailed conclusion was provided in Chapter 6 of this review.

Item 27: This item describes the sources which funded the systematic review. Authors should disclose any funding which was received during the review process. Systematic reviews play an important role in the decision-making process and authors should be transparent regarding funding and the role played by the funders towards the review. This review did not have any funders therefore, this item was not applicable.

The above is a summary of the PRISMA checklist. The PRISMA document and statement focus on systematic reviews that report on randomised trials and other studies such as non-randomised studies and quasi-experimental. The methods used in a review may differ to a variety of degrees such as literature search, assessment of risk, data abstraction and analysis of methods. Furthermore, the PRISMA checklist was designed for medical systematic reviews (Liberati et al., 2009); however, it was used for this systematic review registered in the Discipline of Psychology. Therefore, reporting on the systematic review differed to some extent from what the 27 items have described. However, the author of this review ensured that she reported adequately and critically on the available data.

3.2.3 Criteria for considered studies for this systematic review

This study included qualitative research studies which were found using the Mendeley application. The application enabled me to import research papers from other research websites such as *Google Scholar*, *EBSCOhost*, and *PsycInfo*. However, these websites were individually searched and compared to ensure that all relevant data was included. The included search words highlighted in Table 1 were guided by the research questions. Research titles and abstracts were independently assessed and extracted according to the research questions which focused on fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment. Developing the inclusion criteria followed a repetitive process. The criteria for inclusion were that:

- i. data were solely based on studies done in South Africa and other African countries
- ii. studies were published in English
- iii. the extracted studies were between the year 2000 and 2020
- iv. studies had to either focus on fatherhood identity or the impact of unemployment on fatherhood.

Critical appraisal was vital, papers that did not meet the inclusion criteria were excluded from the study considering that these studies may have strayed into research areas which are irrelevant to this study. The strengths and limitations of the included studies were considered, and this was important to ensure that the interpretation of the studies was sensitive to the characteristics of the studied population of the current study.

The indicated year of publication for the inclusion criteria, depicts an era in which research on fatherhood was slowly being recognized or considered. Preliminary searches on the studied population revealed that there was no relevant research on fatherhood or fatherhood identity. The search covered available data from an inclusive 20-year period (from 2000 to 2020).

3.3.1 Research questions

The aim of this review was to systematically explore African fatherhood identity over the years and what constitutes being a good father whilst establishing how unemployment has affected fatherhood identity.

In order to expand on the knowledge of fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment, the review sought to address the following questions:

- i. How do fathers perceive their identity as fathers?
- ii. Do fathers believe they have carried out social constructions of a good African father?
- iii. How has unemployment affected fatherhood in an African context?

The literature search was conducted from the keywords which were derived from the research questions. The keywords focused on fatherhood identity, perceptions on what constitutes carrying out a fatherhood role and how unemployment has affected fathers. Breaking down the questions into categories ensured that the research questions were clearly captured.

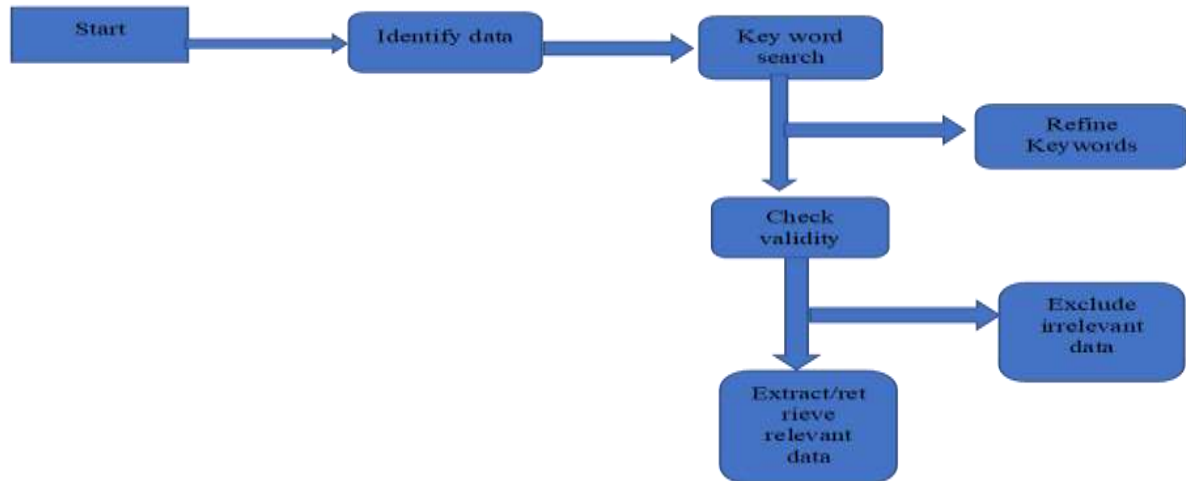
3.3.2 Literature search and relevant data collection

The literature search process was limited to electronic databases only, due to the ongoing global COVID- 19 pandemic. The World Health Organisation (WHO) (2020) declared this a pandemic due to the fast rate in which the virus was spreading worldwide (Thienemann et al., 2020). COVID-19 is an infectious disease caused by a newly discovered coronavirus which causes mild to moderate illness and the most common symptoms include fever, dry cough, sore throat, and tiredness. This disease is spread primarily via respiratory droplets and it can result to hospitalization and mortality although many recovered from home and without

treatment (Wiersinga et al., 2020). As a result of this pandemic, the South African president declared a national lockdown on the 23rd of March 2020 which limited travel and resulted to closure of places such as companies, institutions, and schools. This limited access to library books for students.

Kitchenham (2004) stated that it is insufficient to conduct systematic review searches using only electronic databases. However, due to the pandemic, the search was limited to electronic databases and focused on reference lists, journal articles and electronic books. A search strategy used in Figure 1 was used in the process. The figure shows the steps taken to identify resources followed, which was followed by the key words used to conduct the search. If the key words showed irrelevant data by their titles and abstracts, the search was redefined. Relevant studies were examined through their abstracts and conclusions to verify their trustworthiness. If the studies were not relevant, they were than excluded from the review as seen in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1
Keyword Search



3.3.3 *Keyword search*

A keyword search was conducted using different terms which were linked to the research question. These included fatherhood identity, masculinity, fatherhood unemployment, provider role and fatherhood challenges. Keyword search has been identified as a convenient method to identify literature (Ely & Scott, 2007). The keyword search further alternated South Africa and other African countries in identifying literature displayed on Table 1.

Table 1

Keyword Search

Literature search	Found studies On Mendeley	You Tube	Retrieved studies- Relevant studies
1. Fatherhood identity in South Africa	6041	2	28
2. Fatherhood identity in Africa	31	0	6
3. Masculinity in South Africa	580	0	8
4. Fatherhood unemployment in Africa	3	0	2
5. Fatherhood provider role South Africa	421	0	10
6. Fatherhood unemployment in Africa	3	0	2
7. Father unemployment in Africa	19	0	3
8. Father challenges in Africa	88	0	4
Total Searches:	6762	2	63

3.4 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

The inclusion and exclusion criteria are important to set the boundaries for the systematic review. They are determined after the researcher has set out questions before the search is conducted. Cronin et al. (2008) cited that systematic reviews use rigorous criteria which assists them to identify, evaluate and synthesize literature. The table 2 below was used to determine the criteria used to identify studies based on fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment.

Table 2

Inclusion and Exclusion criteria

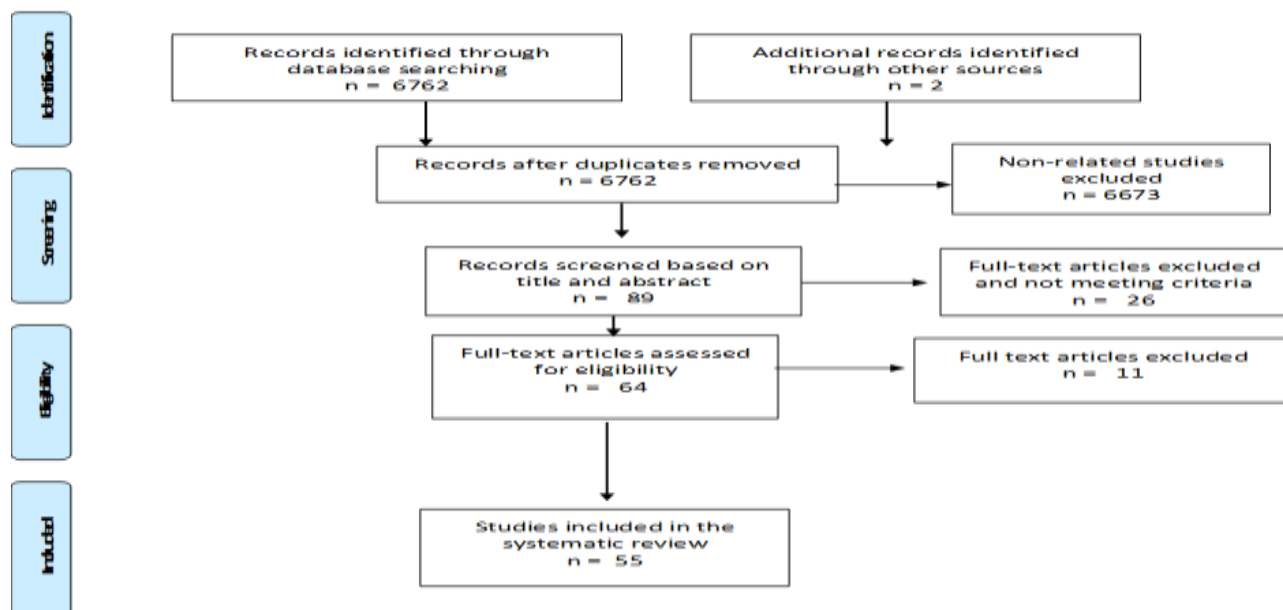
Parameters	Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Type of study	The study had to be a qualitative study which focuses on the participants experiences and provides in-depth understanding to the topic at hand.	Quantitative studies were not included in the study. These studies do not provide any knowledge from the participants perspective.
Population	The focus of this study was based on fathers and fatherhood. The study included studies which focused solely on these keywords. Studies which focused on the participants age or race were not considered in the process.	Studies which focused on motherhood or any other type of parenting were excluded in the study.
Setting	The study focused on studies which focused on fathers from different settings such as rural or urban settings.	Studies focusing on fathers from different parts of the world, either than Africa were excluded.
Intervention	Studies that focused on any type of fatherhood identity were included and the characteristics of fatherhood were included	Studies that did not specify any fatherhood characteristics were excluded.
Geographical setting and publication	Studies were which were conducted in South Africa. Studies which were conducted in any parts of Africa Studies which were conducted between the year 2000-2020 were included.	International studies were excluded. Studies which were conducted before the year 2000 were excluded.
Language	Studies published in English	Studies published in any foreign language either than English were included.

The search on the Mendeley application produced a total of 6762 papers which were closely related to the review questions. The search alternated the above keywords which assisted to broaden the retrieved studies whilst focusing on every aspect of the review question. The total number of retrieved papers was 64 which were directly related to the research question and had a relevant title and abstract however, with further analysis 11 studies were excluded from the review because they either did not meet the location criteria nor provided any in-depth relevance to the study. This left the number of relevant papers to 53. These studies were further examined to establish whether they fit into the inclusion criteria. Full texts were then analysed in depth for the review. Although the Mendeley application included studies from different research websites, it did not indicate which websites each retrieved articles was from. The retrieved studies did not only include journals, but they included different studies which met the inclusion criteria. Mutula (2015) cited that there is no defined number of studies which should be included in a literature review, but researchers include any available data within that specific area of study. Furthermore, YouTube, which is an American video-sharing platform was also used in the search. The keyword search retrieved 2 relevant videos which were also used for the review.

In total, 55 relevant studies were used in this review. A PRISMA flowchart of the selected relevant studies as seen in Figure 2 below

Figure 2

Study selection process



Moher et al., The PRISMA Group (2009)

3.4.1 Data collection, extraction, and coding

The data collection and extraction processes were guided by the research questions. Data coding and data extraction refer to the process in which the researcher systematically extracts relevant information from the articles included in the systematic review. Data coding refers to the recording of relevant information, such as where and when the study was conducted and who conducted the study. Whereas data extraction refers to the process taken in the recording of the results. Data extraction is only utilized in systematic reviews (Higgins et al., 2011). The requirements for data extraction may vary from systematic review and the extraction forms should be tailored according to the reviewed question. Furthermore, the process requires a plan that will include the type of analyses for the study which will help to identify data that should be extracted. Limited familiarity with the topic area may create a common problem that may lead to uncertainties pertaining to comparators and the outcomes. This may also result to time wasted on extracting unnecessary data (Higgins et al., 2003). Previous studies highlighted that data extraction by two authors resulted in a few errors compared to data extracted by a single author (Busemi et al., 2006).

Although multiple team members are expected to screen the whole list of references, for this study, the list was screened by the individual author under supervision due to the limited scope of this thesis. If the author is writing a narrative review that will be summarised and reported on a small number of studies, then there is no need to code the data variables for computer analysis. However, if the author is conducting an analytical review with meta-analysis that will compare data outcomes from numerous clinical trials, then it may be important to computerize the collected data (Levitt, 2020).

Studies which seemed appropriate according to their abstracts and titles were included in this review. Furthermore, an extraction sheet was used, and this contained sections which included summarized details of the findings. The sections included the author, year of publication, title, country, and the reference source. The findings were documented and summarized; the extracted data was presented in Table 4. Popayi et al. (2006) indicated that it is important to include tables when depicting findings, this process enables transparency of the review.

The study quality was independently assessed, and this was important because it contributed to the process of a detailed understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of each extracted study and how this may have an impact on the final findings. Wright et al. (2007) emphasised the importance of performing a quality appraisal which should consider both internal and external validity features. However, qualitative research refers to these features as

credibility and transferability. Credibility ensures that the study has minimal errors and whether the research data shows correct interpretations of original views while transferability refers to the studies ability to generalize findings to other situations, people, and settings (Bhandari & Alonge, 2020). The table below presents the items used in the quality assessment. The Joanna Briggs Institute Qualitative Assessment and Review Instrument was used during this process. This tool assists in assessing trustworthiness, relevance, and the results of published papers (Aromataris et al., 2015). Studies were categorized according to high and low quality, a score above seven was high quality while a score under five was low quality. Although Munthe-Kaas et al. (2018) indicated that there were potential problems with scoring qualitative studies, the scoring was undertaken to track the overview of extracted relevant studies. In the attempt to overcome limitations, each study was further assessed regarding potential. This process was guided by the quality assessment items as seen in Table 3 (see Appendix B for assessment item process sheet).

Table 3

Quality assessment items

Item	Question
Research design	<p>Is the research methodology and design relevant to the study?</p> <p>Is the study design appropriate for the research question?</p>
Qualitative Methodological rigour	<p>Was the research study performed according to the original plan?</p> <p>Does the study indicate any measure of reliability?</p> <p>Did the study address any potential bias during the study?</p> <p>Does the study offer anything new?</p> <p>Are the study outcomes assessed using the criteria and do they clearly reflect the connection between evidence and conclusion?</p>

It was important to develop quality appraisal items which apply to a qualitative study, this process ensured that the studies had relevant data which were related to the study questions. The quality assessment items used are consistent with the Joanna Briggs institute (JBI) appraisal tool (Tufanaru et al., 2017). The JBI tool assists to address any possibility of bias in the research design and any relevance as mentioned above.

3.4.2 Data synthesis

There has been a growing number of methods which have been used for synthesising data over the years. Data synthesis can either be statistical for synthesising quantitative data or descriptive for synthesising qualitative data. In this review, the researcher has chosen to employ qualitative methods for data synthesis. Methods for qualitative synthesis may vary; however, there are various methodological and conceptual connections between these different methods. Some methods focus on the qualitative form of evidence such as meta-ethnography while others focus on the conversion of qualitative into quantitative form such as content analysis (Pope et al., 2007). However, thematic synthesis was used in this review. The use of thematic synthesis was influenced by the research questions and it allowed the researcher to analyse and report on recurring themes from the extracted data. Furthermore, thematic synthesis offers transparency and the outcomes are easily accessible (Ryan et al., 2018).

3.4.3 Thematic synthesis

Thematic synthesis is adapted for the purpose of secondary data thematic analysis and it provides different methods and techniques, which assist in the identification and the development of themes in primary research (Thomas & Harden, 2008). The researcher identified, analysed, and reported on recurrent themes that were evident within the studies. Thematic synthesis engages three stages of analysis which overlap to some degree. These are coding of text “line-by-line”, identification of similarities, and the third stage which involves the development of analytic themes (Finfgeld-Connett 2014).

The quality assessment and extraction sheet enabled the researcher to identify and code relevant data. The researcher independently coded each line of the study according to content and relevance to the research questions. The line-by-line coding was conducted using the Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) program which was developed by Provalis Research. The program was designed to allow researchers to organize, manage, code, and analyse qualitative data more reliably (Chomczynski, 2008). The codes were structured according to the research questions. The line-by-line coding enabled the researcher to translate concepts from one study

to another. Different studies introduced new codes to the study, codes were then examined to check for consistency and whether these codes provided substantial data for each question. Furthermore, the researcher identified whether there were similarities which could be grouped according to themes. The following themes were identified during this process from 53 papers and 2 YouTube videos:

- Fatherhood identity was the first identified main theme which consist of 2 sub-themes which are perceptions of fatherhood and the provider role. This theme focuses on fatherhood identity and how fathers have developed or identified with this roe over the years. Furthermore, it highlights the fatherhood identity under the provider role umbrella.
- The second main theme focuses on “the good father”, with sub-themes such as responsibility, financial stability, and influential background. The theme highlights what fathers associate with being a good father within previous studies.
- The third main theme focuses on the impact of unemployment with sub-themes such as poverty, inability to perform rituals, father absence, emotional challenges, The single mother and substance use. This theme highlights the different factors which are highly contributed by father unemployment.

3.4.4 Social constructivism

Social constructivism which revolves around the observation that human beings possess understandings of society is often referred to as ‘interpretive’(Bastalich,2013), this was used in the interpretation and understanding of the data findings. The extracted studies were understood within the social construction framework which focuses on the human understanding of the world. This review looked at previous empirical studies which were built on people’s views. Social constructionism is associated with the post-modernism era in qualitative research (Andrews, 2012) and the basis of it is created by the interaction of individuals within a community, which this review aims to explore. The interpretation of identified themes within this framework, contributed to significant information regarding the phenomenon of fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment.

The aim of social constructionism is to understand different phenomenon and situations which is gathered and forms new ideas (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). Social constructionism highlights that knowledge is built on the understanding of the world which may contribute to the understanding of fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment.

3.5 Trustworthiness, credibility, dependability, confirmability,

3.5.1 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness within a systematic review, refers to the degree of confidence in data, interpretation and the methods used to ensure the quality of the study (Beck, 2014). Although it can be agreed that trustworthiness is invaluable, many have questioned what constitutes trustworthiness (Connelly, 2016). The trustworthiness of a synthesis depends on the quality and quantity of the evidence base in which it is built on. Trustworthiness focuses on credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Devault, 2017). Should primary studies with poor methodological quality be included in the review, trustworthiness of the synthesis may be affected. The author ensured that she assessed trustworthiness using a quality assessment questionnaire (see Appendix B) where studies were categorized according to a high- or low-quality level. Studies which were not relevant for this review, according to the inclusion criteria were excluded.

3.5.2 Credibility

Credibility deals with the focus of the research and the confidence that can be placed on how the data analysis and processes address the intended review questions. The author ensured that the extracted data fell into the inclusion criteria and was relevant to answer the research questions. Themes and codes were covered according to their relevance to the study (Korstjens, 2018).

3.5.3 Dependability

Dependability refers to the reliability and consistency, it aims to ensure that research findings are consistent. The standard in which research is analysed, measured, and presented ensures dependability. Dependability can also be checked by analysing whether the researcher has made mistakes in conceptualizing the research study (Bitsch, 2005). There are several techniques which can be utilized to ensure dependability; however, the ideal approach would be to have an external audit (Korstjens, 2018). The author of this review ensured dependability through supervision. The research supervisor examined and analysed the process of data analysis. Conclusions and interpretations were also supervised to ensure congruence with the reviewed data.

3.5.4 Confirmability

Confirmability focuses on how the extracted data was coded and whether various researchers would agree with the coding (Forero, 2018). This review was supervised to ensure confirmability.

3.5.5 Transferability

Transferability focuses on the degree in which research findings can be transferred to other contexts or ideologies. Transferability is accomplished when results have meaning to participants who were not a part of the study and these participants may associate with the findings (Houghton et al., 2013). To improve transferability, the author of the current study clearly stated the research questions, objectives, methodology and the used theoretical framework.

3.6 Ethical considerations

Since this study was a systematic review, exemption from ethics review was granted by the Research and Higher Degrees Committee of the School of Applied Human Sciences at the University of KwaZulu Natal school of Psychology (see Appendix D, Protocol Number: 00009867). Copyright infringement was prevented by including studies which are in the public domain. Furthermore, Turnitin was used to deter plagiarism.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter presented step-by-step procedures that were included in completing the methodological process. The coding process was challenging and time consuming as it required rigorous scrutiny and execution. The process involved different stages which commenced with the planning phase, this assisted with the direction of the study. The next important stage comprised of the process involved in conducting a systematic review. Research questions and the keyword search were clearly indicated, keywords were vital in this process and they contributed to the extracted data studies. The criteria items were also used to guide and identify relevant studies which were applicable for this review. A quality assessment sheet was used to ensure that the extracted studies were beneficial and relevant to this study. The process of analysing data through thematic synthesis in qualitative reviews was also outlined. The findings and analysis of data will be provided in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4: Findings

4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the methodological process was discussed and described in detail according to the different stages of the review. The main goal was to synthesize data which would be relevant to fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment. During the review process, 55 studies were extracted, and these studies met the inclusion criteria. Therefore, this chapter will provide a summary of the extracted data during the process and provide an interpretation of the results through themes. The significant findings in this review included a shift in attitude from most of the fathers towards societal constructs. Fathers have become critical of the provider role which has been a huge part of their identity over the years.

4.2 Characteristics of included studies

The included studies focused on themes which answered the research questions. The studies included the perception of fatherhood identity and what constitutes towards a good father, whilst further highlighting the impact of unemployment. The included studies were ranged from the year 2000 to 2020 of publication. A summary of the included studies is presented in Table 4 below. A full table with all 55 data sources is attached as Appendix C.

Table 4

A summary of included studies

Study no.	Author/date	Country	Purpose/Aim relevant to the study	Relevance
1.	Adarkwa,S. (2017)	South Africa	Father identity, masculinities, and parenting	High
2.	Barker, G and Ricardo,C (2005)	Sub-Saharan Africa	Discourses of fathering	Medium
3.	Bhana and Nkani (2014)	South Africa	Teenagers becoming fathers. Focusing on culture, materiality, and masculinity	
4.	Bongwana, T (2013)	South Africa	Masculinities and fatherhood	Medium
5.	Chideya and Williams (2013). Adolescent fathers: Exploring their perceptions of their role as parent.	South Africa	Adolescent fathers and their perceptions on fatherhood	High
6.	Chikovore et al. (2016).Fatherhood and fathering	South Africa	Fatherhood role, income	low
7.	Chili, S (2013)	South Africa	Fatherhood identity	Medium
8.	Clowes et al. (2013). Who needs a father? South African men reflect on being fathered.	South Africa	South African fathers	Medium
9.	Dabula, A (2018)	South Africa	Fatherhood identity	Medium

10.	du Toit, M. et al. (2018).	South Africa	Unemployment	Medium
	Contextual factors and the experience of unemployment: A review of qualitative studies.			

Table 4 provides a summary of the studies that have been included, however, appendix 4 shows that only 3 African countries have been represented in this study, with the majority of Studies from South Africa. Mozambique and Ghana are the only African countries which have been represented alongside South Africa. This suggests that, not many studies have been conducted on this topic. The studies were rated as high, medium, or low according to their relevance across the different identified themes. Fatherhood identity seems to be popularly researched on as most studies focused on this theme.

4.3 Findings from the thematic synthesis

The findings from 53 papers and 2 YouTube videos were synthesized into three main themes which represent an interpretation and synthesis of 12 sub-themes. The themes are presented in Table 5. In this table, each sub- theme is presented with the number of studies found on each theme and direct significant quotes have also been included. Each sub-theme will be presented by detailed explanations and references.

Table 5*Themes and Quotations*

Theme No.	Theme Heading	Number of studies	Indicative quotes
Main theme 1: Fatherhood identity			
1.1	Perceptions of fatherhood	20	Society defines fatherhood usually in terms of the ability to provide for their families and other needy children in the family or community (Adarkwa, 2017).
1.2	Provider role	8	Men are socialized to believing that they are breadwinners of the family therefore the inability to provide for their families, has a detrimental effect on their masculinity and sense of competence (Adarkwa, 2017)
Main theme 2: The Good father			
2.1	Responsibility	9	Being a father comes with responsibility, every day you just have keep on enhancing your role as father to your children, lead by example, keep your position of being the authority with love and respect (Adarkwa,2017).
2.2	Financial stability	3	Being a "good father" is determined by the father's ability to provide financially for their child/ren. For these participants, inability to provide financially automatically means that one is not a good father as raising a child requires money and it's the father's job to ensure that there is money/food for the family (Khanyile, 2019).
2.3	Influential background	7	Research suggests that children who receive poor parenting will find it difficult at a later stage in life to be good parents also. This is because they would be lacking in skills that are essential for good parenting (Chili, 2013).
Main theme 3: Impact of unemployment			

3.1	Poverty	5	<p>Poverty levels are high in South Africa, and food insecurity is high, Wilson (2006) highlights a study done in Mossel Bay in 1999 which found that there was a strong correlation between children going to bed hungry, and depression by parents for not being able to provide for their children.</p> <p>Fatherhood is associated with employment. An unemployed father who is unable to provide for his family sees himself as emasculated and unable to fully assume fatherhood. Unemployment is rife in South Africa. Young black and township dwellers are disproportionately affected by the lack of jobs in the economy. Research has shown that unemployment and poverty are closely associated in South Africa (Mavungu, 2013).</p>
3.2	Inability to perform cultural rituals	3	<p>Failure to pay the required price to cleanse the household usually results in the child being kept by the female's family and the male having little or no access to his child. The study found that this is problematic for most young fathers because they usually do not have this payment that is required hence they have limited or no access to their children (Chili, 2013).</p>
3.3	Father absence	14	<p>Some participants reported undesirable experiences including financial challenges, rejection by family and fathers of the children and the need to earn a living to support themselves and their children. Those who had some positive experience expressed personal growth and an increased sense of responsibility. The absence of fathers in the care of children was a conspicuous outcome as these young fathers either reported to have denied responsibility for the parenting or being incapable of financially supporting their children. As a result, young mothers were left to take full responsibility for the financial, physical and emotional needs of their children (William,2015)</p>

3.4	Emotional Challenges	15	Inability to provide material or financial support makes fathers feel like a failure (Muvungu,2013).
			Due to the understanding of fatherhood as a phenomenon that is associated with provision, many of the participants including both mothers and fathers reported that this pressure to provide irrespective of whether the father is working or not may sometimes hamper the relationship between the father and the child. Some of the fathers reported that as a result of being unable to provide, they end up feeling less of a father to their children and this affect their self-esteem, leading to them distancing themselves away from their families/child (Khanyile,2019).
3.5	The single mother	2	The absence of fathers in the care of children was a conspicuous outcome as these young fathers either reported to have denied responsibility for the parenting or being incapable of financially supporting their children. As a result, young mothers were left to take full responsibility for the financial, physical and emotional needs of their children. None of the participants would recommend early motherhood to other young women (Mavundla, 2019).
3.6	Coping mechanisms (Substance abuse)	2	Desertion is not always physical; it can also be emotional. Many men “die” as parents and husbands by indulging in alcohol, drugs or becoming unresponsive to their families. Women end up carrying a disproportionate load of responsibility in the nurturing of young people without the necessary authority to do so (Richter & Morrell, 2006).

The above table highlighted the identified themes which will be discussed in detail, in the next section. The relevant themes were identified in the extracted studies.

4.3.1 Main theme 1: Father identity

One of the key findings of this study is that fatherhood identity is highly influenced by an individual's background and societal setting. Fatherhood identity has also changed over the years owing to cultural and political factors. Lesejane (2006) stated that in pre-colonial times, fathers were providers, protectors, and caregivers within the family setting; however, the labour system forced fathers to move away from home for work purposes which resulted to the provider role becoming prominent. Over the years, fatherhood has been reinvented due to contextual changes. Furthermore, it seems that the patriarchal system has slowly become unpopular in other parts of Africa, as fathers have become more critical towards societal constructs.

4.3.1.1 Perceptions of fatherhood

This study clearly highlighted that perceptions of fatherhood identity are highly influenced and interlinked with socialized gender roles. Fathers have understood and constructed their identity according to these gender roles, such as the ability to protect and provide for the family. Therefore, the identified findings in this study focused particularly on gender roles and societal expectations towards fathers.

Shefer et al. (2010) indicated that the centrality of a father as a breadwinner and the head of the family has been the key indicator of successful masculinity within many societal groups. The perceptions of being a father have been understood through the roles that an individual is able to fulfil or practise. These social constructs are problematic for many fathers, whose role has been understood socio-economically with the ongoing pressure on poor fathers.

A study by Van den Berg et al. (2013) also highlighted the above findings. Fatherhood was described as a key element of male identity which should be addressed in studies that try to transform current masculine norms. This study showed that fatherhood and fathering in South Africa is socially patterned according to the history of apartheid, migration, poverty, and the interrupted family structures due to these factors. Many fathers sense of self and identity has been influenced by their ability to provide materially.

Morrell et al. (2012) also indicated that fatherhood identity was influenced by masculinity which sought to analyse gender power. In the historical context, fathers fought for their identity through the dynamics of male power that was influenced by race. White

masculinity was associated with political and economic power whilst the Black African masculinity was associated with indigenous institutions such as communal land tenure, customary law, and chiefship.

Taylor et al. (2013) findings suggested that fatherhood is connected to masculinity and social identity as indicated above. The status of either being married often contributes to further conceptions of being able to provide food, shelter, and resources to the family.

The identified studies focused solely on father's either being married or having female partners, which suggests that researchers have either focused on hegemonic masculinity or that society is not open to other types of masculinities besides hegemonic masculinity. Van der Walt (2007) highlighted that heterosexuality has always been identified as the default construction of masculinity for men.

A study by Roy (2008) indicated that fatherhood roles differed according to the fathers racial or cultural background. Traditional Zulu fathers have always been known for valuing authority and the importance of building a home which is closely linked to their ability to pay *ilobola* (bride wealth/bride price), whilst Afrikaner fathers are tied closely to the land and farming.

The above highlights that although individuals are born within the same community, country, or continent. They are still separated by different racial or cultural backgrounds which form part of social constructs within their setting.

In a YouTube video, based on participatory research film by Galle (2020) fathers from a rural village in Maputo, challenged the patriarchal system and the gender roles which have influenced fatherhood identity. The fathers in this film have become critical of the society they grew up in. They raised concern particularly on the ideologies which have identified women as the main caregiver. These fathers have also attempted to change the traditional way of contraception, pregnancy, childcare and house chores by leading by example and being equally involved in the process of family care. The fathers in this study believed that change will only occur if they live and lead by example through the process of defying gender role and cultural stereotypes. The fathers perceived fatherhood as a process of being a parent and fully committing to the child's needs irrespective of societal expectations on gender roles and identity. Fathers highlighted the importance of equality and the importance of change in a forever changing society. They indicated partaking in house chores, childcare and accompanying their partners to antenatal appointments.

The above clearly highlighted that social constructs are man-made and as a result, change may occur according to the ideologies introduced during that time. Furthermore,

although individuals may experience scrutiny from society, new social constructs may develop when introduced in a collective. Therefore, fatherhood perceptions and gender roles will always differ according to a certain cultural group.

William (2015) stated that fatherhood and father identity is influenced by the father's ability to adjust their gender role beliefs. This seems to indicate that fatherhood identity depends on the father's individualistic perceptions of who they are and what their responsibilities are. However, society still has an influence towards these perceptions. Countries such as Ghana have classified fathers as disciplinarians and providers. Although fathers have been identified as such, William highlighted that fathers yearn to provide happiness, emotional and psychological wellbeing for their children.

In a study conducted by Adarkwa (2017) being a father was described as a responsibility to enhance the role of fatherhood in leading the children by example and instilling authority with love and respect. Fatherhood involves cultural coding of men in terms of their duties, rights, and responsibilities. Furthermore, the concept of fatherhood was described as a representation of a man who has authority over his household and protects his family, which correlated with William (2015). Fathers considered themselves as breadwinners, guiders, and role models. However, the study also emphasised that a father could be anyone who takes care of a child, which is an important concept of *ubuntu* within the African culture. As highlighted in the literature review, Lesejane (2006) indicated that children belong to a broader community irrespective of paternity. However, the biological father role has made fathers feel affirmed that their children would carry the family legacy.

Adarkwa further stated that, fatherhood involved more responsibilities than just financial support, but the cultural aspects of men in terms of rights, duties, responsibilities was also important. The same views on fatherhood were further highlighted in this study, which focus on fathers as authority figures who watch over their families and provide for them.

Muvungu (2013) acknowledged that the provider role has continuously been the focus regarding fatherhood identity which has contributed to the rejected care-giving role that has been preserved for women. Some fathers have embraced their involvement in caregiving and have acknowledged that building an emotional bond with the child is just as important. Furthermore, the importance of moving beyond the provider role was also emphasized. However, many have excluded themselves from responsibilities which have been associated with women. Countries such as Ghana have shown a shift in fatherhood perceptions which have been researched on, many fathers have participated in household chores and continue to have a desire to provide happiness and psychological support. Furthermore, the general features

of a paternal role and influence have focused on nurturance, provision of care, moral and ethical guidance. These features have been considered as important factors for a child's well-being.

Leopeng and Langa (2017) study focused on the representation of fathers in the media. The representation of fatherhood in the media have had an influence towards familial relations. Although popular magazines have served as an outlet for new emerging masculinities which include the practises of fatherhood, these are still linked to the historical conceptions of masculinity and the socio-economic factors. Historically, being able to provide as a migrant worker meant that one was a good man and a good father. However, fathers were still stereotyped as being unaccustomed to the experiences of emotional depth.

It seems that although society has attempted to limit and control the fatherhood role, many fathers still seek to build a meaningful bond and relationship with the child. However, there is a continuous battle with societal constructs, which have been used as a reference point irrespective of whether they are beneficial for fathers and the relationship they have with their children.

It was evident in Khanyile (2019) study that societal constructs are often followed but are not questioned. Many fathers have associated their fatherhood role with their ability to provide however, many are unsure why such constructs exist. They believe that they should provide because this is how it has been done for many generations. The labour system has been used as a reference point to highlight that fathers were obligated to leave home in search for work. Fatherhood has been consistent with the social constructs of masculinity which has viewed fathers as nothing less than role models and breadwinners.

This suggests that although societal constructs are not entirely understood, they have been utilized to regulate behaviour, in this case fatherhood behaviour. Masculinity and fatherhood constructs determine how men should behave, be treated and what qualities or attitudes they should possess in order to succeed (Ampofo & Boateng, 2007). Fatherhood has been determined as the main identity of masculinity which gives men a sense of identity and manhood. The fatherhood role serves as a building block of masculinity which would explain why most fathers feel pressurized to fulfil the required duties irrespective of their limited resources.

Makusha (2013) also indicated that fathering was and is still centred on the man's ability to build a home based on marriage and having children. Fathering has allowed fathers the opportunity to have children and continue the patrilineal lineage through their boy children. Fatherhood and fathering have also contributed to men receiving respect within the family and community. Although many American and European countries believe that fatherhood focuses

on the individual's biological determinants, South Africa and other African countries believe that fatherhood goes beyond conception. South Africa focuses on the spirit of communalism which characterizes the importance of connectedness, connectedness allows men to father beyond the biological aspect and extends to other social relationships. Furthermore, Makusha (2013) showed that there is a distinct difference between fathers from rural communities who are often from highly patriarchal households where men do not involve themselves in the child's life compared to fathers from less patriarchal households who are involved with the child's daily needs.

This suggests that although there are fatherhood perceptions, there may be a difference in how these are practised according to an individual's background and cultural context.

A previous South African study by Singh (2004) also alluded to the above. Singh stated that the family system was the oldest of all societies, and the father has continuously been the head of that society. A father is expected to command and oversee to his wife's and children's conduct. However, fatherhood is a social role which changes over time.

Mkhize (2006) on the other hand, focused on fatherhood and parenting within the African context. Traditionally, African societies are informed by a communal way of living. Therefore, individuals realise their responsibility and place within society through other people. Individuals within the African community are obligated to be responsive to others in society. This means that the fatherhood role is not entirely the responsibility of a biological father, but the concept of fatherhood expands to the collective household. However, within the Western cultures self-understanding is individualistic and child-rearing practices and fathering are fostered through individual autonomy.

Although the African culture emphasizes the importance of a collective society, there is not enough research to substantiate whether social fathers or extended families involve themselves in assisting the child when the father is unemployed. The focus has been on playing a disciplinarian role rather than a financial role.

Culture has had a vital role in the perceptions of fatherhood as indicated in a study conducted by Chideya and Williams (2013). Many adolescent boys become vulnerable to the pressures of becoming a man which has socialized them to achieve, perform and produce. Many have viewed sexual activity as a gateway to manhood and gaining respect from their peers. This behaviour contributes to unplanned or unwanted pregnancies and the inability to raise the child.

The cultural perceptions of fatherhood were challenged in a study by Bongwana (2013). Although financial stability was raised as an important factor, most fathers in the study

transcended beyond the breadwinner role and indicated the importance of emotional care, stability, and love. Their perception towards fatherhood entailed being actively and physically involved. The societal patterns of women roles were challenged and many fathers in the study took on these women roles with great responsibility. Some indicated that times have changed, and fatherhood or motherhood should not be defined by gender roles. This demonstrated that most fathers could play roles that have been perceived to be women roles. Although there was an awareness of historical and societal expectations towards fathers, many in this study have chosen to deviate from the way they have been brought up and have focused on the emotional aspects of fatherhood.

However, a study by Froning (2016) highlighted that although fathers may have an intention to provide and care for the child, the government welfare system has introduced a range of public and private care facilities that are only aimed at supporting mothers and not the participation of fathers within a household. The South African leave system is one of the most progressive systems in Africa however, it serves as a prime example of how the constitution has disregarded fathers as caregivers. According to the Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1997, mothers are allowed up to 4 months leave with up to 60% of their salary whilst fathers are only allowed up to 3 days “family responsibility leave” (Godfrey & Clarke, 2002). The lack of paternity leave emphasises the strong message which fathers have been culturally inclined to, that has associated fatherhood identity with the provider role. Fathers have exercised their function to being the earner and provider in the family. This notion creates a distant take on the caring responsibilities that fathers are capable of but rather creates a domineering trait that is often perceived as unemotional. This study also indicated that some fathers are uncertain of their responsibilities and have interpreted the carer role as optional for them, e.g., choosing to care and look after the baby from a certain age and only choosing to care for the baby when they are available.

4.3.1.2 Provider role

Dabula (2013) highlighted that the concept of fatherhood has been consistent throughout the years. Fathers are still expected to play the breadwinner role and be a primary provider. The provider role was identified as one of the sub-themes due to the excessive focus that it has had in society and research over the years. It was important for the author to understand how this role was constructed and how it has had an impact on fatherhood identity. It was clear in this review that most fathers have a poor understanding of who they are truly meant to be apart from this role.

Makusha (2013) emphasized that financial and material support play an important role in father involvement. Although traditionally, most African countries expected fathers to represent their families in public settings. However, due to the apartheid era, South African fathers were expected to pay levies which had a negative impact on the father role as a family representative and protector. Fathers were expected to move into urban farming and mining areas which made it difficult for them to care and nurture their children. Many fathers who were in stable relationships often perceived themselves as worthless when they were unable to provide and send money to their families. When fathers are unable to provide financially, their sense of manhood and fatherhood is challenged. Many experience conflict from their partners and children. The father role is difficult when faced with economic challenges, this worsens when the women takes on the economic role.

Makusha et al. (2013) also reflected on the role of fathers in society and how they have been viewed. The study which included male and female participants who were mothers and fathers, clarified the breadwinner role and how society has viewed this as the most important role irrespective of the father's involvement or residency. A participant stated that their relationship with their father was good considering that he was working. The father was described as responsible and loving for providing the family with their daily needs. Whereas an unemployed father was not viewed in this regard. Another participant indicated that their unemployed husband was not always present and could not provide for the family. The women participants agreed that the man's role was to provide and support the family financially.

The above reflects on the pressure that fathers are faced with daily. It seems that to receive respect and acknowledgment from their families, most have had to work and provide as indicated by Makusha (2013). Moreover, studies have shown that when women take on the economic role fathers lose their sense of self and belonging due to the over identified role of being a provider (Connell, 1998).

In the same light, the same study showed a contradicting view from one of the participants who indicated that fathers seem to assume that the provider role is all they ought to play. The participant continued to argue that the child needs their father to be physically available for family outings and school activities.

The above then raises the question of whether fathers instil the pressure to be providers on themselves or has this been an ongoing societal pressure towards them? This further suggests that there will always be differences in society; however, every individual is responsible for their own response to societal constructs.

Tyawa's (2017) study alluded to the fact that the father-provider role dates to colonialism and the migrant labour system. The father's involvement with his family was disrupted during this period. Fathers were expected to work away from home and take on the provider role by sending money to their families. This became the new reality for families as fathers became providers. Although colonialism ended, this practise continued over generations. Many studies have been done thereafter, which depict the difficulties fathers have encountered with this role. The inability to fulfil the economic role, often causes conflict within families considering that this has been an ongoing practise. The ongoing focus on the father-provider role has resulted to some fathers neglecting other roles which they previously played, such as emotional support and caregiving. However, some argued that fathers understand their roles as parents although fatherhood is experienced positively with the ability to provide. Furthermore, colonization enforced Western norms. Studies have shown that African men equate fatherhood with the provider role whereas, Western cultures have deemed emotional support and providing other forms of fatherhood as important compared to financial support.

The above clearly indicates that the change in the family system impacted on the change in gender roles. The assumption was that mothers were to look after the homestead and support the children emotionally, whilst the father provided for the family.

Adarkwa (2017) indicated that fatherhood was often defined in terms of their ability to provide for the family and children. Men pride themselves on fatherhood and being able to provide for the family as this asserts their masculinity. Men believe that it is their cultural responsibility to provide, in order to be acknowledged as real men. The study also showed that the provider role is not only cultural but that the law in countries such as South Africa also pressurize fathers to provide. Many fathers have been forced to take care of their children through maintenance claimed in family courts. Fathers within the study indicated that maintenance was good in order to assist the mother of the child. However, some indicated that they could not afford to pay due to unemployment or a low income. Men, particularly fathers, have been socialized to believe that they are providers and the inability to provide has had a negative effect on their masculinity. Employment has been considered important in the father's involvement and many have been validated for being able to provide, failing which, fathers have had to face the consequences by often being separated from the child. Fathers in the study stated that culturally, they have been taught that every man should be able to provide for the family. However, some indicated that money is never enough to provide for all the child's needs due to a low income. A father stated that "whether you are employed or unemployed you must provide".

Although the study highlighted on the importance of father involvement and the positive impact that this may have on the child and the mother, little has been said on the stressors that fathers experience due to societal pressure and being separated from the child.

Mavungu (2013) stated that, although father participation was important for women, fathers endured the burden of being financially responsible and stable which may have a negative impact on them. Fathers believe that they are the source for survival.

A study by Chideya and Williams (2013) highlighted that the provider role may be problematic and challenging for young fathers. They indicated that teenage pregnancy is one of the highest socio-economic challenges faced in South Africa. There are many factors that contribute to this challenge, such as poor access to safe sex information. Furthermore, the focus and assistance has been provided to teenage mothers and very little support is given to teenage fathers. There are various dissimilarities regarding the socio-economic background of fathers that has contributed to the limitation of creating a single definition of fatherhood. Fathers who have low income have faced a significant challenge of building a feasible and identifiable fatherhood image and identity. The breadwinner role has changed over the years and has not been as prominent as it was in history however, the historical reference and impact still influences fathers to label themselves as insufficient breadwinners or providers. Fathers then continue to emphasize their financial role which leaves impoverished fathers faced with negative scrutiny.

4.3.2 Main theme 2: Who is a good father?

A good father has often been associated with a father who resonates with the evolving societal expectations. Their role has been identified as providers and caregivers. Palkovitz (2002) indicated that an ideal good father consisted of three important components which are relational (loving and caring), provider role, and personality (patient and invested). The below themes on who is a good father? have been identified in the included studies.

4.3.2.1 Responsibility

Spjeldnaes et al. (2011) highlighted that young boys see fatherhood as the most visible role that they would have to play as adults. Young boys shape their masculinities, self-development, and identity around fatherhood. This concept of a responsible father is introduced to young boys from an early age as argued by (Morrell, 2007). However, this is often seen in disadvantaged areas. Young boys within economically advantaged areas, tend to postpone fatherhood until a later stage of their lives. This seems to indicate that responsibility begins

from the prevailing core or idea of fatherhood and being able to avoid or postpone the fatherhood role when one is not fully ready. The study further highlighted that responsible fatherhood entails protecting and providing financially however, the concept of “new fatherhood” suggests that responsibility entails caring for the child emotionally. Moreover, guiding children into adulthood forms part of a responsible father’s role, guiding which also entails discipline and setting household rules. Some participants emphasized that the father’s ability to provide economically was a sign of being responsible irrespective of whether the father was physically present or not. Most participants within this study indicated that they did not spend time with their own fathers although some would send money to the family, because of this, many have taken the responsibility to assist their children with homework and help with childcare.

In a study by Rabe (2006), a good father was described as someone who is responsible enough to care and support the family. This also means that he avoids any emotional or physical abuse towards his family. Some fathers in the study described their level of involvement as a positive factor, their involvement included taking time off to be with their children whilst completing daily chores with them. Although fathers have often been described as distant, most of the fathers in this study indicated that having minimal contact did not hinder their interest towards their children’s education and daily needs.

According to Chili (2013), being a good father entails being responsible. In the study, fathers stated that fatherhood involved new duties and responsibilities which required compromising individual needs. A few employed fathers indicated that their spending patterns had to change. They would previously spend on their friends, alcohol, and leisure activities but this changed as soon as they were fathers. This responsibility of fatherhood for them, meant standing out from their friends into manhood. However, responsibility for some, focused on the emotional and psychological aspect which children require from their fathers. Although many fathers believe that financial support is their main responsibility, many others fail to provide sufficient emotional support which creates balanced development for the child. Although some may not live with the child, they have invested time to speak to the child over the phone to affirm their love. However, the difficulty to provide emotional and psychological support may be limited or unavailable due to the insistence of financial support.

Tyawa (2017) also highlighted that in the Zulu culture, paying *inhlawulo* (damages) is a sign of responsibility and dedication. However, Makhanya (2016) acknowledged that the importance of being emotionally available and responsible for the child through showing

affection and spending quality time with the child. Most fathers indicated that permanently residing with the child was an ongoing desire.

Although the above studies highlighted that showing a sense of responsibility entails financial and emotional responsibility. Enderstein et. al. (2015) indicated that the first step to fatherhood responsibility is to accept paternity. Taking responsibility may be a difficult discourse for many fathers, especially young fathers. Some fathers indicated that they felt compelled to accept paternity due to the strong bond they felt towards their unborn child. However, some indicated that although the pregnancy was unplanned, they felt the need to sacrifice for the sake of the baby. Furthermore, responsibility to accept paternity also entails paying for damages in most African households.

A study by Hendricks et al. (2010) also alluded to the acceptance of paternity as the initial step into fatherhood and responsibility. Once paternity has been established, the mother has a right to claim any financial resources and responsibilities for the child. African cultures such as amaXhosa and the Zulus, may be obliged to pay inhlawulo (damages) towards the pregnant woman's family and a sign of taking up responsibility.

The above encapsulates that most fathers have an awareness and a need to take responsibility for being sexually active and being reliable for any consequences. However, unemployed fathers encounter challenges regarding the payment of inhlawulo (damages) as indicated by Tyawa (2017). The payment of damages and acceptance of paternity play a vital role in father involvement and responsibility.

Ratele et al. (2012) completed a study on men's constructions and experiences of fatherhood and fatherlessness. Fathers highlighted that being a good father meant "being there". The sense of responsibility and sense of caring was described as important for the fathers than being physically present. The quality of the relationship between the father and child was described as important compared to the quantity of time spent together.

4.3.2.2 Financial stability

In a study conducted by Madiba and Nsiki (2017) teenage fathers seemed to hold the same sentiments as married or older fathers regarding fatherhood, despite still being at school. They described a good father as someone who is financially stable and associated the fatherhood role with the ability to provide all the material needs for the child which took precedence over the physical and emotional needs. Although the teenage fathers in this study were still at school, there was a sense of pressure to seek employment and save in order to

contribute. In the same study, a father who could not provide regarded himself as not so good. He stated that he would consider himself as a good father once he provides financially.

In a study by Froning (2016) participants disagreed with the statement that successful and responsible men needed to be financially stable. However, they acknowledged that being financially stable contributed to one's ability to contribute to everyday necessities. Fathers in this study highlighted that apart from financial stability and independence, fathers need to have a balanced spiritual and family life. Some fathers indicated that although their partners assisted in providing, this was not a permanent arrangement and they preferred to take on the responsibility. Although many fathers attempted to portray themselves as progressive thinkers regarding their financial status, they were uncomfortable with gender roles being reversed.

Moreover, as indicated in a study by Hendricks et al. (2010) financial stability was described as highly important to ensure that young fathers could still fulfil their dreams. The inability to support the child financially, contributes to many young fathers being forced to abandon their education to support the child. Many parents have forced these young fathers to seek employment. However, young fathers from financially stable households have received support for themselves and the child.

The above clearly highlights that the importance of financial stability in society, supersedes any other fatherhood roles in the expense of the father's dreams or goals.

4.3.2.3 Background

As stated in the literature review, Richter and Naicker (2013) indicated that the difficulty which parents face is that the parental role is not an innate skill, and everything is achieved through trial and error. However, Chili (2013) suggested that parenting is influenced by an individual's background. Children who receive poor parenting will often have trouble at a later stage in their lives when they become parents. Fathers have a crucial role in the upbringing of their children. This seems to suggest that the fatherhood role is often modelled from father to son and impacts of the way fathers may raise their own children.

Some of the respondents in a study conducted by Dabula (2018) indicated that they did not have a father figure whilst growing up and lacked a male role model. Others revealed that they only saw their fathers during the holiday season which did not have a significant impact or experience with the father. Their own developmental experiences have contributed to the need for them to avoid being absent fathers. Many indicated that they would not want their children to undergo the same experiences.

This seems to highlight that individuals respond differently to different situations. Although some may choose to be withdrawn in the fatherhood role, others use the same experience to alter the outcome.

Khanyile (2019) reiterated that many fathers found that there was a link to one's own lived experiences and the way they fathered their own children. Many indicated that they learned the aspects of fatherhood by mirroring their own relationships with their fathers. Some felt that not having a father had a negative impact on their own understanding of what fatherhood entailed, considering that they had no one to look up to. Numerous studies have also shown that the fatherhood role could be played by other figures within society however, many fathers who were raised by their uncles believed that the process was not a purposive one but a "by the way" experience. Many fathers have built their understanding of fatherhood through the process of socialization, the perceptions of what a father is supposed to do has been shaped through the ongoing engagement within social groups.

Mavungu (2013) indicated that many fathers stated that they did not have any experience on fatherhood. Furthermore, many fathers indicated that they did not know how to behave or father, considering that they did not have their own father figures. This shows that although many rely on socialization others consider their own personal lived experiences. This further indicates the crucial role of a present and involved father.

However, Makhanya (2016) stated that many who have had the experience of an uninvolved father, have been motivated to be fully involved in their child's life and their upbringing however, some have faced the challenge of being denied access.

A study by Chideya and Williams (2013) touched on the impact and influence that parents may have towards their sons. Young fathers from poor home backgrounds may lack parental interest and responsibility. The relationship that young fathers have with their parents may have a huge impact on their ability to adjust to fatherhood. The support that they receive tends to create a buffer for any external stressors and enables them to take responsibility within their new roles as indicated in the studies above.

4.3.3 Main theme 3: Impact of unemployment

4.3.3.1 Poverty

Makhanya (2016) highlighted that a major challenge faced by unemployed fathers is poverty. Unemployment and poverty correlate and this impacts on the father-child relationship because fathers are unable to meet the legal and cultural expectations which have been highlighted extensively above. The South African law has not entirely considered the realities

of social and economic issues faced by fathers in the country. Although many fathers desire to have a relationship with their children, the unemployment rate makes it difficult for fathers to assume full responsibility for the child.

Furthermore, as indicated by Makusha (2013). Poverty and the lack of employment coupled with the constructs of fatherhood denies many fathers the opportunity to build a relationship with their children.

A study by Mkhize (2006) indicated that although South Africa has experienced change and improvement in the lives of the poor within the years of democracy, unemployment remains high. This means that with the high rate of unemployment, African fathers are still experiencing difficulty in assuming their socially constructed role of fatherhood. Unemployed fathers are economically disempowered and marginalized as African men. Poverty continues to inhibit them from performing cultural ceremonies such as weddings, which contributes to their marriage not being fully recognized by the family or community. Unemployment which then leads to poverty, often prompts the father's decision to desert their child/ren. Poverty and social constructs of manhood and fatherhood have robbed many fathers the opportunity to play the father role effectively. The psychological effects of poverty can be crippling to the children who are forced to sometimes miss daily meals and parents undergo periods of depression.

Chideya and Williams (2013) interestingly highlighted that the increase of poverty due to unemployment has also contributed to the rise in sexual activity which is seen as a way towards achieving immediate satisfaction and decreasing societal stressors.

Hendricks et al. (2010) highlighted the same sentiments that young fathers sometimes choose this role to fulfil their self-serving needs and have the desire to impress their peers. However, this role often contributes to negative consequences such as the use of alcohol and sexual risk taking which then increases the rate of poverty due to the inability to provide.

The above then suggests that the cycle of poverty and fatherless households may continue to increase with the rise of sexual activity and increase in unplanned pregnancies. The inability to support the child also contributes to the increase of fathers with a low sense of self.

4.3.3.2 Inability to perform cultural rituals

Chili (2013) found that unemployment has also impacted on the father's ability to pay *inhlawulo* (damages). *Inhlawulo*, which is a ritual performed within the Black community is practised in order for the father to acknowledge that he has done wrong by impregnating a woman out of wedlock. Many fathers who believe in this practise have been unable to pay these damages due to unemployment. Failure to pay the required amount often results in the child

being kept from the father and is raised by the maternal family. As a result, children are separated from their fathers as highlighted in section 4.3.3 and are unable to build a relationship. Fathers are made to feel unwelcome and they often avoid the maternal family because of guilt and fear of disrespect. Furthermore, this impacts on the father-mother relationship ending, which results to further limited opportunities and alienation for the father to spend time with his child. Overall father involvement is interrupted by cultural practices which are often difficult to fulfil.

Zulu (2014) stated that the inability to pay for these cultural rituals may also have a huge impact on the child/ren identity. In the South African Black community, fathers hold the key to the child's identity. Connecting the child with their ancestors, who are believed to hold the key to the child's success and good fortune through these rituals is important. Furthermore, children who reside in households that do not have their fathers' surname may find themselves being excluded in the decision making, rituals or traditional ceremonies. According to the South African traditional counsels, children may encounter misfortune and be excluded from ancestral blessings due to not having these rituals being practised.

In the same light, a study by Chikovore et al. (2016) highlighted that although many fathers may wish to get married this is still determined by their income. Marriage is often delayed due to the inability to pay *ilobola* (bride price). Many parents have considered *ilobola* as a reimbursement for the years that they raised their daughter, which many fathers may have difficulty paying. Failure to pay *ilobola* results in many fathers being separated from their spouses and facing societal criticism.

4.3.3.3 Father absence

Dabula (2018) indicated that an absent father refers to the emotional and physical absence of a father in a child's life. Many studies have shown that father absence has been contributed by many factors, particularly the issue of unemployment. However, Dabula highlighted that father absence was first evident due to the migrant labour system, which forced fathers to move away from home in search for employment. As indicated previously, this system introduced fathers to a new lifestyle and role of being the main provider. The guilt, failure, and shame that fathers endure to obtain employment has caused many fathers to stay away from the fatherhood role. Fathers have been forced to abandon their roles due to financial hardships.

In a study conducted by Chili (2013) it was evident that the high rate of father absence was highly influenced by unemployment which contributed to many African fathers being

unable to pay *inhlawulo* (damages) to the maternal family. Culturally, fathers cannot lay claim to a child unless damages are paid. Most participants indicated that the child's mother makes decisions pertaining to the child. Although cultural beliefs and practices are important, this may contribute to the child's poor and unfavourable upbringing conditions, due to the inability to pay. The inability to pay puts strain on the relationship between the father and child as it limits the time they spend together. Furthermore, it interrupts communication between the mother and father, and this often leads to a failed relationship.

Zulu (2014) also reiterated on the above point in that, South African father absence has been highly influenced by unemployment and poverty which could also possibly be linked to the legacy of apartheid. It is suggested that children who do not communicate, live, or receive any maintenance from their fathers are father absent children. This further indicates the pressure and importance for fathers to provide financially. Although the factors which contribute to father absence have been identified, children are still left without fathers which leaves an emotional void for many.

However, in a YouTube video by eNCA (2020) it was highlighted that there is no one typical father, particularly in South Africa, but many different fathers. Fathers who have been referred to as social fathers are believed to exist in every household. Although biological fathers may be absent, social fathers such as grandfathers and uncles have been responsible for the father role at some point. However, there is not enough research to establish the type of support, such as financial support, that children receive from social fathers.

A study by Madhavan et al. (2014) highlighted that fathers who are unable to provide financially often face depression and shame which often leads them to disengage. The lack of unemployment and the inability to provide forces them to leave home in search for work. Their absence inhibits them from playing the fatherly role whilst further contributing to many children being unable to carry their fathers' surname which causes great concern for many going into their adulthood.

The above seems to indicate that often, fathers are forced to break communication with their children due to the lack of unemployment and financial stability. Furthermore, in the process of practising culture, cultural practices control the interaction and relationship outcome between fathers and their children. It is therefore important to understand the complex dynamics that interplay in the process of seeing financial support from fathers.

Tyawa (2017) emphasised on this factor, that many fathers who fail to provide financially and materialistically often flee from fatherhood responsibility in the attempt to avoid humiliation. This shows evidence that unemployed fathers are still marginalized.

In a study by Patel & Mavungu (2016) father absence was described under two meanings. The first meaning which refers to physical absence that may be caused by working away, divorce, separation, and social dislocation. The second meaning refers to a father's emotional disengagement regardless of being physically present or absent. Based on the fathers viewpoints in this study, the main reasons for father absence were based on the socio-economic factors, poverty, unemployment and the inability to pay for customary practices such as *ilobolo* (bride price) and *inhlawulo* (damages) which are factors that have been repeatedly highlighted in other studies. However, understanding the father absence phenomenon has been difficult as research studies have excluded the viewpoints of fathers and their personal psychological challenges which are contributed by societal stressors.

Dabula (2018) highlighted the same factors as indicated by Chili, that cultural practices exclude fathers who are unemployed and cannot afford to pay damages. The situation is often worsened when the father comes from a poverty-stricken family. These cultural rituals tend to hamper father-child involvement which then lead to abandonment or denial of paternity. Some fathers also indicated that unemployment frustrates them to the point of not wanting to see the child because they feel ashamed.

Although some fathers seek to build a relationship with their children, a study conducted by Luthuli (2006) indicated that not all men were willing to accept the fatherhood role. Many avoid the role through flight, denial, or abandonment.

Meyer (2018) also highlighted that there are many reasons for father absence however the main reasons are the lack of resources and unemployment. Men who believe or feel that they cannot provide for their children or more likely to abandon their role as fathers, not being able to provide leaves most men ashamed.

However, Makhanya (2016) highlighted that often, father absence is caused by denied access to the child. Some fathers are denied access due to conflict caused by the maternal family who support the child.

These studies have shown that some of the factors contributing to the high father absence are mostly due to poverty, unemployment, and the inability to pay child maintenance.

However, as highlighted in a study by Clowes et al. (2013). African countries such as South Africa, cannot ignore the legacy of apartheid which has continued to influence the social and economic changes that have continued to contribute to many fatherless households. This problem has also fuelled the ongoing cycle of young boys growing up without male role models, specifically their fathers. Although studies have emphasised the importance of father presence, very few have acknowledged that social fathers have often played the fatherhood role

in the place of biological fathers. Many fathers indicated that although their biological fathers were absent, their uncles, grandfathers and neighbours took on the father role. However, some still indicated that something was missing in their development.

Chikovore et al. (2016) also reiterated that within the African culture children are valued by the whole family system and are often sent to live with their relatives in cases where their biological parents cannot take care of them. The concept of “domestic fluidity” by (Murray, 1981) was indicated which clearly highlights African households which have been able to disperse whilst balancing rural livelihood, migrant work, and children’s education within an extended family environment. The study further stated that father absence has however been influenced by the father’s ability to either provide or not. Men within the highest earning category are most likely to live with their children whilst fathers who earn less often avoid being involved.

The above highlights that although father absence is common, many have had male figures who have attempted to fit into this role. However, many still feel incomplete without their biological fathers.

Most of the studies in this systematic review have highlighted that father absence is because of father unemployment. However, a study by Freeks (2017) highlighted that father absence has contributed to most socio-economic challenges in South African households. The study further indicated that unsuccessful father-child relationships were caused by father absence. This seems to suggest that there have not been many detailed studies that focus on the main reasons for father absence besides denial of paternity and it also highlights that the main father role is economic.

4.3.3.4 Emotional challenges

Oluseyi (2003) stated that prescribed gender roles by the society had negative implications towards the psychological wellbeing of both genders. The individual’s self-esteem and self-evaluation is often influenced by characteristics and measurement of one’s life achievements. Psychological wellbeing is socially and culturally constructed, and these constructs have the potential to affect individual health. Stress and emotional complexities are either inherent within a family setting or a relationship. These stressors are inevitable where there are stereotypes of masculinity and femininity which demand certain practises to be fulfilled. Due to the differences within socio-economic and cultural perceptions of gender, the psychological factors are also experienced differently between fathers and mothers.

Shefer (2006) highlighted that the difficulty that men encountered were the different shifts in power relations between men and women which contributed to many fathers feeling undermined and marginalized by women. This led to the discussion of gender-based violence (GBV) which has been identified as a contributing factor to the changes in gender relations. The emotional challenges caused by unemployment were highlighted as the main factors for violence in most households. Fathers in this study suggested that most fathers feel threatened by women who work and provide financially for the family as this questions their manhood. Some further indicated that they have endured verbal abuse from women which often leads to physical abuse. Being abused by women was also described as a taboo and most men who fall victim to this abuse, are often ridiculed by the police.

The above clearly depicts the inequality within the law system and it clearly highlights that women are often protected by the law which may further anger most men and bring about an increase in violence.

In a study by Makashu (2013) fathers reported depression due to family disruption caused by the long effects of unemployment. A participant stated that, if one is not working as a father then they cannot consider themselves a genuine father. Furthermore, some indicated that one is considered a father when they work and that they felt unloved and disrespected by their children following a job loss. Some partners also exacerbate feelings of worthlessness by constantly asking whether fathers seek work or not. This shows that financial absence or inadequate financial support often leads to family conflict and contributes to the increase of domestic violence.

In a South African study conducted by Chili (2013), young fathers shared their own difficulties with the fatherhood role. They alluded to the fact that their studies were interrupted, and their grades had deteriorated due to emotional stressors. Many indicated that they were denied access to the child although they had the intention to build a relationship with the child. They were forced to seek employment whilst studying as most did not receive financial support from their families. The study revealed that young fathers often experience emotional difficulties and are burdened by the dual role of being a father and seeking employment. Many expressed the need to study and work to provide sufficiently towards the child's needs. Although this need to seek employment and provide for the child seems responsible, it has negatively impacted on the way fathers view themselves and the inability to find work contributes to unnecessary pressure and a low self-esteem.

Dabula (2018) alluded to further negative effects which are experienced by young fathers, particularly those from poverty-stricken households. Most fathers from disadvantaged

backgrounds were forced to leave school to seek employment. The need to leave school may also further exacerbate feelings of worthlessness due to the inability to follow one's dreams.

Adarkwa (2017) stated that the high levels of unemployment and poverty in South Africa correlated strongly with many children who go to bed hungry, this causes many fathers to experience depressive symptoms due to the guilt of being unable to provide. Poverty also contributes to many familial stressors which impact on the father's mental health. The guilt of being unable to provide has also emasculated the fathers of their manhood.

Fathers in a study conducted by Muvungu (2013) indicated that, not being able to support financially has made them feel like failures. Furthermore, some felt that they did not deserve the "father" title. Although others felt that it was important to be there for your children despite being unemployed, providing love was described as the most important.

Matlakala et al. (2018) completed a study on the challenges faced by young teenage fathers. Teenage fathers appeared to struggle with various emotional challenges which were influenced by their difficulty to define their own identity. Many fathers in this study indicated that they experienced high levels of stress due to a low sense of maturity and lack of resources. Moreover, some indicated that they were still young and felt that the fatherhood role would hinder their chance to enjoy life to the fullest. Teenage fathers struggle to live through the role of being a father due to the ongoing process of development and being faced with teenage stressors. The findings in this study indicated that the central stressor was due to financial instability. Teenage fathers felt obligated to move from being dependent and assume the provider role. The study concluded that teenage fathers had more negative experiences of fatherhood over the positive experiences and that the role was overwhelming for them.

Khanyile (2019) highlighted that parents reported that the constant pressure for them to provide hindered the relationship between the father and child and as a result of being unable to provide, this affected the fathers self-esteem which leads to them distancing themselves away from the child. This shows that fathers often distance themselves in the fear of being ridiculed and being labelled worthless. Furthermore, these feelings of worthlessness are exacerbated when the woman takes over the responsibility, which results to feelings of resentment and envy. The cultural norms also negatively impact on the socio-economic stressors and fathers may feel inadequate for being unable to fulfil these cultural rituals.

A participant in a study conducted by Mkhize (2006) highlighted the impact in which unemployment may have on a father. The participant indicated that he had to complete daily house chores while his wife was at work and that he had lost respect from his children who no longer take the time to greet him.

This suggests that children are also as affected by unemployment as the fathers are. This means that they too are robbed from their daily needs and women are required to take on all the household needs.

Singh (2004) acknowledged that the media also contributes to fathers feeling inadequate. Most media images depict fathers as incompetent, lazy, and frightening which is far from the reality that fathers want to build. These negative stereotypes become embedded on fathers and they experience challenges within communities. Fathers are faced with the burden of constant failure which becomes intolerable to bear due to the lack of income.

A study by du Toit et al. (2018) highlighted that society's ignorance and lack of understanding towards unemployed fathers also contributed to inadequacy and worthlessness. Society has expectations towards unemployed fathers to either volunteer or "actively" seek employment. These expectations contribute to the ongoing stressors. However, many fathers in this study choose to remain unemployed than to accept "demeaning" jobs which will most likely keep them in poverty. Society interprets this as being too selective or lazy, which further exacerbates frustration, misjudgement and being misunderstood. Fathers also indicated that society often excludes them because they are forced to live in communities that are associated with poverty. These communities contribute to a competitive environment that may be toxic to the individual's wellbeing.

The ongoing competitiveness often leads to a loss of a collective community and cohesion. Unemployed fathers may face judgment for depending on any social grants. Furthermore, unemployed fathers face exclusion from social practices which focuses on reciprocity such as social events. The concept of "you scratch my back and I will scratch yours" may be problematic or unattainable for fathers who are unable to provide financially and this contributes to exclusion and isolation. Moreover, individuals who cannot contribute within a social setting are denied the right to speak and voice their opinions and are often not taken seriously. However, they may feel psychologically safe guarded when they interact with other fathers in the same subgroup or situation.

This seems to suggest that fathers are not only faced with the challenges of unemployment, but they are in a constant battle to either accept or decline jobs which seem to have minimal benefits. Furthermore, they are faced with constant scrutiny which makes surviving through unemployment even more difficult.

In another South African study by du Toit et al. (2018). The consequences of unemployment were highlighted as detrimental to an individual's psychological health which was associated to a decline in life satisfaction, high substance use and a risk in mood disorders

such as depression. Fathers expressed their frustrations of unemployment and described it as “a danger and death”, “a man-made grave and monster” and “a black heart full of sorrow and pain” just to name a few. There were feelings of anger and some associated unemployment with anxiety, crime, drug abuse and suicidal ideation. Participants in this study also felt shameful and stigmatized and many felt that they lacked direction. The main issue towards unemployment was particularly focused on the difficulties experienced through social labelling and exclusion and the constant need to survive whilst avoiding appearing “lazy”. Their anger was also fuelled towards the government for failing to create jobs and failing in their promises to readdress the historical effects of oppression. Furthermore, the need for affirmative action which is a policy that considers an individual’s colour, race, sex, and religion left some with little hope.

There seems to be a continuous theme which clearly depicts the effects of social constructionism. Fathers have been expected to fulfil a socially constructed role and failing which, contributes to the ongoing scrutiny and exclusion from society. There is a need for all individuals to fit in and form part of a community. The inability to fit in contributes to these feelings of worthlessness. Moreover, the law and government systems have also further oppressed many fathers.

In a South African study by Gibbs et al. (2015) young fathers described how they were dependent on their families for financial support. Dependency contributed to other men disrespecting them or judging them. The dependency further contributed to low confidence and a low sense of masculinity. Unemployment has made some to feel useless and undermined within the community. This has not only affected the fatherhood role, but it has also had a negative impact on sexual relationships due to the inability to take on responsibilities in the relationship.

4.3.3.5 The single mother

A study completed by Mavundla (2019) highlighted that unemployment has contributed to the high rate of father absence. Many fathers make the decision to deny paternity due to their inability to provide. Denial of paternity has left many mothers single, and are forced to provide financial, physical, and emotional support on their own.

However, a previous study by Zulu (2014) indicated that although there are negative outcomes resulting from unemployment and father absence, which often leads to the single mother phenomenon, there are certain positive outcomes from this. Some single mothers have been able to provide adaptive coping mechanisms for the child, provide positive role modelling,

financial independence, and personal strength. Single mother independence has inspired many children to seek responsibility whether financially or through career choices. However, the impact of father absence may affect individuals differently.

4.3.3.6 Substance abuse (coping mechanism)

Richter and Morrel (2006) highlighted that father desertion is not always physical but they can also be emotionally distant. Many men “die” in their roles as husbands and parents by consuming alcohol in the attempt to better cope with stressors.

Father participants in Chideya and Williams (2013) alluded to the difficulties faced by young adolescent fathers, such as the pressure to provide which often leads to delinquent behaviour. Many disclosed that their inability to obtain employment often forced them into illegal behaviour and substance use.

4.4 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to present the findings of this review. The findings were allocated according to relevant themes. There were 3 identified main themes and 11 sub-themes which sought to answer the research question. A discussion on these findings follows in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Discussion of Findings

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter extracted data from eligible studies which were presented and reviewed according to the identified themes that aimed to explore fatherhood identity and the effects of unemployment. This chapter will further discuss the findings in response to the systematic review questions stated in Chapter 1.4.1, which are: 1). How do fathers perceive their identity as fathers? 2). Do fathers believe they have carried out social constructions of a good father? 3). How has unemployment affected fatherhood in an African context? Furthermore, a reflection of the theoretical framework will be discussed in the findings.

The findings suggest that social constructs on fatherhood identity will remain the same unless they are critiqued and co-constructed. Although social constructs are often questionable, the desire for many fathers to be accepted into society has contributed to some wanting to fulfil these roles irrespective of their financial status. The inability for fathers to fulfil these societal expectations, has contributed to more social and psychological factors which have posed as a risk towards the relationship between father and child/ren. Moreover, an increase in social and psychological factors may pose as an ongoing risk to the image of fathers and an increase in fatherless children.

5.2 Discussion of findings

5.2.1 How do fathers perceive their identity as fathers?

Family roles and fatherhood identity has changed over the past few decades. Fatherhood identity within the African context has changed according to cultural and political factors (Lesejane, 2006). Although fatherhood identity has evolved in many parts of the world such as the United States of America, where fathers are expected to fulfil the ‘new father’ role which involves actively caring for the child while still maintaining their provider and occupational role (Mclaughlin & Muldoon, 2014). The identified African countries in this review are still highly influenced by the historical, cultural, and political factors which focus on the patriarch system.

Although it was evident in the data that fatherhood values are socially constructed, it was also evident that these values may differ according to an individual’s cultural background. Fatherhood identity is also influenced by the father’s ability to adjust their belief system and their individualistic perceptions influence the identity in which they choose to follow (William, 2015). Fathers believe that the basis of their identity entails fulfilling duties such as, instilling

authority and being able to provide for the family. However, the fatherhood role was described as one which is not necessarily biological but that it could be fulfilled by any male within a community.

Fathers within the reviewed studies identified with the provider role. The provider role has contributed to a decrease in care-giving fathers and many fathers have excluded themselves from the responsibilities which have been identified as women roles. However, as indicated by Demos (1986), the provider role surfaced as a result of the post-industrial revolution, where fathers were forced to seek work in the cities in order to provide for their families. The move and separation between mothers and fathers contributed to the now identified gender roles. It is an assertion of the current study that although some fathers have attempted to embrace their involvement in caregiving, the societal constructs and pressure has contributed to many avoiding this role. Fathers have continued to identify with the conception that being a good father means being able to provide, and fulfilling this role means being socially accepted, particularly by the mother of the child and her family. Fatherhood has also been identified as one of the main descriptors of masculinity, so the assumption created by society is that being a father means that one is a man.

In the words of Connell (2002), social constructs are often complied to, although many do not fully agree with them and often question why they exist. However, non-compliance towards these social constructs leads to social exclusion, and those who diverge from these social constructs are considered less masculine as asserted by Messerschmidt (2019). Social constructs have however been described as behaviour regulators within research studies. As indicated by Ampofo and Boateng (2007) masculinity and fatherhood constructs determine how men should behave. Mkhize (2006) indicated that fatherhood and parenting within the Black African context is informed by a communal way of thinking and living, this means that families within this community have a responsibility towards a society in its entirety. This view was supported in the current review by Morrell (2012), which indicated that Black communities focus on chiefship and communal land tenure, this suggests that important decisions are made as a collective and living conditions are also communal. Furthermore, the communal aspect was evident in the decision that families make to collectively reject a father who has failed to pay towards cultural rituals such as *inhlawulo* (damages). This indicates that the family collectively supports e.g. the impregnated girl/woman but also feels collectively disrespected by the individual who has impregnated one of their own, out of wedlock. Individuals are obligated to be responsive to others in society including societal constructs. Therefore, this

suggests that father identity cannot be understood in an individualistic context as it also comprises of social fathers and the extended family within most African households.

The identified studies indicated that most fathers have a desire to transcend beyond the provider role and provide emotional care and love which has been historically perceived as a mother's role, this view was supported by Bongwana (2013), where it was clear that fathers sought to provide emotional and physical care. However, individuals within society seem to struggle with father roles that are apart from the provider role. As indicated by Makusha et al. (2013), society has viewed this provider role as a father definer and identity role. Therefore, the inability to fulfil this role challenges their sense of manhood and evokes disrespect from members of society. Although fathers identified in the studies seem to have a strong sense of their identity and have a need to be physically present for their child/ren, there is a strong sense of conflict and confusion which has been caused through societal expectations. It is evident that fathers have been socialized to provide, as a result, their desire to build a relationship with their child/ren is challenged through the question of whether they are able to provide or not. Fathers who have a low income or no income at all, have faced a significant challenge of attempting to build an identifiable identity.

It is imperative that new studies on father identity are explored, as it is important to take into consideration that the context in which fathers find themselves in continues to evolve. Currently, many countries have a high unemployment rate therefore, this alone poses a challenge towards the expectation that fathers should provide financially.

5.2.2 Do fathers believe they have carried out the role of the “good father” as it has been socially constructed?

In existing literature, a good or ideal father is believed to consist of three important components as indicated by Palkkovitz (2002). These components include relational which consists of love and care, provider role, and the third one being personality which consists of patience and investment. Studies in this review, suggested that many fathers have attempted to work towards a good father image. The researcher noted that there are two sides presented in the literature. On one hand there are those who emphasis the role of financial provision, on the other hand, some emphasis the role of psychological and emotional provision. A few studies indicated that, although the provider role is important and ideal, many fathers highlighted that a good father also practised the responsibility to instil discipline within the household. A few fathers identified in a study by Dabula (2018) indicated that although their own fathers provided financially, this was still not sufficient. Therefore, they have taken the initiative to be

present fathers who assist e.g. with homework when they have access to their child/ren. This initiative is in support of the above question 5.2.1, which highlighted that some fathers have attempted to highlight other more aspects of their identity apart from the provider role. Some believe that a balanced environment which includes sufficient emotional support from the father is important, although it is often excluded from the societal expectations. These findings challenge literature as indicated in a study by Howson (2006), which has described fathers as distant and providers of poor emotional support.

Fathers indicated that they have had to compromise their own individual needs to ensure that they have played the ideal fatherhood role. Some stated that they have had to change their spending patterns to ensure that their child/ren are taken care of. Some fathers have made constant contact with the child however, the difficulty in playing the father role effectively has been influenced by external factors such as the inability to pay *inhlawulo* (damages). As highlighted by Chili (2013), the inability to pay damages within the black community has also hindered the fathers from living with the child/ren, although this is an ongoing desire for many. This implies that traditional rituals have been socially constructed as of great importance for fathers to build a relationship with their child/ren, failing which, hinders the relationship from developing.

Fathers within the identified studies seem to have measured their idea of a good father according to societal expectations. Although many have displayed emotional and psychological responsibility, they still believe that this is not enough for them to prove their manhood. This indicates that fathers have used social constructs, which have been historically negotiated on what constitutes to a good father, as a reference point to measure their manhood. The researcher in this review found that the role of a good father seems incomplete to them without the ability to provide financially. Therefore, most fathers have felt a sense of worthlessness in their fatherhood role due to these factors that have contributed to them questioning their worth because of financial instability (Froning, 2016). The sense of worthlessness has been exacerbated by the lack of support that fathers endure and during instances where women have had to take on the financial responsibility role which has been socially identified as a man role. Furthermore, the findings in this review as indicated by (Dabula, 2018), highlighted that some fathers indicated that their inability to fulfil the good father role has been influenced by their own background. Fathers who highlighted having a poor relationship with their own fathers stated that this has had a negative impact in their own interaction with their child/ren. However, it also suggests that their fathers may have been raised under similar conditions which may have influenced the way they brought up their own

children. However, some fathers utilized their background as a guide to correct the relationship with their own child/ren. The need to utilize their own background to correct their own relationship with their child/ren, suggested that existing social constructs can be co-constructed in reference to historical context. This clearly supports Gergen (1985) on social constructionism, which emphasized that human existence and experiences are influenced by social and interpersonal factors.

The identified themes which answered this question highlighted that fathers often feel inadequate and that they have failed to fulfil the expected societal role of a good father. These feelings of inadequacy have been highly influenced by the overly identified provider role which many have failed to fulfil. The inability to fulfil this role has contributed to many fathers isolating themselves which has increased the absent father phenomenon.

5.2.3 How has unemployment affected fatherhood in an African context?

As stated above, many fathers have felt inadequate due to their inability to provide financially. This inability has been highly influenced by the unemployment rate which has also contributed to other factors that will be discussed in depth. The “provider” has been viewed as a good and ideal father within the black community and being employed has become a popular conceptualization in most black and white communities (Bhana et al., 2017).

Unemployment has contributed to many fathers faced with the challenge of poverty (Makhanya, 2016). Poverty and unemployment have always co-existed and the reality has been that this has negatively affected many households. Poverty, due to the lack of employment has contributed to many fathers being unable to meet cultural and legal expectations. The law in countries such as South Africa, has not considered the economic challenges that fathers are faced with, but has rather placed laws which oblige fathers to financially support their children. Moreover, unemployment has also impacted on Black African fathers being unable to perform cultural rituals such as *ilobolo* (bride price) or *inhlawulo* (damages). Failure to pay these cultural damages has resulted in children being kept from their fathers which has inhibited them from building a relationship as indicated in the above findings. Fathers are often disrespected, and respect is often attained when there is income to support the child. Previous studies support this view, and they have shown that fathers are often willing to make life changes when they become fathers (Weisskirch, 2020); however, the inability to provide contributes to many isolating themselves. This seems to suggest that there is a constant struggle between making individualistic choices and abiding by social constructs.

Many fathers have been denied access to their children due to these fatherhood constructs and societal expectations. Studies showed that fathers have continued to have trouble in assuming their fatherhood role and unemployment has left many feeling disempowered. Although there has been an improvement in people's lives in South Africa following democracy, unemployment has still been a contributing factor for many societal issues, especially in the familial setting. The high unemployment rate has forced many fathers to desert their children which has robbed many children from building a relationship with their fathers.

Although father absence was initially caused by fathers moving away from home, due to the migrant labour system, the main reasons have now been influenced by unemployment. Culturally, fathers cannot claim any child as their own, unless damages have been paid. Cultural rituals which are left un-practised may contribute to the child's unfavourable upbringing. Cultural practices have in some way excluded fathers who cannot afford to partake in these rituals, and although they are conducted in order to protect the child and their mother, they have worsened the living conditions for men who are unable to fulfil these expectations (Dabula, 2018). Although many fathers have a desire to fulfil the fatherhood role, many have feared to take on the responsibility and have resorted to flight, denial, or abandonment to avoid humiliation or conflict from the maternal family.

Studies also showed that there has been an increase in fathers who have experienced symptoms of depression due to the crippling effects of poverty that has resulted to many children going through the day without their daily meals. Although the socially constructed provider role and fatherhood constructs have been understood as behavioural regulators as indicated by Ampofo and Boateng (2007) it has affected many father's self-esteem, who have continuously measured their role to their ability to provide. The long effects of unemployment have caused conflict within households and many fathers have not felt a true sense of fatherhood or manhood. Some indicated that they have had to complete daily house chores, supposedly meant for women, which has further contributed to questions towards their identity.

Young fathers have had to sacrifice their studies to accomplish societal expectations which has contributed to many denying paternity and living with the guilt of denying paternity. The denial of paternity does not only affect the child involved but it also contributes to the rise of single mothers which may also increase the number of women living with emotional difficulties. It seems that unemployed fathers have also felt excluded by society, as they have endured being referred to as lazy and many being forced to interact within subgroups with individuals in similar situations. The consequences of unemployment have proved to be

detrimental for the psychological well-being of many fathers. The encountered emotional difficulties further contribute to the increase of substance abuse within fathers. Aliyu (2014) highlighted that substance use is a temporary relief and an indirect coping strategy that individuals can find themselves engaged in, to avoid any emotional stressors.

There seems to be a continuous theme which clearly depicts the effects of social constructionism. Fathers have been expected to fulfil a socially constructed role and failing which, contributes to the ongoing scrutiny and exclusion from society. There is a need for all individuals to fit in and form part of a community. The inability to fit in contributes to these feelings of worthlessness. Moreover, the law and government systems have also further oppressed many fathers.

5.3 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to discuss the findings of this systematic review according to the questions that were previously stated. Fatherhood identity has slowly become a research interest, however, not many studies have been conducted to fully understand fatherhood roles and the father's interpretation of these roles. The findings show that fathers have identified with the provider role even though it has contributed to many fathers being denied access to their children, due to the inability to fulfil this role. Although fathers have attempted to create new identities, social constructs have continued to control the decisions made by many fathers. The constant struggle between individualistic expectations and societal expectations has contributed to many fathers experiencing emotional challenges such as depression and an ongoing increase of father absence.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the findings which were extracted from the identified studies according to the review questions. This chapter will give a conclusion on the systematic review whilst reflecting on the research process, which will lead to the findings that responded to the question of fatherhood identity and the effects of unemployment. Furthermore, this chapter will provide an overview of the limitations and present recommendations for future research. This thesis of a limited scope identified the importance of such a review in this topic, to seek the difficulties that fathers have endured through their identity and what measures could be taken to assist them through the process.

Chapter 1 provided an introduction of the studies which have been done in the past regarding fatherhood identity and the objectives for this review. The literature review in Chapter 2 provided a historical background on previously conducted studies which was in relation to Chapter 4 results and the discussion of the findings were provided in Chapter 5. The process for this limited review was detailed in Chapter 3 and this provided the steps-by-step plan which included the search, data collection, data findings and the data extraction process.

This study sought to get an understanding of the impact in which the social construction of fatherhood has had on the experience of fatherhood within society whether historically, culturally, or politically by reviewing fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment. From a social constructivism perspective, it was evident that fathers have complied with societal “rules” whether they understand the basis of them or not. It seems that being a part of a community and being accepted by society supersedes any individualistic perspectives. The available data indicated that fathers have been controlled by these societal expectations which have hindered their role as fathers. Although fathers from the rural parts of Ghana have challenged the image of fathers, South African fathers seem to have had trouble derailing from societal constructs that have always been known to them.

Moreover, it was evident that one social construct can have an impact towards many other negative social factors such as the increase of father absence, emotional challenges, and substance abuse.

Lastly, it is evident that the law plays a crucial role in maintaining social constructs. Fathers have not received much support from the government system particularly in South Africa. Due to the lack of support, fathers have resorted to denying paternity. It is therefore important to educate policy makers on the impact of exclusion, in this case, father exclusion.

Furthermore, it is important to educate on the effects of cultural practises which may also need to be revised to influence the acceptance of new father roles.

The conclusions drawn in relation to the research question were that identity is forever changing and that it is constructed or co-constructed however, it cannot be defined by a single factor or role. The historical, political, familial, and even educational platforms influence and contribute to gender socialization which has played a role in how fathers are viewed.

6.2 Contributions made by this study

A finding from this review warrants a discussion because it points us to an existing psychosocial problem. Previous literature studies which have focused on father absence highlighted that the main causes of father absence may be due to death, separation from partner, moving away for work or even denial of paternity. However, the reviewed studies highlighted that one of the main causes within the Black South African culture was due to the inability to perform cultural practises as discussed in chapter 5. The inability to perform these practises has often contributed to fathers denying paternity, being excluded by the maternal family or they take the decision to isolate themselves. The implications of absent fathers has been associated with adverse psychological effects on the child, such as a low self-esteem, poor academic performance, and the lack of security in relationships. Some children may even engage in crime and destructive behaviour. Many children may feel uncertain and confused and they may have a deep need for their father's presence (Freeks, 2017).

6.3 Limitations of study

In conducting this limited systematic review, a few limitations arose. One of the limitations of this review was the process of data collection. The Mendeley application, which was used, failed to indicate the databases that each study was individually retrieved from. Therefore, it was difficult to tabulate each study according to the database search platform. Furthermore, errors may have occurred due to the large number of retrieved studies in the initial search which may have resulted in many studies being overlooked. Decisions were made according to whether the study met the inclusion criteria, therefore the author may have been biased by solely focusing on qualitative studies.

Secondly, majority of the retrieved studies were from South Africa which is not a true representation or reflection of Africa in its entirety. Moreover, the studies focused solely on Black South African fathers which may indicate that not much research is available on other South African race groups nor is there sufficient research on other parts of Africa. This made

it challenging to establish trustworthiness in this study however, the researcher attempted to be clear and transparent throughout the review to achieve credibility.

Although the inclusion criteria is important, the researcher may have excluded relevant studies which were not in English. Furthermore, this review was based on secondary data and it would have been beneficial if there were human participants from different African countries.

6.4 Recommendations

This limited review highlighted that fathers have found themselves in forever changing patterns regarding their identity and gender roles. These studies also show that fathers have been responsive to these changes however, many have encountered difficulty with the societal expectations. Although many fathers have desired to play the fatherly role, beyond the provider role, government laws in countries such as South Africa have made it difficult for them to look beyond the provider role and past the constructed gender roles. It can be assumed that many fathers identify with this role however, many have become critical of it and have questioned its importance in comparison to emotional and physical support. Furthermore, many studies have been critical of fathers and have labelled them as absent or irresponsible. However, the identified studies in this review indicated that these factors have been highly influenced by the father's inability to provide financially which is mostly due to unemployment.

Although there are organisations such as "Fathers in Africa" which aim to expand and bring forth responsible fathering through mentoring and policy development, further assistance is still required to promote new policies such as father assistance grants and paternity leave for employed fathers. It is imperative for fathers to reconnect with their children irrespective of their ability to support financially. Moreover, it is evident in the studies that fathers have not been protected by government laws in countries such as South Africa neither has the high unemployment rate been considered when passing childcare laws.

It is also evident that traditional practices and laws have had a huge impact regarding father absence and the high rate of emotional challenges encountered by fathers. It is imperative that African traditional councils become involved in reviewing and revising traditional laws that have had a negative impact for many fathers who have been unable to fulfil these traditional practices. The implementation of new policies needs to occur on a large scale to ensure change and support. As indicated in the review, some fathers in countries such as Mozambique, have challenged gender roles which has allowed for the change in social constructs within that community. This suggests that fathers who have encountered difficulty regarding traditional laws, could also be supported to challenge these laws to ensure that a relationship with the

child/ren is not affected. Furthermore, the stated emotional challenges highlight the need for emotional support platforms. Particularly on anger issues caused by the identified gender role shifts, which contribute to gender-based violence (GBV). Fathers would benefit from support groups or support helplines. Susman (2020) indicated that support groups aim to ensure that individuals realize that they are not alone and get to express their feelings while receiving helpful information to identify and improve their social skills. This allows individuals to gain hope and reduce the stress that leads to depression or substance abuse.

The review also indicated that young fathers have struggled to transition into the fatherhood role, due to poor support systems. Many have been forced to leave their studies and seek employment. Therefore, support avenues may benefit fathers to seek advice and support within the educational system. The available organisations in countries such as South Africa have been from the private sectors, this means that more feasible organisations need to be offered by the government system.

This study has shed some light on the constructs of fatherhood identity and how fathers have struggled to fit into this role or make sense of it. The identified themes are clearly linked and have a huge influence and impact on each other. This suggests that, unless the identity of fathers and gender roles continue to be identified under one construct, fathers will continue to endure challenges which will have a negative impact on the relationship they build with their child/ren. Communities will continue to raise fatherless children in the process of fulfilling traditional practises. Finally, this review failed to represent a wholistic picture of African fathers due to the available data on this topic. The focus of this review shifted to South African Black fathers, which was not the aim or intention. As a result, more inclusive research is needed to guarantee that all African fathers are included, and that the challenges encountered by fathers are identified, and interventions are implemented. Moreover, further research is warranted on the same topic which could recruit human participants for further in-depth understanding as this was a limited review that can be expanded.

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Appendix A: The Prisma Checklist

Section/topic	#	Checklist item	Reported on page #
TITLE			
Title	1	Identify the report as a systematic review, meta-analysis, or both.	
ABSTRACT			
Structured summary	2	Provide a structured summary including, as applicable: background; objectives; data sources; study eligibility criteria, participants, and interventions; study appraisal and synthesis methods; results; limitations; conclusions and implications of key findings; systematic review registration number.	
INTRODUCTION			
Rationale	3	Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known.	
Objectives	4	Provide an explicit statement of questions being addressed with reference to participants, interventions, comparisons, outcomes, and study design (PICOS).	
METHODS			
Protocol and registration	5	Indicate if a review protocol exists, if and where it can be accessed (e.g., Web address), and, if available, provide registration information including registration number.	
Eligibility criteria	6	Specify study characteristics (e.g., PICOS, length of follow-up) and report characteristics (e.g., years considered, language, publication status) used as criteria for eligibility, giving rationale.	

Information sources	7	Describe all information sources (e.g., databases with dates of coverage, contact with study authors to identify additional studies) in the search and date last searched.	
Search	8	Present full electronic search strategy for at least one database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated.	
Study selection	9	State the process for selecting studies (i.e., screening, eligibility, included in systematic review, and, if applicable, included in the meta-analysis).	
Data collection process	10	Describe method of data extraction from reports (e.g., piloted forms, independently, in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators.	
Data items	11	List and define all variables for which data were sought (e.g., PICOS, funding sources) and any assumptions and simplifications made.	
Risk of bias in individual studies	12	Describe methods used for assessing risk of bias of individual studies (including specification of whether this was done at the study or outcome level), and how this information is to be used in any data synthesis.	
Summary measures	13	State the principal summary measures (e.g., risk ratio, difference in means).	
Synthesis of results	14	Describe the methods of handling data and combining results of studies, if done, including measures of consistency (e.g., I^2) for each meta-analysis.	
Risk of bias across studies	15	Specify any assessment of risk of bias that may affect the cumulative evidence (e.g., publication bias, selective reporting within studies).	
Additional analyses	16	Describe methods of additional analyses (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression), if done, indicating which were pre-specified.	
RESULTS			
Study selection	17	Give numbers of studies screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally with a flow diagram.	

Study characteristics	18	For each study, present characteristics for which data were extracted (e.g., study size, PICOS, follow-up period) and provide the citations.	
Risk of bias within studies	19	Present data on risk of bias of each study and, if available, any outcome level assessment (see item 12).	
Results of individual studies	20	For all outcomes considered (benefits or harms), present, for each study: (a) simple summary data for each intervention group (b) effect estimates and confidence intervals, ideally with a forest plot.	
Synthesis of results	21	Present results of each meta-analysis done, including confidence intervals and measures of consistency.	
Risk of bias across studies	22	Present results of any assessment of risk of bias across studies (see Item 15).	
Additional analysis	23	Give results of additional analyses, if done (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression [see Item 16]).	
DISCUSSION			
Summary of evidence	24	Summarize the main findings including the strength of evidence for each main outcome; consider their relevance to key groups (e.g., healthcare providers, users, and policy makers).	
Limitations	25	Discuss limitations at study and outcome level (e.g., risk of bias), and at review-level (e.g., incomplete retrieval of identified research, reporting bias).	
Conclusions	26	Provide a general interpretation of the results in the context of other evidence, and implications for future research.	
FUNDING			
Funding	27	Describe sources of funding for the systematic review and other support (e.g., supply of data); role of funders for the systematic review.	

Appendix B: Quality assessment table

Code associated with study	Author	Original study	Focus on Fatherhood identity	Location	Language	Quality	Relevance	Method	Meets search filter 2000-2020
1.	Adarkwa,S. (2017)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
2.	Barker, G & Ricardo,C (2005)	✓	✓	Sub-SaharanAfrica	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
3.	Bhana & Nkani (2014)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
4.	Bongwana, T (2013)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
5.	Chideya, Y., & Williams, F. (2013). Adolescent fathers: Exploring their perceptions of their role as parent.	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
6.	Chikovore et al. (2010). Fatherhood and fathering	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
7.	Chili, S (2013)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
8.	Clowes, L., Ratele, K., & Shefer, T. (2013). Who needs a father?	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓

	South African men reflect on being fathered.								
9.	Dabula,A (2018)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
10.	du Toit, M. et al. (2018). Contextual factors and the experience of unemployment: A review of qualitative studies.	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
11.	du Toit, M et al. (2018). Unemployment experiences in context: A phenomenological study in two townships in South Africa	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
12.	Enderstein et al., 2014	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
13.	Freeks, F (2017)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
14.	Froning, J. F. (2016). <i>From Provider to Carer : Identifying Opportunities and Challenges of the New</i>	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓

*South African
Fatherhood.*

15.	Gibbs et al. (2015)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
16.	Hendricks et al. (2010)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
17.	Khanyile, W (2019)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
18.	Leopeng & Langa (2017)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
19.	Luthuli,W (2006)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
20.	Madhavan, S., Richter, L., Norris, S., & Hosegood, V. (2014). Fathers' Financial Support of Children in a Low-Income Community in South Africa.	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
21.	Madhavan, S., Richter, L., & Norris, S. (2016). Father Contact Following Union Dissolution for Low-Income Children in Urban South Africa.	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
22.	Madiba & Nsiki (2017)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
23.	Makhanya, T (2016)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
24.	Makusha, T (2013)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓

25.	Makusha et al., 2013	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
26.	Matlakala et al. (2018). Challenges of Teenage Fathers Towards Fatherhood in Vaalbank, Mpumalanga Province. <i>Gender & Behaviour.</i>	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
27.	Mavundla, P.S (2019)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
28.	Mavungu, E (2013)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
29.	Meyer, J (2018)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
30.	Mkhize, N (2006)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
31.	Morrell et al. (2012). Hegemonic Masculinity/Masculinities in South Africa: Culture, Power, and Gender Politics.	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
32.		✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓

Patel, L., & Mavungu, E.
 M. (2016). 'Children,
 families and the
 conundrum about
 men': Exploring
 factors contributing to
 father absence in
 South Africa and its
 implications for social
 and care policies.

33.	Rabe, M. E. (2007). Black mineworkers' conceptualisations of fatherhood: A sociological exploration in South African goldmining industry.	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
34.	Ratele (2006)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
35.	Ratele et al. (2012). Talking South African fathers: A critical examination of men's constructions and experiences of	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓

fatherhood and
fatherlessness.

36.	Ritchter,L & Morrell ,R (2006)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
37.	Roy, K (2008)	✓	✓		English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
38.	Oluseyi, G (2003)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
39.	Shefer, T (2006)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
40.	Shefer, T et.,al (2007). From Boys to Men: Social constructions of Masculinity in Contemporary society. In <i>Cape Town: UCT Press.</i>	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
41.	Shefer et al., (2008). Gender, power and resistance to change among two communities in the	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓

	Western Cape, South Africa.								
42.	Shefer, T., Stevens, G., & Clowes, L. (2010). Men in Africa: Masculinities, materiality and meaning.	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
43.	Sikweyiya, et al. (2017). Conceptualisations of fatherhood and socio-contextual dynamics influencing father involvement in informal settlements in Durban, South Africa.	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
44.	Singh, R (2004)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
45.	Spjeldnaes et al., 2011	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓

46.	Taylor et al., (2013). “He lacks his fatherhood”: Safer conception technologies and the biological imperative for fatherhood among recently diagnosed Xhosa-speaking men living with HIV in South Africa.	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
47.	Townsend (2013). The complications of fathering in Southern Africa: Separation, uncertainty, and multiple responsibilities.	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
48.	Tyawa, G (2017)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
49.	van den Berg et al., (2013). “One Man Can”: Shifts in fatherhood beliefs and parenting practices following a gender-transformative programme in Eastern Cape	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓

50.	Van der Walt,M (2007)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
51.	Walker, L (2005)	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
52.	William, O (2015)	✓	✓	Ghana	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
53.	Zulu, N. T. (2014).	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
54.	YouTube Video 1. Galle, A [The pregnancy is ours] (2020, August 7). Retrieved from https://youtu.be/5Cxgb6kr-PE	✓	✓	Mozambique	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓
55.	YouTube video 2 Enca (2020, June 21) The many faces of fatherhood in South Africa. Retrieved from https://youtu.be/ahbn5llk4Z I	✓	✓	South Africa	English	✓	✓	Qualitative	✓

Appendix C: Summary of included studies

Study no.	Author/date	Country	Purpose/Aim relevant to the study	Relevance
1.	Adarkwa,S (2017)	South Africa	Father identity, masculinities, and parenting	High
2.	Barker, G and Ricardo,C (2005)	Sub-Saharan Africa	Discourses of fathering	Medium
3.	Bhana and Nkani (2014)	South Africa	Teenagers becoming fathers. Focusing on culture, materiality, and masculinity	
4.	Bongwana, T (2013)	South Africa	Masculinities and fatherhood	Medium
5.	Chideya and Williams (2013). Adolescent fathers: Exploring their perceptions of their role as parent.	South Africa	Adolescent fathers and their perceptions on fatherhood	High
6.	Chikovore et al., (2016). Fatherhood and fathering	South Africa	Fatherhood role, income	low
7.	Chili, S (2013)	South Africa	Father identity	Medium
8.	Clowes et al., (2013). Who needs a father? South African men reflect on being fathered.	South Africa	South African fathers	Medium
9.	Dabula,A (2018)	South Africa	Fatherhood identity	Medium

10.	du Toit, M. et al., (2018). Contextual factors and the experience of unemployment: A review of qualitative studies.	South Africa	Unemployment	Medium
11.	du Toit, M et al., (2018). Unemployment experiences in context: A phenomenological study in two townships in South Africa	South Africa	Unemployment	Medium
12.	Enderstein et al., 2014	South Africa	Narratives of young fathers- redefining masculinity	Medium
13.	Freeks, F (2017)	South Africa	Fatherhood absence and fatherlessness	low
14.	Froning, J. F. (2016). <i>From Provider to Carer : Identifying Opportunities and Challenges of the New South African Fatherhood.</i>	South Africa	Provider and carer role	Medium
15.	Gibbs et al., (2015)	South Africa	Masculinities and fathers securing respect and their manhood	low
16.	Hendricks et al., (2010)	South Africa	Teenage fathers and masculinity within the context of poverty	Medium
17.	Khanyile, W (2019)	South Africa	Fatherhood and unemployment	High
18.	Leopeng and Langa (2017)	South Africa	Representations of fatherhood	Medium
19.	Luthuli,W (2006)	South Africa	Deadbeat dad or Responsible parents. Fatherhood identity	Low

20.	Madhavan, S., Richter, L., Norris, S., & Hosegood, V. (2014). Fathers' Financial Support of Children in a Low-Income Community in South Africa.	South Africa	Fathers financial support	Low
21.	Madhavan, S., Richter, L., & Norris, S. (2016). Father Contact Following Union Dissolution for Low-Income Children in Urban South Africa.	South Africa	Fatherhood contact, absence	low
22.	Madiba & Nsiki (2017)	South Africa	Teen fathers' perceptions and experiences of fatherhood	Medium
23.	Makhanya, T (2016)	South Africa	Fatherhood experiences and perceptions.	High
24.	Makusha, T (2013)	South Africa	Fatherhood involvement and child support	Medium
25.	Makusha et al., 2013	South Africa	Men's experiences of fatherhood	Medium
26.	Matlakala et al., (2018). Challenges of Teenage Fathers Towards Fatherhood in Vaalbank, Mpumalanga Province. <i>Gender & Behaviour</i> .	South Africa	Teenage fathers and fatherhood	Medium
27.	Mavundla, P.S (2019)	South Africa	Parenting	low
28.	Mavungu, E (2013)	South Africa	Provider expectations on fathers	High

29.	Meyer, J (2018)	South Africa		
30.	Mkhize, N (2006)	South Africa	Social, economic dimensions of fatherhood	High
31.	Morrell et.,al (2012). Hegemonic Masculinity/Masculinities in South Africa: Culture, Power, and Gender Politics.	South Africa	Masculinity	Low
32.				High
	Patel, L., & Mavungu, E. M. (2016). 'Children, families and the conundrum about men': Exploring factors contributing to father absence in South Africa and its implications for social and care policies.	South Africa	Fatherhood and factors of father absence	
33.	Rabe, M. E. (2007). Black mineworkers' conceptualisations of fatherhood: A sociological exploration in South African goldmining industry.	South Africa	Conceptualizations of fatherhood	low
34.	Ratele, K (2006)	South Africa	Masculinity	Medium

35.	Ratele et.,(2012). Talking South African fathers: A critical examination of men’s constructions and experiences of fatherhood and fatherlessness.	South Africa	South African fathers	Medium
36.	Ritchter,L & Morrell ,R (2006)	South Africa	Father roles	High
37.	Roy, K (2008)	South Africa	Fatherhood perspectives comparing the USA and South Africa	Low
38.	Oluseyi, G (2003)	South Africa	Gender roles and socio-cultural constructs	low
39.	Shefer, T (2006)	South Africa	Men and Fatherhood	Medium
40.	Shefer, T et.,al (2007). From Boys to Men: Social constructions of Masculinity in Contemporary society. In <i>Cape Town: UCT Press.</i>	South Africa	Masculinity, fatherhood identity	Medium
41.	Shefer et al., (2008). Gender, power and resistance to change among two	South Africa	Fatherhood identity	low

communities in the Western Cape,
South Africa.

- | | | | | |
|-----|---|--------------|--|--------|
| 42. | Shefer et al., (2010). Men in Africa: Masculinities, materiality and meaning. | South Africa | Men in Africa- Identity | Medium |
| 43. | Sikweyiya et al., (2017).
Conceptualisations of fatherhood and socio-contextual dynamics influencing father involvement in informal settlements in Durban, South Africa. | South Africa | Conceptualization of fatherhood- Identity | Medium |
| 44. | Singh,R (2004) | South Africa | Fatherhood | Medium |
| 45. | Spjeldnaes et al., 2011 | South Africa | Fatherhood experiences and expectations among teenage boys | Medium |

46.	Taylor et al. (2013). "He lacks his fatherhood": Safer conception technologies and the biological imperative for fatherhood among recently diagnosed Xhosa-speaking men living with HIV in South Africa	South Africa	Fatherhood	Low
47.	Townsend (2013). The complications of fathering in Southern Africa: Separation, uncertainty, and multiple responsibilities.	South Africa	Fatherhood and fathering	High
48.	Tyawa, G (2017)	South Africa	Fatherhood and unemployment	High
49.	van den Berg et al., (2013). "One Man Can": Shifts in fatherhood beliefs and parenting practices following a	South Africa	Fatherhood beliefs and shifts	High

gender-transformative programme in
Eastern Cape

50.	Van der Walt, M (2007)	South Africa	Masculinity	low
51.	Walker, L (2005)	South Africa	Fatherhood	Medium
52.	William, O (2015)	Ghana	Changing roles of fatherhood	low
53.	Zulu, N. T. (2014).	South Africa	Fatherhood and fatherlessness	low
54.	YouTube Video 1. Galle, A [The pregnancy is ours] (2020, August 7). Retrieved from https://youtu.be/5Cxgb6kr-PE	Mozambique	Fatherhood and pregnancy responsibility	Medium
55.	YouTube video 2 Enca (2020, June 21) The many faces of fatherhood in South Africa. Retrieved from https://youtu.be/ahbn5llk4ZI	South Africa	Fatherhood in South Africa	Low

Appendix D: Clearance letter



Ms Sthombe Nokulunga Gumede (208502542)
School Of Applied Human Sc
Pietermaritzburg

Dear Ms Sthombe Nokulunga Gumede,

Protocol reference number: 00009867

Project title: A systematic study on Fatherhood identity and the impact of unemployment in South Africa and other African countries.

Exemption from Ethics Review

In response to your application received on 15 October 2020, your school has indicated that the protocol has been granted **EXEMPTION FROM ETHICS REVIEW**.

Any alteration/s to the exempted research protocol, e.g., Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through an amendment/modification prior to its implementation. The original exemption number must be cited.

For any changes that could result in potential risk, an ethics application including the proposed amendments must be submitted to the relevant UKZN Research Ethics Committee. The original exemption number must be cited.

In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE:

Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours sincerely,



Prof Johannes John-Langba
Academic Leader Research
School Of Applied Human Sc

UKZN Research Ethics Office
Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000
Website: <http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Research-Ethics/>

Founding Campuses:  Edgewood  Howard College  Medical School  Pietermaritzburg  Westville

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