

domains.^[21] Within the United States, anthropology is divided into four sub-fields: archaeology, [physical or biological anthropology](#), [anthropological linguistics](#), and [cultural anthropology](#). It is an area that is offered at most undergraduate institutions. The word *anthropos* (ἄνθρωπος) in Ancient Greek means "human being" or "person". [Eric Wolf](#) described sociocultural anthropology as "the most scientific of the humanities, and the most humanistic of the sciences".^[*citation needed*]

The goal of anthropology is to provide a [holistic](#) account of humans and human nature. This means that, though anthropologists generally specialize in only one sub-field, they always keep in mind the biological, linguistic, historic and cultural aspects of any problem. Since anthropology arose as a science in Western societies that were complex and industrial, a major trend within anthropology has been a methodological drive to study peoples in societies with more simple social organization, sometimes called "primitive" in anthropological literature, but without any connotation of "inferior".^[22] Today, anthropologists use terms such as "less complex" societies or refer to specific modes of [subsistence](#) or [production](#), such as "pastoralist" or "forager" or "horticulturalist" to refer to humans living in non-industrial, non-Western cultures, such people or folk (*ethnos*) remaining of great interest within anthropology.^[*citation needed*]

The quest for holism leads most anthropologists to study a people in detail, using biogenetic, archaeological, and linguistic data alongside direct observation of contemporary customs.^[23] In the 1990s and 2000s, calls for clarification of what constitutes a [culture](#), of how an observer knows where his or her own culture ends and another begins, and other crucial topics in writing anthropology were heard. It is possible to view all human cultures as part of one large, evolving global culture. These dynamic relationships, between what can be observed on the ground, as opposed to what can be observed by compiling many local observations remain fundamental in any kind of anthropology, whether cultural, biological, linguistic or archaeological.^[24]

Communication studies [edit]

Main articles: [Communication studies](#) and [History of communication studies](#)

Communication studies deals with processes of human [communication](#), commonly defined as the sharing of symbols to create [meaning](#). The discipline encompasses a range of topics, from face-to-face conversation to mass media outlets such as television broadcasting. Communication studies also examine how messages are interpreted through the political, cultural, economic, and social dimensions of their contexts. Communication is institutionalized under many different names at different universities, including *communication*, *communication studies*, *speech communication*, *rhetorical studies*, *communication science*, *media studies*, *communication arts*, [mass communication](#), [media ecology](#), and *communication and media science*.

Communication studies integrate aspects of both social sciences and the humanities. As a social science, the discipline often overlaps with sociology, psychology, anthropology, biology, political science, economics, and public policy, among others. From a humanities perspective, communication is concerned with rhetoric and persuasion (traditional graduate programs in communication studies trace their history to the rhetoricians of [Ancient Greece](#)). The field applies to outside disciplines as well, including engineering, architecture, mathematics, and information science.^[*citation needed*]

Economics [edit]

Main articles: [Economics](#) and [Outline of economics](#)

Economics is a social science that seeks to analyze and describe the production, distribution, and consumption of wealth.^[25] The word "economics" is from the [Ancient Greek](#) οἶκος (*oikos*, "family, household, estate") and νόμος (*nomos*, "custom, law"), and hence means "household management" or "management of the state". An [economist](#) is a person using economic concepts and data in the course of employment, or someone who has earned a [degree](#) in the subject. The classic brief definition of economics, set out by [Lionel Robbins](#) in 1932, is "the science which studies human behavior as a relationship between ends and scarce means which have alternative uses". Without scarcity and alternative uses, there is no [economic problem](#). Briefer yet is "the study of how people seek to satisfy needs and wants" and "the study of the financial aspects of human behavior".^[*citation needed*]

Economics has two broad branches: [microeconomics](#), where the unit of analysis is the individual agent, such as a household or firm, and [macroeconomics](#), where the unit of analysis is an economy as a whole. Another division of the subject distinguishes [positive](#) economics, which seeks to predict and explain economic phenomena, from [normative economics](#), which orders choices and actions by some criterion; such orderings necessarily involve [subjective](#) value judgments. Since the early part of the 20th century, economics has focused largely on measurable quantities, employing both theoretical models and empirical analysis. Quantitative models, however, can be traced as far back as the [physiocratic school](#). Economic reasoning has been increasingly applied in recent decades to other social situations such as [politics](#), law, [psychology](#), [history](#), [religion](#), marriage and family life, and other social interactions.^[*citation needed*]

The expanding domain of economics in the social sciences has been described as economic imperialism.^{[18][26]}

Education [edit]

Main articles: [Education](#) and [Outline of education](#)

Education [encompasses](#) teaching and learning specific skills, and also something less tangible but more profound: the imparting of knowledge, positive judgement and well-developed wisdom. Education has as one of its fundamental aspects the imparting of culture from generation to generation (see [socialization](#)). To educate means 'to draw out', from the [Latin](#) *educare*, or to facilitate the realization of an individual's potential and talents. It is an application of [pedagogy](#), a body of theoretical and applied research relating to teaching and learning and draws on many disciplines such as psychology, [philosophy](#), [computer science](#), linguistics, [neuroscience](#), sociology and anthropology.^[27]

Geography [edit]

Main articles: [Geography](#) and [Outline of geography](#)

Geography as a discipline can be split broadly into two main sub fields: [human geography](#) and [physical geography](#). The former focuses largely on the [built environment](#) and how space is created, viewed and managed by humans as well as the influence humans have on the space they occupy. This may involve [cultural geography](#), [transportation](#), [health](#), [military operations](#), and [cities](#). The latter examines the natural environment and how the climate, vegetation and life, soil, [oceans](#), water and [landforms](#) are produced and interact (is also commonly regarded as an [Earth Science](#)).^[28] Physical geography examines phenomena related to the [measurement of earth](#). As a result of the two subfields using different approaches a third field has emerged, which is [environmental geography](#). Environmental geography combines physical and human geography and looks at the interactions between the environment and humans.^[29] Other [branches of geography](#) include [social geography](#), [regional geography](#), and [geomatics](#).

Geographers attempt to understand the Earth in terms of physical and spatial relationships. The first geographers focused on the science of [mapmaking](#) and finding ways to precisely [project](#) the surface of the earth. In this sense, geography bridges some gaps between the natural sciences and social sciences. [Historical geography](#) is often taught in a college in a unified Department of Geography.^[*citation needed*]

Modern geography is an all-encompassing discipline, closely related to [Geographic Information Science](#), that seeks to understand humanity and its natural environment. The fields of [urban planning](#), [regional science](#), and [planetology](#) are closely related to geography. Practitioners of geography use many technologies and methods to collect data such as [Geographic Information Systems](#), [remote sensing](#), [aerial photography](#), [statistics](#), and [global positioning systems](#).

History [edit]

Main articles: [History](#) and [Outline of history](#)

History is the continuous, systematic narrative and research into past human events as interpreted through historiographical paradigms or theories. When used as the name of a [field of study](#), *history* refers to the study and interpretation of the record of [humans](#), societies, institutions, and any topic that has changed over time.^[*citation needed*]

Traditionally, the study of history has been considered a part of the [humanities](#). In modern [academia](#), whether or not history remains a humanities-based subject is contested. In the United States the [National Endowment for the Humanities](#) includes history in its definition of humanities (as it does for applied linguistics).^[30] However, the [National Research Council](#) classifies history as a social science.^[31] The [historical method](#) comprises the techniques and guidelines by which historians use [primary sources](#) and other evidence to research and then to [write history](#). The [Social Science History Association](#), formed in 1976, brings together scholars from numerous disciplines interested in [social history](#).^[32]

Law [edit]

Main articles: [Law](#) and [Outline of law](#)

The social science of law, jurisprudence, in common parlance, means a rule that (unlike a rule of [ethics](#)) is capable of enforcement through institutions.^[33] However, many laws are based on [norms](#) accepted by a community and thus have an ethical foundation. The study of law crosses the boundaries between the social sciences and humanities, depending on one's view of research into its objectives and effects. Law is not always enforceable, especially in the international relations context. It has been defined as a "system of rules",^[34] as an "interpretive concept"^[35] to achieve justice, as an "authority"^[36] to mediate people's interests, and even as "the command of a sovereign, backed by the threat of a sanction".^[37] However one likes to think of law, it is a completely central social institution. Legal policy incorporates the practical manifestation of thinking from almost every social science and the humanities. Laws are politics, because politicians create them. Law is philosophy, because moral and ethical persuasions shape their ideas. Law tells many of history's stories, because statutes, case law and codifications build up over time. And law is economics, because any rule about [contract](#), [tort](#), [property law](#), [labour law](#), [company law](#) and many more can have long-lasting effects on the distribution of wealth. The noun *law* derives from the [Old English](#) *lagu*, meaning something laid down or fixed^[38] and the adjective *legal* comes from the [Latin](#) word *lex*.^[39]

Linguistics [edit]

Main articles: [Linguistics](#) and [Outline of linguistics](#)

Linguistics investigates the cognitive and social aspects of human language. The field is divided into areas that focus on aspects of the linguistic signal, such as [syntax](#) (the study of the rules that govern the structure of sentences), [semantics](#) (the study of meaning), [morphology](#) (the study of the structure of words), [phonetics](#) (the study of speech sounds) and [phonology](#) (the study of the abstract sound system of a particular language); however, work in areas like [evolutionary linguistics](#) (the study of the origins and evolution of language) and [psycholinguistics](#) (the study of psychological factors in human language) cut across these divisions.^[40]

The overwhelming majority of modern research in linguistics takes a predominantly [synchronic](#) perspective (focusing on language at a particular point in time), and a great deal of it—partly owing to the influence of [Noam Chomsky](#)—aims at formulating theories of the cognitive processing of language. However, language does not exist in a vacuum, or only in the brain, and approaches like contact linguistics, [creole studies](#), [discourse analysis](#), social interactional linguistics, and [sociolinguistics](#) explore language in its social context. Sociolinguistics often makes use of traditional quantitative analysis and statistics in investigating the frequency of features, while some disciplines, like contact linguistics, focus on qualitative analysis. While certain areas of linguistics can thus be understood as clearly falling within the social sciences, other areas, like [acoustic phonetics](#) and [neurolinguistics](#), draw on the natural sciences. Linguistics draws only secondarily



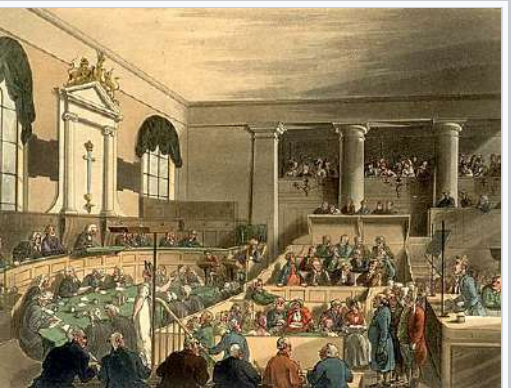
Buyers bargain for good prices while sellers put forth their best front in [Chichicastenango Market](#), [Guatemala](#).



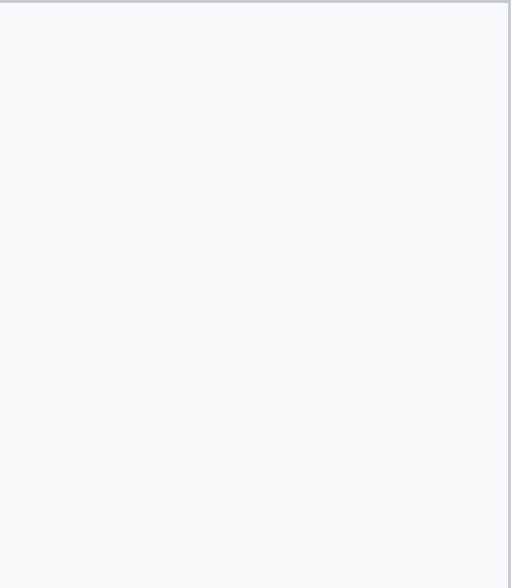
A depiction of world's oldest university, the [University of Bologna](#), in Italy



Map of the Earth



A trial at a criminal court, the [Old Bailey](#) in London



on the humanities, which played a rather greater role in linguistic inquiry in the 19th and early 20th centuries. **Ferdinand Saussure** was one of the founders of 20th century linguistics.^{[41][42][43][44]}

Political science [edit]

Main articles: [Political science](#), [Outline of political science](#), and [Politics](#)

Political science is an academic and research discipline that deals with the theory and practice of politics and the description and analysis of [political systems](#) and political behaviour. Fields and subfields of political science include [political economy](#), [political theory and philosophy](#), civics and [comparative politics](#), theory of [direct democracy](#), apolitical governance, participatory direct democracy, national systems, cross-national political analysis, political development, international relations, [foreign policy](#), [international law](#), politics, public administration, administrative behaviour, public law, judicial behaviour, and [public policy](#). Political science also studies [power in international relations](#) and the theory of [great powers](#) and [superpowers](#).^[46] ri

Political science is methodologically diverse, although recent years have witnessed an upsurge in the use of the [scientific method](#).^{[47][*page needed*]} that is, the proliferation of formal-deductive model building and quantitative hypothesis testing. Approaches to the discipline include [rational choice](#), classical political philosophy, [interpretivism](#), [structuralism](#), and [behaviouralism](#), [realism](#), pluralism, and [institutionalism](#). Political science, as one of the social sciences, uses methods and techniques that relate to the kinds of inquiries sought: primary sources such as historical documents, interviews, and official records, as well as secondary sources such as [scholarly articles](#), are used in building and testing theories. Empirical methods include [survey research](#), [statistical analysis](#) or [econometrics](#), [case studies](#), experiments, and model building.^[*citation needed*]

Psychology [edit]

Main articles: [Psychology](#) and [Outline of psychology](#)

Psychology is an academic and applied field involving the study of behaviour and mental processes.^[48] Psychology also refers to the application of such knowledge to various spheres of human activity, including problems of individuals' daily lives and the treatment of [mental illness](#).^{[49][50]} The word *psychology* comes from the [Ancient Greek](#) ψυχή (*psyche*, "soul" or "mind") and the suffix *logy* ("study").^[51]

Psychology differs from anthropology, economics, political science, and sociology in seeking to capture explanatory generalizations about the [mental function](#) and overt behaviour of individuals, while the other disciplines focus on creating descriptive generalizations about the functioning of social groups or situation-specific human behaviour. In practice, however, there is quite a lot of cross-fertilization that takes place among the various fields. Psychology differs from [biology](#) and neuroscience in that it is primarily concerned with the interaction of mental processes and behaviour, and of the overall processes of a system, and not simply the biological or neural processes themselves, though the subfield of [neuropsychology](#) combines the study of the actual neural processes with the study of the mental effects they have subjectively produced.^[52]


Many people associate psychology with [clinical psychology](#),^[53] which focuses on assessment and treatment of problems in living and psychopathology. In reality, psychology has myriad specialties including [social psychology](#), [developmental psychology](#), [cognitive psychology](#), [educational psychology](#), [industrial-organizational psychology](#), [mathematical psychology](#), neuropsychology, and [quantitative](#) analysis of behaviour.^[54]

Psychology is a very broad science that is rarely tackled as a whole, major block. Although some subfields encompass a natural science base and a social science application, others can be clearly distinguished as having little to do with the social sciences or having a lot to do with the social sciences. For example, biological psychology^[55] is considered a natural science with a social scientific application (as is clinical medicine), social and occupational psychology are, generally speaking, purely social sciences, whereas neuropsychology is a natural science that lacks application out of the scientific tradition entirely.^[56]

In British universities, emphasis on what tenet of psychology a student has studied and/or concentrated is communicated through the degree conferred: **BPsy** indicates a balance between natural and social sciences, **BSc** indicates a strong (or entire) scientific concentration, whereas a **BA** underlines a majority of social science credits. This is not always necessarily the case however, and in many UK institutions students studying the **BPsy**, **BSc**, and **BA** follow the same curriculum as outlined by The [British Psychological Society](#) and have the same options of specialism open to them regardless of whether they choose a balance, a heavy science basis, or heavy social science basis to their degree. If they applied to read the **BA**. for example, but specialized in heavily science-based modules, then they will still generally be awarded the **BA**.^[*citation needed*]

Sociology [edit]

Main articles: [Sociology](#) and [Outline of sociology](#)



This section **needs additional citations for verification**. Please help [improve this article](#) by [adding citations to reliable sources](#) in this section. Unsourced material may be challenged and removed. *(December 2023)* ([Learn how and when to remove this message](#))

Sociology is the systematic study of society, individuals' relationship to their societies, the consequences of difference, and other aspects of human [social action](#).^[57] The meaning of the word comes from the suffix *-logy*, which means "study of", derived from Ancient Greek, and the stem *soci-*, which is from the Latin word *socius*, meaning "companion", or society in general.^{[58][59]}

Auguste Comte (1798–1857) coined the term *sociology* to describe a way to apply natural science principles and techniques to the social world in 1838.^{[60][61]} Comte endeavoured to unify history, psychology and economics through the descriptive understanding of the social realm. He proposed that social ills could be remedied through sociological positivism, an epistemological approach outlined in *The Course in Positive Philosophy* [1830–1842] and *A General View of Positivism* (1844). Though Comte is generally regarded as the "Father of Sociology", the discipline was formally established by another French thinker, Émile Durkheim (1858–1917), who developed positivism as a foundation to practical social research. Durkheim set up the first European department of sociology at the [University of Bordeaux](#) in 1895, publishing his *Rules of the Sociological Method*. In 1896, he established the journal *L'Année sociologique*. Durkheim's seminal monograph, *Suicide* (1897), a case study of suicide rates among [Catholic](#) and [Protestant](#) populations, distinguished sociological analysis from psychology or philosophy.^[62]

Karl Marx rejected Comte's positivism but nevertheless aimed to establish a *science of society* based on [historical materialism](#), becoming recognized as a founding figure of sociology posthumously as the term gained broader meaning. Around the start of the 20th century, the first wave of German sociologists, including Max Weber and [Georg Simmel](#), developed sociological antipositivism. The field may be broadly recognized as an amalgam of three modes of social thought in particular: Durkheimian positivism and [structural functionalism](#); Marxist historical materialism and [conflict theory](#); and Weberian antipositivism and verstehen analysis. American sociology broadly arose on a separate trajectory, with little Marxist influence, an emphasis on rigorous experimental methodology, and a closer association with [pragmatism](#) and [social psychology](#). In the 1920s, the [Chicago school](#) developed [symbolic interactionism](#). Meanwhile, in the 1930s, the [Frankfurt School](#) pioneered the idea of [critical theory](#), an interdisciplinary form of [Marxist sociology](#) drawing upon thinkers as diverse as [Sigmund Freud](#) and [Friedrich Nietzsche](#). Critical theory would take on something of a life of its own after World War II, influencing [literary criticism](#) and the [Birmingham School](#) establishment of [cultural studies](#).^[*citation needed*]

Sociology evolved as an academic response to the challenges of [modernity](#), such as [industrialization](#), [urbanization](#), [secularization](#), and a perceived process of enveloping [rationalization](#).^[63] The field generally concerns the [social rules](#) and processes that bind and separate people not only as individuals, but as members of [associations](#), [groups](#), [communities](#) and [institutions](#), and includes the examination of the organization and development of human social life. The sociological field of interest ranges from the analysis of short [contacts](#) between anonymous individuals on the street to the study of [global social processes](#). In the terms of sociologists [Peter L. Berger](#) and [Thomas Luckmann](#), social scientists seek an understanding of the *[Social Construction of Reality](#)*. Most sociologists work in one or more [subfields](#). One useful way to describe the discipline is as a cluster of sub-fields that examine different dimensions of society. For example, [social stratification](#) studies inequality and class structure; demography studies changes in population size or type; criminology examines criminal behaviour and deviance; and [political sociology](#) studies the interaction between society and state.^[64]

Since its inception, sociological epistemologies, methods, and frames of enquiry, have significantly expanded and diverged.^[65] Sociologists use a diversity of research methods, collecting both quantitative and qualitative data, draw upon empirical techniques, and engage critical theory.^[61] Common modern methods include case studies, [historical research](#), interviewing, [participant observation](#), [social network analysis](#), survey research, statistical analysis, and model building, among other approaches. Since the late 1970s, many sociologists have tried to make the discipline useful for purposes beyond the academy. The results of sociological research aid educators, lawmakers, administrators, developers, and others interested in resolving social problems and formulating public policy, through subdisciplinary areas such as [evaluation research](#), methodological assessment, and [public sociology](#).^[*citation needed*]

In the early 1970s, women sociologists began to question sociological paradigms and the invisibility of women in sociological studies, analysis, and courses.^[66] In 1969, feminist sociologists challenged the discipline's [androcentrism](#) at the American Sociological Association's annual conference.^[67] This led to the founding of the organization Sociologists for Women in Society, and, eventually, a new sociology journal, [Gender & Society](#). Today, the [sociology of gender](#) is considered to be one of the most prominent sub-fields in the discipline.^[68]

New sociological sub-fields continue to appear — such as [community studies](#), [computational sociology](#), [environmental sociology](#), network analysis, [actor-network theory](#), gender studies, and a growing list, many of which are [cross-disciplinary](#) in nature.^[69]

Additional fields of study [edit]

See also: [Auxiliary sciences of history](#)

Additional applied or interdisciplinary fields related to the social sciences or are applied social sciences include:

- [Archaeology](#), a science that is focused on the study of human cultures by means of the recovery, documentation, analysis, and interpretation of material remains and environmental data, including architecture, artifacts, features, and landscapes.^[70]
- [Area studies](#), interdisciplinary fields of research and scholarship pertaining to particular geographical, national/federal, or cultural regions.^[71]
- [Behavioural science](#), which encompasses disciplines that explore the activities of and interactions among organisms in the natural world.^[72]
- [Computational social science](#), an umbrella field encompassing computational approaches within the social sciences.^[73]
- [Demography](#), the statistical study of human populations.^[74]
- [Development studies](#), a branch of social science that addresses issues of concern to developing countries.^[75]
- [Environmental social science](#), the broad study of interrelations between humans and the natural environment.^[76]
- [Environmental studies](#), which integrates social, humanistic, and natural science perspectives on the relation between humans and the natural environment.^[77]
- [Gender studies](#), which is focused on the study of gender identity, masculinity, femininity, [transgender](#) issues, and [sexuality](#).^[78]
- [Information science](#), an interdisciplinary science primarily concerned with the collection, classification, manipulation, storage, retrieval and dissemination of information.^[79]
- [International studies](#), which covers both international relations (the study of foreign affairs and global issues among states within the international system) and [international education](#).^[80]



- Legal management**, a social sciences discipline that is designed for students interested in the study of state and legal elements.^[81]
- Library science**, a field that applies the practices, perspectives, and tools of management, information technology, education, and other areas to libraries; and the collection, organization, preservation and dissemination of information resources.^[82]
- Management**, which consists of various levels of leadership and administration of an organization in all business and human organizations. It is the effective execution of getting people together to accomplish desired goals and objectives through adequate planning, executing and controlling activities.^[83]
- Marketing**, the identification of human needs and wants, defines and measures their magnitude for demand and understanding the process of consumer buying behaviour to formulate products and services, pricing, promotion and distribution to satisfy these needs and wants through exchange processes and building long-term relationships.^[84]
- Political economy**, the study of production, buying and selling, and their relations with law, custom, and government.^[85]
- Public administration**, the development, implementation and study of branches of government policy. Though public administration has been historically referred to as government management,^[86] it increasingly encompasses **non-governmental organizations** (NGOs) that also operate with a similar, primary dedication to the betterment of humanity.
- Religious studies** and **Western esoteric studies**, which incorporate social-scientific research on phenomena deemed religious.^[87]

Methodology [edit]

Social research [edit]

*Main article: **Social research***

The origin of the survey can be traced back at least as early as the **Domesday Book** in 1086,^{[88][89]} while some scholars pinpoint the origin of demography to 1663 with the publication of **John Graunt's** *Natural and Political Observations upon the Bills of Mortality*.^[90] Social research began most intentionally, however, with the **positivist philosophy of science** in the 19th century.

In contemporary usage, "social research" is a relatively autonomous term, encompassing the work of practitioners from various disciplines that share in its aims and methods. Social scientists employ a range of methods in order to analyse a vast breadth of social phenomena; from **census** survey data derived from millions of individuals, to the in-depth analysis of a single agent's social experiences; from monitoring what is happening on contemporary streets, to the investigation of ancient historical documents. The methods originally rooted in classical sociology and statistical mathematics have formed the basis for research in other disciplines, such as political science, media studies, and marketing and **market research**.

Social research methods may be divided into two broad schools:

- Quantitative designs** approach social phenomena through quantifiable evidence, and often rely on statistical analysis of many cases (or across intentionally designed treatments in an experiment) to create valid and reliable general claims.
- Qualitative designs** emphasize understanding of social phenomena through direct observation, communication with participants, or analysis of texts, and may stress contextual and subjective accuracy over generality.

Social scientists will commonly combine quantitative and qualitative approaches as part of a multi-strategy design. Questionnaires, field-based data collection, archival database information and laboratory-based data collections are some of the measurement techniques used. It is noted the importance of measurement and analysis, focusing on the (difficult to achieve) goal of objective research or **statistical hypothesis testing**. A **mathematical model** uses mathematical language to describe a system. The process of developing a mathematical model is termed 'mathematical modelling' (also modeling). A *mathematical model* is "a representation of the essential aspects of an existing **system** (or a system to be constructed) that presents knowledge of that system in usable form".^[91] Mathematical models can take many forms, including but not limited to **dynamical systems**, **statistical models**, **differential equations**, or **game theoretic models**.

These and other types of models can overlap, with a given model involving a variety of abstract structures. The system is a set of interacting or interdependent entities, real or abstract, forming an integrated whole. The concept of an *integrated whole* can also be stated in terms of a system embodying a set of relationships that are differentiated from relationships of the set to other elements, and from relationships between an element of the set and elements not a part of the relational regime. A **dynamical system** modeled as a **mathematical formalization** has a fixed "rule" that describes the time dependence of a point's position in its **ambient space**. Small changes in the state of the system correspond to small changes in the numbers. The *evolution rule* of the dynamical system is a **fixed rule** that describes what future states follow from the current state. The rule is **deterministic**: for a given time interval only one future state follows from the current state.

Social scientists often conduct **program evaluation**, which is a systematic method for collecting, analyzing, and using information to answer questions about projects, policies and programs,^[92] particularly about their effectiveness and efficiency. In both the public and private sectors, stakeholders often want to know whether the programs they are funding, implementing, voting for, receiving or objecting to are producing the intended effect. While program evaluation first focuses around this definition, important considerations often include how much the program costs per participant, how the program could be improved, whether the program is worthwhile, whether there are better alternatives, if there are unintended outcomes, and whether the program goals are appropriate and useful.^[93]

Theory [edit]

*Main article: **Social theory***

Some social theorists emphasize the subjective nature of research. These writers espouse social theory perspectives that include various types of the following:

- Critical theory** is the examination and critique of society and culture, drawing from knowledge across social sciences and humanities disciplines.
- Dialectical materialism** is the philosophy of Karl Marx, which he formulated by taking the dialectic of Hegel and joining it to the materialism of Feuerbach.
- Feminist theory** is the extension of feminism into theoretical, or philosophical discourse; it aims to understand the nature of gender inequality.
- Marxist theories**, such as **revolutionary theory**, **scientific socialism**, and **class theory**, cover work in philosophy that is strongly influenced by Karl Marx's materialist approach to theory or is written by Marxists.
- Phronetic social science** is a theory and methodology for doing social science focusing on ethics and political power, based on a contemporary interpretation of Aristotelian phronesis.
- Post-colonial theory** is a reaction to the cultural legacy of colonialism.
- Postmodernism** refers to a point of departure for works of literature, drama, architecture, cinema, and design, as well as in marketing and business and in the interpretation of history, law, culture and religion in the late 20th century.
- Rational choice theory** is a framework for understanding and often formally modeling social and economic behaviour.
- Social constructionism** considers how social phenomena develop in social contexts.
- Structuralism** is an approach to the human sciences that attempts to analyze a specific field (for instance, mythology) as a complex system of interrelated parts.
- Structural functionalism** is a sociological paradigm that addresses what social functions various elements of the social system perform in regard to the entire system.

Other fringe social theorists delve into the alternative nature of research. These writers share social theory perspectives that include various types of the following:

- Anti-intellectualism** describes a sentiment of critique towards, or evaluation of, intellectuals and intellectual pursuits.
- Antiscience** is a position critical of science and the scientific method.

Recursivity [edit]

Authors use the concept of *recursivity* to foreground the situation in which social scientists find themselves when producing knowledge about the world they are always already part of.^{[94][95]} According to Audrey Alejandro, "as social scientists, the recursivity of our condition deals with the fact that we are both subjects (as discourses are the medium through which we analyse) and objects of the academic discourses we produce (as we are social agents belonging to the world we analyse)."^[96] From this basis, she identifies in recursivity a fundamental challenge in the production of emancipatory knowledge which calls for the exercise of **reflexive** efforts:

we are socialised into discourses and dispositions produced by the socio-political order we aim to challenge, a socio-political order that we may, therefore, reproduce unconsciously while aiming to do the contrary. The recursivity of our situation as scholars – and, more precisely, the fact that the dispositional tools we use to produce knowledge about the world are themselves produced by this world – both evinces the vital necessity of implementing reflexivity in practice and poses the main challenge in doing so.^[97]

Education and degrees [edit]

Most universities offer degrees in social science fields.^[98] The **Bachelor of Social Science** is a degree targeted at the social sciences in particular, it is often more flexible and in-depth than other degrees that include social science subjects.^[a]

In the United States, a university may offer a student who studies a social sciences field a **Bachelor of Arts** degree, particularly if the field is within one of the traditional **liberal arts** such as history, or a BSc: Bachelor of Science degree such as those given by the **London School of Economics**, as the social sciences constitute one of the two main branches of science (the other being the **natural sciences**). In addition, some institutions have degrees for a particular social science, such as the **Bachelor of Economics** degree, though such specialized degrees are relatively rare in the United States.

Graduate students may receive a **master's degree** (**Master of Arts**, **Master of Science** or a field-specific degree such as **Master of Public Administration**) or a doctoral degree (e.g. **PhD**).

Funding [edit]

The funding of social science programs varies across countries and includes both private and public financing. The development of such programs typically see an increased funding and attention when their topics coincide with national political activities or economic policies.^[99] In South America, namely **Brazil**, the institutionalisation of social sciences took place in a political context where the state struggled to assert its territorial power, and the social scientific field was expected to produce investigation but also political inputs towards the construction of a new nation.^{[100][101]} Immediately following the **1932 Brazilian revolution**, social science programs experience a surge in funding, later becoming the largest of such capital expenditure in South America.^[99] Subsequently, these developments led to the deployment of university programs and the institution of national associations in anthropology, economics, sociology and political science.^[99]

People associated with the social sciences [edit]

<ul style="list-style-type: none">Al-Kindi Augustine Franz Boas Manuel Castells Confucius Wade Davis W. E. B. Du Bois Louis Dumont Norbert Elias	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Friedrich Engels Frantz Fanon Milton Friedman Anthony Giddens Erving Goffman Thomas Hobbes Arie Hochschild David Hume Marie Jahoda	<ul style="list-style-type: none">John Maynard Keynes Ibn Khaldun Paul F. Lazarsfeld John Locke John Lubbock, 1st Baron Avebury Niklas Luhmann Niccolò Machiavelli Karl Marx Marcel Mauss	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Margaret Mead John Stuart Mill Montesquieu Jean Piaget Steven Pinker Plato John Rawls David Ricardo Edward Said
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- ## 20th and 21st centuries sources [\[edit \]](#)

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External links [[edit](#)]


- [Institute for Comparative Research in Human and Social Sciences \(ICR\)](#)  (JAPAN)
- [Centre for Social Work Research](#) 
- [International Conference on Social Sciences](#) 
- [International Social Science Council](#) 
- [Introduction to Hutchinson et al., *There's No Such Thing as a Social Science*](#) 
- [Intute: Social Sciences \(UK\)](#) 
- [Social Science Research Society](#) 
- [Social Science Virtual Library](#) 
- [Social Science Virtual Library: Canaktanweb \(Turkish\)](#) 
- [Social Sciences And Humanities](#) 
- [UC Berkeley Experimental Social Science Laboratory](#) 
- [The Dialectic of Social Science](#)  by Paul A. Baran
- [American Academy *Commission on the Humanities and Social Sciences*](#) 
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