Social Exchange Theory and Attachment Theory: Combination of Sociological and Psychological approaches to form a bio-psychosocial viewpoint to human social and interpersonal relationships

Amir Mohammad Shahsavaranii*
Institute of PsychoBioSocioEconomic Sciences, Yerevan, Armenia
Corresponding author*

Habibeh Heyrati
Institute of PsychoBioSocioEconomic Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Mostafa Mohammadi
Institute of PsychoBioSocioEconomic Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Sanaz Jahansouz
Institute of PsychoBioSocioEconomic Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Azadeh Saffarzadeh
Department of Psychology and Educational Sciences, Faculty of Psychology, Allame Tabatabaei University, Tehran, Iran

Kolsoum Sattari
Institute of PsychoBioSocioEconomic Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Abstract

Human social life is mostly known by its communicative characteristic which is addressed as social relations. Nowadays a wide range of theories are concerned with explanation of such characteristic from various approaches. Authors and theorists of two major domains of social sciences, sociology and psychology, have tried to describe, explain and anticipate human interactions and behaviors in the context of social life within social relations. From sociological point of view, the dominant theory of explaining social relations, up to date, is The Social Exchange theory (SET). In psychological approaches, Attachment Theory has concerned with formation, development, and evolution of social relations in ontogenic and phylogenetic aspects of human life. Each of these two theories has tried to describe specific dimensions of social relations. This paper tries to show that these two theories altogether can cover bio-psychosocial aspects of human social and interpersonal relations.

Keywords: Social relation, social relationship, social interaction, social communication, interpersonal relationships, social exchange theory, attachment theory.
1. Introduction

Various types of relations have been established in human social life with other humankinds. It could be said that relations and communications form the most construct of the society in mankind life. Diverse types and forms of relations within societies and communities comprise formal and informal relations with insiders and outsider; those we know that could be told familiar ones and those we don’t know that are called strangers. Such relations include short and brief relations with strangers, relations with family members, relations with intimate ones, relations with acquaintances, relations with friends, occupational relations, business relations, etc. What all these have in common is their establishment in a context of social relations and interactions. Social relation or social interaction refers to a relationship between two or more individuals. Social relations, derived from individual agency, form the basis of the social structure. Fundamental enquiries into the nature of social relations are to be found in the work of the classical sociologists, for instance, in Max Weber's theory of social action (Fadul & Estoque, 2010). Social action refers to an act which takes into account the actions and reactions of individuals (or 'agents'). According to Max Weber, "an Action is 'social' if the acting individual takes account of the behavior of others and is thereby oriented in its course" (Weber, 1978).

The very first idea of social relations could be found in “Collective consciousness” which is used first by Durkheim (1997) to refer to the shared beliefs and moral attitudes which operate as a unifying force within society. In The Division of Labour, Durkheim argued that in traditional/primitive societies (those based around clan, family or tribal relationships) totemic religion played an important role in uniting members through the creation of a common consciousness. In societies of this type, the contents of an individual's consciousness are largely shared in common with all other members of their society, creating a mechanical solidarity through mutual likeness. The totality of beliefs and sentiments common to the average members of a society forms a determinate system with a life of its own. It can be termed the collective or creative consciousness (Kenneth & Kenneth, 2005).

In Suicide, Durkheim developed the concept of anomie to refer to the social rather than individual causes of suicide. This relates to the concept of collective consciousness as if there is a lack of integration or solidarity in society then suicide rates will be higher (Pickering & Walford, 2000).

Forms of relation and interaction in sociology and anthropology may be described as follows: first and most basic are animal-like behaviors, i.e. various physical movements of the body. Then there are actions - movements with a meaning and purpose. Then there are social behaviors, or social actions, which address (directly or indirectly) other people, which solicit a response from another agent. Next are social contacts, a pair of social actions, which form the beginning of social interactions. Social interactions in turn form the basis of social relations. Symbols define social relationships. Without symbols, our social life would be no more sophisticated than that of animals (Sztompka, 2010).

Interpersonal relationships are referred to as an association between two or more people ranging from fleeting to enduring. This association may be based on inference, love, solidarity, regular business interactions, or some other type of social commitment (DeVreis & Goncu, 1987). Interpersonal relationships are formed in the contexts such as familial, social,
cultural, regional, etc. The context in which interpersonal relations form can vary from family or kinship relations, friendship, marriage, relations with associates, work, clubs, neighborhoods, and places of worship. These relations are usually affected and (or) regulated by law, custom, or mutual agreement, and are the basis of social groups and society as a whole (e.g., Nicolo, et al., 2011; Hayward, Berry & Ashton, 2011).

A relationship is normally viewed as a connection between two individuals, such as a romantic or intimate relationship, or a parent–child relationship. Individuals can also have relationships with groups of people, such as the relation between a pastor and his congregation, an uncle and a family, or a mayor and a town. Finally, groups or even nations may have relations with each other, though this is a much broader domain than that covered under the topic of interpersonal relationships. See such articles as international relations for more information on associations between groups. Most scholarly work on relationships focuses on the small subset of interpersonal relationships involving romantic partners in pairs or dyads (e.g., Rosenfeld, 2005).

In all cultures, social relationships may be classified with respect to levels of kinship or with respect to types of social exchanges. All cultures provide linguistic concepts and psychological cues that serve to distinguish levels of genetic and levels of in-law kinship (Diewald, et al., 2009; Widmer, 2006), including friendship (e.g., Ackerman, Kenrick, & Schaller, 2007). More generally, the social worlds of individuals include a broad diversity of types of interpersonal contact within and outside the family (Lang, Wagner, & Neyer, 2009).

Interpersonal relationships usually involve some level of interdependence. People in a relationship tend to influence each other, share their thoughts and feelings, and engage in activities together. Because of this interdependence, most things that change or impact one member of the relationship will have some level of impact on the other member (Berscheid & Peplau, 1983).

Interpersonal relationships are dynamic systems that change continuously during their existence. Like living organisms, relationships have a beginning, a lifespan, and an end. They tend to grow and improve gradually, as people get to know each other and become closer emotionally, or they gradually deteriorate as people drift apart, move on with their lives and form new relationships with others (Lang, Wagner, & Neyer, 2009).

In this paper, we aim to discuss social and interpersonal relations from two apparently divergent points of view: Social exchange Theory (SET) from Sociology and Attachment Theory from Psychology. These two theories have lots of background literatures and researches in their own areas of study.

2. Social Exchange Theory (SET)

Social exchange theory (SET) is a sociological perspective that explains social change and stability as a process of negotiated exchanges between parties. SET posits that all human relationships are formed by the use of a subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives. The theory has roots in economics, psychology and sociology. SET features many of the main assumptions found in rational choice theory and structuralism (Liang, et al., 2001).
Social exchange theory, rooted in economic theory and modified by Thibaut and Kelley (1959) for the study of the social psychology of groups, focuses on the perceptions of the relative costs and benefits of relationships and their implications for relationship satisfaction. Comparison is an important component of social exchange and provides the standard against which all relationships are judged. Comparative standards are subjective and vary across individuals and groups (Ward & Berno, 2011).

2.1. Basic concepts of Social Exchange Theory

According to social exchange theory (SET), people implicitly or explicitly calculate investments made versus benefits received in their interpersonal relationships (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958), and perceive these relationships accordingly in terms of three patterns of exchange: (1) reciprocal, in which equal amounts of resources are invested and gained; (2) over-reciprocating, in which the resources gained exceed those invested; and (3) under-reciprocating, in which the resources invested exceed those gained (Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978). Recent research in the area of supportive exchanges has led to three main perspectives regarding the role that these exchange patterns may play in supportive relationships (Nahum-Shani & Bamberger, 2011).

The SET has three major concepts, which are the components of the exchange equation; Costs are the elements of relational life that have negative value to a person, such as the effort put into a relationship and the negatives of a partner (West & Turner, 2007). (Costs can be time, money, effort etc.). Rewards are the elements of a relationship that have positive value (Rewards can be sense of acceptance, support, and companionship etc.). The SET argues that people calculate the overall Worth (Profit) of a particular relationship by subtracting its costs from the rewards it provides (Zafirovski, 2005):

If worth is a positive number, it is a positive relationship. On the contrary, negative number indicates a negative relationship. The worth of a relationship influences its outcome, or whether people will continue with a relationship or terminate it. Positive relationships are expected to endure, whereas negative relationships will probably terminate (Monge, & Contractor, 2003).

Economic exchanges and social exchanges have some differences: Social exchanges involve a connection with another person; social exchanges involve trust, not legal obligations; social exchanges are more flexible; and social exchanges rarely involve explicit bargaining. The guiding force of interpersonal relationships is the advancement of both parties’ self-interest Stanford (2008).

Social Exchange Theory posits that the major force in interpersonal relationships is the satisfaction of both people’s self-interest. Self-interest is not considered necessarily bad and can be used to enhance relationships. Interpersonal exchanges are thought to be analogous to economic exchanges where people are satisfied when they receive a fair return for their expenditures (Zafirovski, 2005).

Benefits include things such as material or financial gains, social status, and emotional comforts. Costs generally consist of sacrifices of time, money, or lost opportunities. Outcome is defined to be the difference between the benefits and the costs. Because individuals have different expectations of relationships, an individual's satisfaction with a relationship depends on more than just the outcome. For any two people with the same
outcome, their level of satisfaction may differ based on their expectations. One person may not expect very large outcomes, and therefore would be more easily satisfied in relationships than someone who expects more. This notion of satisfaction is formalized as the difference between the outcome and the comparison level. That is to say, there are people who stay in unhappy relationships as well as those who leave happy relationships. What determines whether an individual stays in a relationship or leaves is the set of alternate relationships available. If there are many alternatives available to an individual, then that individual is less dependent on the relationship. This notion of dependence is formalized as the difference between the outcome and the "comparison level of alternatives". The set of potential alternatives can be governed both by extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Both intrinsic and extrinsic factors affect the set of people available to an individual for forming an alternate relationship, and thus affect the level of dependence of the individual on his or her current relationship (Zafirovski, 2005).

When deciding whether to leave the relationship, an individual considers the alternatives. There are other considerations, such as the barriers to leaving the relationship. Such barriers include things such as avoiding a fight, dealing with a shared financial account, etc. There are also considerations of the investments that an individual has made in the relationship. For instance, a couple that has spent many years together has invested a lot of time into a relationship, and this must be weighed against the benefits gained from an alternative relationship (Monge, & Contractor, N. 2003).

2.2. Social Relations in the context of Social Exchange Theory (SET)

The SET includes both a notion of a relationship, and some notion of a shared obligation in which both parties perceive responsibilities to each other (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007).

In SET, evaluation rests on two types of comparisons: Comparison Level and Comparison Level for Alternative. The Comparison Level (CL) is a standard representing what people feel they should receive in the way of rewards and costs from a particular relationship (Thibaut, & Kelley, 1959). The Comparison Level for Alternative (CLalt) refers to “the lowest level of relational rewards a person is willing to accept given available rewards from alternative relationships or being alone (Berger, Roloff, & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2010).

According to Thibaut, & Kelley (1959), people engage in Behavioral Sequence, or a series of actions designed to achieve their goal. When people engage in these behavioral sequences, they are dependent to some extent on their relational partner. Fate control is the ability to affect a partner’s outcomes. Behavior control is the power to cause another’s behavior to change by changing one’s own behavior). Therefore, the assumptions that SET makes about human nature include the following (West & Turner, 2007):

1. People who are engaged in interaction are rationally seeking to maximize profits.
2. Most gratification among humans is located in others. Dyads or small groups are the unit of analysis.
3. People have access to information about social, economic, and psychological aspects of interaction that allows them to consider alternative, more profitable situations relative to their present condition.

4. People are rational and calculate the best possible means to compete in rewarding situations. The same is true of punishment avoidance situations. SET is organismic mechanistic to the extent that the individual is not in control of the expectations for his/her behavior. Individual reactions are narrowly defined as acceptable.

5. People are goal oriented in a freely competitive system. SE is a Formal Theory.

6. Exchange operates within cultural norms.

7. Social credit is preferable to social indebtedness. SE is Nomothetic.

8. The more deprived the individual feels in terms of an act, the more the person will assign value to it. Again, SET is nomothetic--based on general laws.

The prisoner's dilemma is a widely used example in game theory that attempts to illustrate why or how two individuals may not cooperate with each other, even if it is in their best interest to do so. It demonstrates that while cooperation would give the best outcome, people might nevertheless act selfishly (Thibaut, & Kelley, 1959).

At the next step, the assumptions SET makes about the nature of relationships include the following (West & Turner, 2007):

1. Relationships are interdependent.

2. Relational life is a process.

   1. People develop patterns of exchange to cope with power differentials and to deal with the costs associated with exercising power. These patterns describe behavioral rules or norms that indicate how people trade resources in an attempt to maximize rewards and minimize costs. Three different matrices have been described by Thibaut, & Kelley (1959) to illustrate the patterns people develop.

   There are three forms within these matrices. In a direct exchange, reciprocation is confined to the two actors. One social actor provides value to another one and the other reciprocates. A generalized exchange involves indirect reciprocity. One person gives to another and the recipient the recipient responds but not to the first person. Productive exchange means that both actors have to contribute for either one of them to benefit. Both people incur benefits and costs simultaneously (Berger, Roloff, & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2010).

2.3. Styles of Social Exchange

Leybman et al. (2011) found two dimensions of individual differences in social exchange styles (SESS): Equitable Alliance Building (EAB: the tendency to seek benefits, favor equity, and be willing to invest in establishing and maintaining social exchange relationships) and Vigilant Alliance Management (VAM: the tendency to monitor costs and benefits in exchange relationships, be firm in negotiations with exchange partners, and be willing to terminate exchange relationships). EAB and VAM were distinct from Five-factor model of Personality (FFM) traits and attachment styles in psychology, but showed predictable relationships with these variables; i.e., extraverted and agreeable people were
higher in EAB, whereas disagreeable and avoidant attached people were higher in VAM. Moreover, EAB and VAM predicted subjective and objective performance in small work groups.

In order to bring sociological and psychological concepts closer to each other, Leybman et al. (2011) developed the Social Exchange Style Questionnaire (SESQ) as a measure of individual differences within the social exchange domain in which social exchange styles (SESs) were defined in evolutionary psychological terms and covered a broader range of the domain than previous scales. Many personality measures offer both higher- and lower-order factors so that users of the scales can decide whether to pursue parsimony or comprehensiveness. Leybman et al. (2011) anticipated that EAB and VAM would emerge from four lower-order factors: exploitiveness (promoting benefits while seeking to minimize costs), fairness (promoting benefits while assuming costs), helping (assuming costs without necessarily expecting or promoting benefits), and individualism (disinterest in alliances with little investment and little benefit).

3. Attachment Theory

Attachment theory is a broad theory of social development in psychology that describes the origins of the patterns of close interpersonal relationships. The interaction of environmental (especially parental) and genetic factors in early development lead to individual differences in patterns of attachment behavior. Attachment behaviors are interpersonal actions that are intended to increase an individual's sense of security, particularly in times of stress or need. These interpersonal patterns are quite stable and, in adulthood, are known as adult attachment styles (Cassidy, & Shaver, 2010; Mikulincer, & Shaver, 2007).

Attachment theory postulates that all individuals are born with an innate desire to seek proximity to others in times of need or distress in order to enhance their survival prospects. To the extent to which these efforts to gain proximity are successful, individuals develop a sense of security. This sense of security (or lack thereof) then becomes the basis of their own individual attachment style which then remains relatively fixed over the lifespan of the individual (Harms, 2011). Attachment theory describes the dynamics of long-term relationships between humans. At first, Infants become attached to adults who are sensitive and responsive in social interactions with them, and who remain as consistent caregivers until approximately the end of adolescence. Parental responses lead to the development of patterns of attachment; these, in turn, lead to internal working models, which will guide the individual's perceptions, emotions, thoughts and expectations in later relationships (Bretherton, & Munholland, 2010). Separation anxiety or grief following the loss of an attachment figure is considered to be a normal and adaptive response for an attached individual. These behaviors may have evolved because they increase the probability of survival of the child and holding up the relations in later life (Prior & Glaser, 2006). The formation of attachment style is associated with various aspects of interpersonal regulation (i.e., the processes that regulate a person’s interactions with others) and influences people’s feelings, thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors in social interactions (Troisi, et al., 2010).
Attachment theory, in psychological perspectives, has since become "the dominant approach to understanding early social development, and has given rise to a great surge of empirical research into the formation of children's close relationships" (Schaffer, 2011) and adult consistent, sustainable, mutual, and in-depth relations (Alfasi, Gramzow, & Carnelley, 2010). Attachment theory has formed the basis of new therapies and informed existing ones, and its concepts have been used in the formulation of social and childcare policies to support the early attachment relationships of children (Berlin, Zeanah, & Lieberman, 2010).

3.1. Attachment definition

Attachment in its very essence means an affectional bond or tie between an individual and an attachment figure (usually a caregiver). Such bonds may be mutual and reciprocal between two adults, but between a child and a caregiver, these bonds are based on the child's need for safety, security and protection, paramount in infancy and childhood. The theory proposes that children attach to carers instinctively (Bretherton, & Munholland, 2010), for the purpose of survival and, ultimately, genetic replication (Prior & Glaser, 2006). The biological aim is survival and the psychological aim is security (Schaffer, 2011). Attachment theory is not an exhaustive description of human relationships, nor is it synonymous with love and affection, although these may indicate that bonds exist. In child-to-adult relationships, the child's tie is called the "attachment" and the caregiver's reciprocal equivalent is referred to as the "care-giving bond" (Prior & Glaser, 2006).

In Human beings, attachment firstly is developed in infancy. Infants form attachments to any consistent caregiver who is sensitive and responsive in social interactions with them. The quality of the social engagement is more influential than the amount of time spent. The biological mother is the usual principal attachment figure, but the role can be taken by anyone who consistently behaves in a "mothering" way over a period of time. In attachment theory, this means a set of behaviors that involves engaging in lively social interaction with the infant and responding readily to signals and approaches (Bowlby, 2005). Nothing in the theory suggests that fathers are not equally likely to become principal attachment figures if they provide most of the childcare and related social interaction (Shemmings, & Shemmings, 2011).

The set-goal of the attachment behavioral system is to maintain a bond with an accessible and available attachment figure (Kobak, & Madsen, 2010). "Alarm" is the term used for activation of the attachment behavioral system caused by fear of danger. "Anxiety" is the anticipation or fear of being cut off from the attachment figure. If the figure is unavailable or unresponsive, separation distress occurs (Prior & Glaser, 2006). Threats to security in older children and adults arise from prolonged absence, breakdowns in communication, emotional unavailability or signs of rejection or abandonment (Kobak, & Madsen, 2010).

3.2. Shaping the Attachment

The attachment behavioral system serves to maintain or achieve closer proximity to the attachment figure. The infant's behavior towards the caregiver gradually becomes organized on a goal-directed basis to achieve the conditions that make it feel secure (Prior & Glaser, 2006). By the end of the first year, the infant is able to display a range of attachment
behaviors designed to maintain proximity. These manifest as protesting the caregiver's departure, greeting the caregiver's return, clinging when frightened and following when able (Furrow, Johnson, Bradley, 2011). With the development of locomotion, the infant begins to use the caregiver or caregivers as a safe base from which to explore (Prior & Glaser, 2006). Infant exploration is greater when the caregiver is present because the infant's attachment system is relaxed and it is free to explore. If the caregiver is inaccessible or unresponsive, attachment behavior is more strongly exhibited. Anxiety, fear, illness and fatigue will cause a child to increase attachment behaviors (Furrow, Johnson, & Bradley, 2011). After the second year, as the child begins to see the carer as an independent person, a more complex and goal-corrected partnership is formed (Prior, & Glaser, 2006). Children begin to notice others' goals and feelings and plan their actions accordingly. For example, whereas babies cry because of pain, two-year-olds cry to summon their caregiver, and if that does not work, cry louder, shout or follow (Schaffer, 2011).

3.3. Changes in attachment

According to attachment theory, early experiences with primary caregivers are internalized by children to shape internal working models, that is, cognitive structures that act as a prototype for later relationships outside the family. Adult working models influence adult interactions with significant others, and adult romantic love has been conceptualized as an attachment process experienced somewhat differently by different adults because of variations in their attachment histories that are rooted in the early experiences of life. Age, cognitive growth and continued social experience advance the development and complexity of the internal working model. Attachment-related behaviors lose some characteristics typical of the infant-toddler period and take on age-related tendencies to shape some certain attachment styles and behaviors in older ages (Surcinelli, et al., 2010).

These social skills become incorporated into the internal working model to be used with other children in childhood and later with adult peers. (Kerns, 2010). By middle childhood (ages 7–11), there may be a shift towards mutual coregulation of secure-base contact in which caregiver and child negotiate methods of maintaining communication and supervision as the child moves towards a greater degree of independence. Transition to adolescence and adulthood, respectively, makes the independence more underlined. Autonomy and relatedness, or interdependence, are important issues in most close relationships (Prager & Roberts, 2004). Achieving balance between them is often challenging yet necessary for partners’ mutual satisfaction that can be considered as other aspects of modified characteristics of early attachment in adulthood (Lavy, Mikulincer, & Shaver, 2010).

3.4. Significance of attachment patterns

Effects of early attachment may lie in the internal working model mechanism. Internal models are not just "pictures" but refer to the feelings aroused. They enable a person to anticipate and interpret another's behavior and plan a response. The internal working models on which attachment behavior is based show a degree of continuity and stability. Children are likely to fall into the same categories as their primary caregivers indicating that the caregivers' internal working models affect the way they relate to their child. This effect has been observed to continue across three generations. Bowlby believed that the earliest models formed were the most likely to persist because they existed in the subconscious. Such models
are not, however, impervious to change given further relationship experiences; a minority of children has different attachment classifications with different caregivers (Schaffer, 2011).

There is some evidence that gender differences in attachment patterns of adaptive significance begin to emerge in middle childhood. Insecure attachment and early psychosocial stress indicate the presence of environmental risk (for example poverty, mental illness, instability, minority status, violence). This can tend to favor the development of strategies for earlier reproduction. However, different patterns have different adaptive values for males and females. Insecure males tend to adopt avoidant strategies, whereas insecure females tend to adopt anxious/ambivalent strategies, unless they are in a very high-risk environment. Adrenarche is proposed as the endocrine mechanism underlying the reorganisation of insecure attachment in middle childhood (Del Giudice, 2009).

3.5. Conclusion

Describing and defining interpersonal relationships, we shall define relation at first. Relation in a simple way could be defined as a way of transacting concepts and/or meanings from one person to another and the more accurate and precise the transaction of the message, the more efficient the relation is. Social and interpersonal relationship is then could be defined as a process in which one within a relatively strong bond sends her/his information via (non)verbal messages to another one(s). This capability is considered to be the main source of social communication and social integrity of human communities and societies (For details, see Ahmadin, Shamsaie, & Rahbar, 2015).

Diverse aspects of social and interpersonal relationships are addressed within various theories. From social aspects, the best description and explanation of underlying reasons of human communications in social relations could be clarified via social exchange and its diverse styles. It shall be noted that SET is one of the core constructs of social capital which is a capital that benefits from social relations. Social capital results from worth-full relations and non-materialistic long-term investments in interpersonal relations and many social activities such as prosocial behaviors can mediate its strength through societies and communities. Moreover, teaching for wisdom as a social-psychological approach has been proposed to empower social capital. All these constructs are emphasizing on the capacity building and facilitation of social capital by empowering and enhancing social relations. Moreover, still the only evidence-based and empirically approved method of evaluation and assessment of social capital is via measuring social exchange (For more details see Shahsavarani, Hakimi Kalkhoran, Alirezaloo, Sattari, 2015; Shahsavarani, Hakimi Kalkhoran, Alirezaloo, Mirzaei, & Sattari, 2015). Therefore, it appears that SET can cover well the social aspects of social and interpersonal relationships.

On the other hand, Attachment Theory is a great comprehensive bio-psychological theory to cover biological and psychological development and evolution from early time of birth through old ages and even, theorists of attachment theory have gained evidence of ontogenic and phylogenetic bases of social and interpersonal relationships. These are critical to understand the underlying bases of formation and development of social and interpersonal relations in human kind. Attachment theory has resulted in modern methods of social-psychological interventions to enhance and facilitate interpersonal relationships, especially in
the families which is called *Emotionally-Focused Therapy* (EFT; for more details see Soltani, Molazade, Mahmoodi, Hosseini, 2013; Sattari, & Shahsavaran, 2007).

Altogether, it appears that combination of these two theories has the eligibility to support bio-psychosocial dimensions of human social life in the field of social interactions and relations, so that along with biological aspects, psychological and social dimensions could be inspected. It shall be noted that however, reviewing the literature has not yielded any empirical or research evidence to support this theoretical hypothesis, yet. Further future studies shall be administered in order to find more suitable results in the field of social and interpersonal relationships. Nonetheless, this theoretical base sounds to be a proper initial point of an interdisciplinary approach which connects social and psychological theories together. It appears that in the new era of science, after a long-run tradition of distinction and separation of different branches of science, the unity of various majors especially, psychology and sociology, is an important prerequisite to make a better understanding of underlying mechanisms of human life.
References


