Chapter 3

THEORIES OF ATTITUDES

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ABSTRACT

Attitude refers to feelings, beliefs, and reactions of an individual towards an event, phenomenon, objects or person. Attitudes are not innate attributes of mankind. They are learnt, relatively stable but can be modified. Attitudes could be implicit or explicit, conscious or unconscious, rational or irrational; extraversion or introversion. Attitudes are evaluations people make about objects, ideas, events or other people. Attitudes can be positive or negative. Adewuyi (2006), remarked that, attitude is considered to be individualistic, an abstract entity and a kind of intervening variable imposed in order to explain regularities in behavioural responses. Yale University Communication Research Program emphasised on three importance variables of attention, comprehension and acceptance in learning new attitude. Wood and Wood (1980), agreed that attitude has three components of cognitive, affective or emotion and behavioural. The need to understand how attitudes are formed and changed has recently been a major preoccupation of the social psychologists. Wrightsman (1985) identified five different theories of attitude change to include; stimulus-response and reinforcement

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theories, social-judgement theory, consistency theory, self-perception theory and functional theory. An adequate theory of attitude change must be able to predict and explain cases in which attitudes do not change as well as when it should be modified and it does changed.

**Keywords:** Attitudes, Types of attitudes, Attitudes and Persuasions and Theories of Attitude

**INTRODUCTION**

According to Bruvold (1980), an attitude may be defined as a positive or negative affective reaction toward a denotable abstract or concrete object or proposition. Zimbardo (1998), claimed that attitude could be explained as learned judgements about the actions they are appropriate towards certain types of people or issues. Attitudes are relatively stable but they could be modified. According to Kegan, Havemann and Segal (1994), as individual grows up, acquire strong beliefs and feelings or attitudes towards members of various ethnic groups, foreigners, rich people, poor people, males, females, issues, government policy etc. Individual develop strong attitudes towards political parties, national security and all other issues and institutions in the society. Attitudes tend to influence us throughout life. People are very much in favour of things towards which we have positive attitude and very much against things of a negative attitude.

The concept of attitude arises from attempts to account for observed regularities in the behaviour of individual persons. The quality of one’s attitudes is judged from the observable, evaluative responses that are made. While one might consult one’s inner experiences as evidence of one’s own attitudes. An attitude concerns something that really matters to us. Hence it is far more resistant to change than an opinion. According to Kegan, Havemann and Segal (1994);

“Since attitudes are so enduring and can be powerful forces in determining behaviour, they have been a key topic in social psychology. Investigators have devoted considerable study to how people acquire them (attitudes), cling to them, but sometimes change them, and when, under what circumstances, and to what the individual will do (Omotoso,2003).”

This view is supported by (McConnel, 1980) who posited that attitude has been a subject of great interest to social psychologist for a long time. As a
social psychologist himself, McConnel had an extensive discussion on the concept of attitude. McConnel saw attitude as a relatively enduring way of a person thinking, feeling and behaviour towards an object, person, group, an idea or an event. Hence, McConnel pointed out that:

“In a sense, attitudes are perceptions that involve emotional feelings or biases and which predispose one to act in a certain way.”

Wood and Wood (1980) saw attitude as a relatively stable evaluation of a person, object, situation or issue. According to them, attitude has three components; cognitive, affective or emotional and behavioural components.

The first cognitive components constitute thoughts and beliefs about the attitudinal object. In other words, the cognitive component of attitude represents a person’s knowledge held with varying degrees of certainty about what is true or false, good or bad, desirable or undesirable. The second component of attitude; the emotional component makes up of your feelings towards the attitudinal objects. It is also called the affective component because under suitable conditions, the belief is capable of arousing effect of varying intensity centered around the object of the belief.

The third component of attitude is the behavioural component. It deals with how we are predisposed to act towards the attitudinal object. It is called the behavioural component because the belief, being a response, predisposition of varying threshold, must lead to some actions when it is suitably activated.

In a paper delivered by Buadi (2000), attitude was portrayed as normally focusing on an object or a situation, which may be either concrete or abstract. He added that an attitude will certainly lead to a preferential response. Buadi (2000) further explained that the basis for this preferential response could be positive or negative due to the fact that the attitudinal object or situation is effectively evaluated as good or bad.

By way of summarizing the reviewed literature on attitude, it is pertinent to say that attitude is an important antecedent of action. Attitude as regard this book could be used to predict, control and modify human actions towards an object, issues, situations or abstract entity. It can also be used as independent variables in formulating research hypotheses.

It can also be used in experimental study as behaviour modification and evaluation utilizing various psychotherapies of Rational Emotive Behaviour therapy, Cognitive Behaviour therapy, Transactional Analysis, Psycho-analysis theory and many others not mentioned in this book.
ORIGIN OF ATTITUDES

Research has indicated that there are several ways in which we can acquire and form attitudes. One of our earliest agents of attitude formation are our parents, later followed by our peers and the media. Other forms of attitude formation include the following:

- **Classical Conditioning:** Association behaviours and attitudes as “good” or “bad” (i.e. it’s good to tell the truth, it’s bad to steal).
- **Operant Conditioning:** Being rewarded or punished for behaviour and attitudes (i.e. being praised for telling the truth or being punished for stealing something).
- **Cognitive Appraisals:** Weighing logical arguments in determining your attitudes.
- **Observational Learning:** Learning attitudes through peer behaviour and the media.
- **Persuasions:** Attitudes could be formed through persuasions from parents and friends.

TYPES OF ATTITUDES

According to Jung’s definition of attitudes, there are several types of attitudes which could be discussed under the following headlines.

- **Implicit and explicit attitudes:** These have to do with how internal drive and external stimuli affect human actions and attitudinal changes.
- **Consciousness and the unconscious attitude:** The "presence of two attitudes is extremely frequent, one conscious and the other unconscious. This means that consciousness has a constellation of contents different from that of the unconscious, a duality particularly evident is neurosis".
- **Extraversion and introversion attitude:** This pair is so elementary to Jung's theory of type of attitudes that he labelled them the "attitude-types". Some individual are the outgoing type while some are the quiet type. These traits of individual differences affect individual attitudes towards an object, events or a given situation or phenomena.
- **Rational and irrational attitudes:** "I conceive reason as an attitude". This shows that attitudes in form of actions can be justified and at
times, they may be no reason accrued to that action or attitude. The rational attitude subdivides into the thinking and feeling psychological functions, each with it's attitude. The irrational attitude subdivides into the sensing and intuition psychological functions, each with it's attitude. "There is thus: A typical thinking, feeling, sensation, and intuitive attitude" which has to do with a particular event or situation.

- **Individual and social attitudes:** This has to do with acceptable behavioural norms within a given society. An acceptable attitude in one society may not be acceptable in another society.

**ATTITUDES AND PERSUASIONS**

The more one is exposed to an attitude, the more that person will like it (e.g. buying the dress make because you have seen the beauty of it). Attitudes and persuasion can be divided into two: central truth persuasion and peripheral route persuasion.

Central truth persuasion has to do with the deeply processing of a message content (e.g. “why did you like a particular hair style or hear do”). Peripheral route persuasion has to do with the other aspects rather than the content (e.g. “liking the dress maker or designer of a particular dress”). Persuasion is an attempt to change a person’s attitudes. Research has indicated that there are several key components that make messages more persuasive are persuasive communicator and the persuasive audience. Persuasive message has so many variables which include: familiarity, repetition; two sided arguments, emotional appeals and arguments that run contrary to the communicator’s interests.

- **Familiarity:** messages are more persuasive when we are more familiar with the contents.

- **Repetition:** the more a message is repeated (especially if it is complex); the more persuasive it is.

- **Two sided arguments:** both sides of the arguments are presented.

- **Emotional appeals:** commercials especially, are more persuasive if they appeal to the emotions.

- **Arguments that run contrary to the communicator’s interests:** messages that seem to go against the interests of the person speaking tend to be more persuasive.

- **Persuasive Communicator:** The persuasive communicators tend to:
• Show expertise.
• Be trustworthy.
• Be attractive.
• be similar to the audience.
• Come from health professions.

Research has indicated that when food and music are added to messages, their persuasiveness increases.

*Persuasive Audience*: The persuasive audience tends to have two characteristics: low self esteem (i.e low sense of self worth) and high social anxiety (i.e. a high need to fit into the society).

*Compliance Strategies*: These have to do with the following:

• foot- in -the -door –effect: after getting some one to agree to a small request, you then follow up with a larger request.
• foot-in- the face- effect: after having someone deny a larger request, you then follow up with a smaller request.
• Norms of reciprocity: after doing something nice to someone, you expect them to reciprocate.

## Theories of Attitude

A theory can be defined as a system that is comprised of empirical data, derived from observation and/ or experimentation and their interpretation (Luthans, 2008). In another words, a theory must grow out of systematic analysis of the past events. A theory could be likened to a map where a few points are known while the road between them are inferred.

A theory is an interconnected statement (Adewuyi, 2006). A theory can be defined as a way of organizing and systematizing what is known about a given phenomena say substance abuse. A theory is a plan of attack, a frame work upon which the information central to the solution of an issue can be arranged.

Theory is an unsubstantiated hypothesis or a speculation concerning reality that is not known to be seen as a set of conventions created by the theorist. Steffix and Mathany (2005), concluded that a theory is derived from personal, historical, sociological and philosophical bases.

Shertzer and Stone (2001), posited four functions of a theory as follows:

• Summarizes and generalizes a particular body of knowledge;
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- Facilitates understanding and explanation of a complex phenomena such as substance abuse and peer relation;
- Theory serves as a predictive function by helping researchers to estimate what will happen under certain conditions, and;
- Stimulates further research study and facts finding.

Theories as regard this book are to guide individual in their behavioural actions in life and it is also good for research studies in social behavioural sciences. It is to guide individual in attitude formation; attitudinal and behavioural changes. There are several theories of attitude formation and attitudinal/behavioural changes but the following:

Wrightsman (1985) identified five different theories of attitude change to include;

- Stimulus-response and reinforcement theories;
- Social-judgement theory;
- Consistency theory;
- Self-perception theory and;
- Functional theory.

Other theories include:

- Dissonance theory;
- Theory of individual differences;
- Persuasive theory;
- Conformity theory;
- Balance theory;
- Attribution theory;
- Personal space theory;
- Learning theory;
- Social perception theory and;
- Dual process theory.

 Stimulus-Response and Reinforcement Theories: Stimulus is a psychological term for an object, event, or person and the plural is stimuli. This is a kind of feature of classical conditioning. This is where we learn to respond only to a stimulus that is the same as the original conditional stimulus. Stimulus generalisation is our associated behavioural response to similar stimuli we come across in our environment. If an object, event, or person is similar to the original stimulus to which we were conditioned, we behave...
towards that similar stimulus in the same way fashion. According to the behaviourist approach we learn, or become conditioned, to behave the way we do. We form learnt behaviours as a result of associating a particular stimulus with a particular response. If we want a bus to stop, on seeing it, we stick out our hand. Very often reinforcement helps in the formation of stimulus-response units of behaviour. Stimulus-response and reinforcement theories make the assumptions that attitudes are changed only if the incentives for making a new response are greater than the incentives for maintaining the old response. The intensity with which some attitudes are held may be increased through the use of verbal-conditioning procedures.

Social Judgement Theory: Social influence refers to the way people affect the thoughts, feelings, and behaviours of others. Two examples of a social judgement theory of attitude change are Sherif and Hovland’s, (2002), assimilation contrast theory and Helson’s (2001) adaptation level theory. Assimilation-contrast theory conceptualizes attitudes along a reference scale. Within this scale, there is an area called the latitude of acceptance of which the boundaries are the limits of the attitude statements with which the respondent would agree. Attempts to shift attitudes must pose new positions that are within this latitude of acceptance.

According to assimilation-contrast theory, the stronger the person’s degree of ego-involvelement with an attitudinal object the narrower his latitude of acceptance and the broader his latitude of rejection. Little solid evidence exists for the acceptance of an assimilation-contrast theory of attitude change as of the time of publication of this book.

Consistency Theories of Attitude Change: Psychology has a family of consistency theories that helps explain attitude organisation and change and these include, Helder’s (2001) balance theory, Osgood and Tanenbaum’s (2000) congruity theory, Festingers (2000), cognitive dissonance theory and Brehm’s (2001) reactance theory. Common to these theories is the assumption that people change their attitude in the direction of removing inconsistencies between conflicting attitudes and behaviours. Of all the consistency approaches to attitude change and attitude formation, Cognitive-dissonance theory has stimulated the most research and controversy. Cognitive-dissonance is said to exist when a person possess two cognitions, one of which is contradictory to the other.

Our attitudes are organised and changed as a result of the principle of cognitive consistency. This principle suggests that we strive to achieve consistency between our beliefs, values and attitudes; attitudes and behaviour; and different attitudes. Organising attitudes, beliefs and behaviour into
internally consistent structures assume almost Vulcan-like human rationality, which is behaviour consistent to both us and other people. Cognitive consistency is such a powerful force in our social lives that its absence, or opposite (inconsistency), is experienced by us as psychologically uncomfortable. We are motivated to reduce or avoid cognitive inconsistency. How we achieve consistency between our thoughts, feelings and behaviours may differ quite markedly from what we would understand as rational behaviour.

**Cognitive Dissonance**

The theory of cognitive dissonance is proposed by Leon Festinger. Festinger states that when we have two contradictory beliefs, we feel anxiety. For example, we know how to fix our car but we bring it to a mechanic to fix— we will attempt to reduce our anxiety, called dissonance reduction, by coming up with a reason for our actions. We might justify the mechanic working on our car because we don’t have the proper tools or we don’t have the time to fix it. Cognitive dissonance also occurs when our thoughts and behaviour are inconsistency for example, a person who knows that smoking cigarette is bad for his health but smokes anyway; he may rationalize this by saying “he is not smoking that much” or evidence is contradictory on the effects of smoking on health”. Cognitive dissonance also operates on the idea that “you get what you pay for”. The thinking that something that costs more must be of higher quality explains this. The idea behind is the more you must give up for something (money) the more valuable it must be (higher quality).

Cognitive dissonance is a feeling of unpleasant arousal caused by noticing an inconsistency among one's cognition. These contradictory cognitions may be attitudes, beliefs, or ones awareness of his or her behaviour. The theory of cognitive dissonance proposes that people have a motivational drive to reduce dissonance by changing their attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours, or by justifying or rationalizing their attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours. Cognitive dissonance theory is one of the most influential and extensively studied theories in social psychology.

Cognitive dissonance theory was originally developed as a theory of attitude change, but it is now considered to be a theory of the self-concept by many social psychologists. Dissonance is strongest when a discrepancy has been noticed between one's self-concept and one's behaviour, e.g. doing something that makes one ashamed. This can result in self-justification as the
individual attempts to deal with the threat. Cognitive dissonance typically leads to a change in attitude, a change in behaviour, a self-affirmation, or a rationalization of the behaviour.

An example of cognitive dissonance is smoking. Smoking cigarettes increases the risk of cancer, which is threatening to the self-concept of the individual who smokes. Most of us believe ourselves to be intelligent and rational, and the idea of doing something foolish and self-destructive cause’s dissonance. To reduce this uncomfortable tension, smokers tend to make excuses for themselves, such as 'I'm going to die anyway, so it doesn't matter.'

**Balance Theory:** Balance theory is used to explain our attitudes and anxiety related to people we know. There are three possible states in balance theory:

- **Balance:** when someone we like holds the same attitude as we do.
- **Imbalance:** when someone we like holds a contradictory attitude to ours.
- **Non-balance:** when someone we don’t like holds a contradictory attitude to ours.

The research evidence for the validity of a consistency theory is itself inconsistent. While some people on some occasions change their attitude in order to achieve greater consistency, other people either do not notice their inconsistencies or manage to endure it.

**Self Perception Theory:** Self perception theory, offered a completely different explanation of attitude change. It proposes that people observe their behaviour and then change their attitudes as to be consistent with their behaviour. Bem (1997) links our actual behaviour to what we think about an attitude object. It is our behaviour that determines the attitude we hold. To use one of Bem's examples, 'since I eat brown bread then I must like brown bread.' Self-perception theory states that a person forms his or her attitudes through self-observation of their behaviour.

Self-concept is a term referring to the whole sum of beliefs that people have about themselves. According to Markus (1997), the self-concept is made up of cognitive molecules called self-schema; which is a belief that people have about themselves which guides the processing of self reliant information. Self-schemas are to an individual’s total self-concept. A good example to use is body weight self-schema; people who regard themselves as over or underweight, or for those whom body image is a conspicuous aspect of the self-concept, are considered schematics with respect to weight. For these
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people a range of otherwise mundane events – grocery shopping, new clothes, eating out, or going to the beach – can trigger thoughts about the self. In contrast, people who do not regard their weight as an important part of their lives are a-schematic on that attribute. It is rather clear that the self is a special object of our attention. from one object to another and process the information out of awareness. The ABC’s of the self are: affect, behaviour, and cognition. An affective (or emotional) question: How do people evaluate themselves, enhance their self image, and maintain a secure sense of identity? A behavioural question: How do people regulate their own actions and present themselves to others according to interpersonal demands? Affective forecasting is the process of prediction of how one would feel in response to future emotional events. Studies done by Timothy Wilson and Daniel Gilbert (2003), have shown that people overestimate the strength or reaction, to positive and negative life events, than they actually felt when the event did occur.

There are many theories on the perception of our own behaviour. Bem’s (1972) self perception theory claims that when internal cues are difficult to interpret, people gain self-insight by observing their own behaviour. Festinger’s (1954), social comparison theory is that people evaluate their own abilities and opinions by comparing themselves to others when they are uncertain of their own ability or opinions. There is also the facial feedback hypothesis; that changes in facial expression can lead to corresponding changes in emotion.

People develop their self-concepts by varied means, including introspection, feedback from others, self-perception, and social comparison. By comparison to relevant others, people gain information about themselves, and they make inferences that are relevant to self-esteem. Social comparisons can be either "upward" or "downward," that is, comparisons to people who are either higher in status or ability, or lower in status or ability. Downward comparisons are often made in order to elevate self-esteem.

Self-perception is a specialized form of attribution that involves making inferences about oneself after observing one’s own behaviour. Psychologists have found that too many extrinsic rewards (e.g. money) tend to reduce intrinsic motivation through the self-perception process, a phenomenon known as over-justification. People's attention is directed to the reward and they lose interest in the task when the reward is no longer offered. This is an important exception to reinforcement theory.

Self, the Humanistic term for who we really are as a person. The self is our inner personality, and can be likened to the soul, or Freud’s psyche. Self is
formed by our phenomenology, our acts of personal agency, and our existentialism. Knowing and analysing what forms self gives us good gestalt in a better understanding of ourselves as a personality. Our self is who you are as an individual. The good and the bad! The formation of self affects our self-image and self-esteem, and thus who we think we are. This need not be the case as in unlocking experiences that affect our self-image and self-esteem we can strive towards our ideal self, or who we really are, or want to be, in terms of our personality.

Self-esteem concerns how much an individual comes to regard, or value, him or herself as a person. Self-esteem is influenced by the reaction of others to us, and the comparisons made of us by other people (Argyle, 1983). Self-image is how we see ourselves as individuals, which is important to good psychological health. At a simple level this might see you perceive yourself as a good or a bad person, beautiful or ugly. Self-image and how it comes about has an effect on how we as individuals think, feel, and behave in relation to our world.

The summary of self concept theory has to do with how individual understand, perceive, value, evaluate themselves while interacting with other fellow human beings in a given environment or while reacting to an event.

**Functional Theory:** The basic proposition of the functional theory of attitude change is that people hold attitude that fit their needs. In order to change their attitude, we must determine what these needs are. Among the functions that attitude may serve are:

- The instrumental, adjustive or utilitarian function;
- The ego-defensive or externalization function;
- The knowledge or object appraisal function and;
- The value-expressing function.

**Theory of Individual Differences:** An area of study in psychology that looks at personality, atypical behaviour, and intelligence. Individual differences are thus those things we share, but differ around. Individual differences are thought influenced by our genetic inheritance. Or put another way, personality, abnormal behaviour, and intelligence are to some degree a consequence of our biology. The more switched on might realize that what these areas have in common is some kind of biological basis. Personality, or at least the building block to personality, temperament, is influenced by our genetic inheritance. As is intelligence and any biological predisposition we might inherit regards the development of an atypical behaviour.
**Attribution Theory:** Attribution theory examines how we attribute the source of our actions and these are in various forms:

- Disposition (or person) attribution i.e. attributing actions to personal factors.
- Situational attribution- attributing actions to external or environmental factors.
- Defensive attribution- is the tendency to attribute our success to our own efforts (dispositional) and our failures to external factors (situational).
- Fundamental attribution error- is the tendency of people to overemphasis personal causes for other people’s behaviour (dispositional) and under emphasis personal causes for their own behaviour (dispositional).
- Fundamental attribution error- is likely to occur in collectivist cultures than in individualist cultures.
- Stable attribution- conditions that are always present.
- Unstable attribution- conditions that are not stable and may be occasional or intermittently used.
- Situation stable- a class is considered hard.
- Person unstable- a classmate might have forgotten a good grade on an exam because they studied extra hard for it.

Other attribution factors include the following:

- False consensus effect- this is the tendency to overestimate the number of people who agree with you.
- Self serving bias- this is the tendency to take more credit for good results than bad results.
- Just world bias - this is the tendency to believe that good things happen to good people and bad things happen to bad people.

**Personal Space Theory:** Personal space is the imaginary area we keep around ourselves to be comfortable in varying social situations. There are four levels to personal space and they are as follows:

- Intimate distance – contact to 18 inches, the space we reserve for intimacy and loved ones.
- Personal distance – 18 inches to 4 feet, the space we have around us in most social settings at school (e.g. the space we have between one student and the other in a classroom set up).
Social distance - 4 to 7 feet, the space we have around us when we are out in public places.

Public distance – 7 feet and greater; the space between us and performers at public events (e.g. lectures and concert).

Research has indicated that there are both cultural and gender differences in the parameters of personal space.

*Learning Theory*: Learning theory says that attitudes can be formed and changed through the use of learning. Peoples such as classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and observational learning:

- **Classical conditioning**: The emotional component of attitudes can be formed through classical conditioning. For example, in a billboard and, a clothing company; pairs a sweater with an attractive model who elicits a pleasant emotional response. This can make people form a positive attitude about the sweater and the clothing company.
- **Operant conditioning**: If someone gets a positive response from others when she expresses an attitude, that attitude will be reinforced and will tend to get stronger. On the other hand, if she gets a negative response from others, that attitude tends to get weaker.
- **Observational learning**: Seeing others display a particular attitude and watching people be reinforced for expressing a particular attitude can make someone adopt those attitudes.

*Dual Process Theory*: Dual process theories of persuasion (such as the elaboration likelihood model) maintain that the persuasive process is mediated by two separate routes. Persuasion can be accomplished by either superficial aspects of the communication or the internal logic and evidence of the message. Whether someone is persuaded by a popular celebrity or factual arguments is largely determined by the ability and motivation of the audience.

*Conformity Theory*: is the most common and pervasive form of social influence. It is generally defined as the tendency to act or think like other members of a group. Group size, unanimity, cohesion, status, and prior commitment all help to determine the level of conformity in an individual. Conformity is usually viewed as a negative tendency in American culture, but a certain amount of conformity is not only necessary and normal, but probably essential for a community to function.

The two major motives in conformity are normative influence, the tendency to conform in order to gain social acceptance, and avoid social rejection or conflict, as in peer pressure; and informational influence, which is
based on the desire to obtain useful information through conformity, and thereby achieve a correct or appropriate result. Minority influence is the degree to which a smaller faction within the group influences the group during decision making. Their influence is primarily informational and depends on consistent adherence to a position, degree of defection from the majority, and the status and self-confidence of the minority members.

Reactance Theory: is a tendency to assert one by doing the opposite of what is expected. This phenomenon is also known as anti-conformity and it appears to be more common in men than in women.

**INTERPERSONAL ATTRACTION THEORY**

A major area in the study of people's relations to each other is interpersonal attraction. This refers to all of the forces that lead people to like each other, establish relationships, and in some cases, fall in love. Several general principles of attraction have been discovered by social psychologists. For example, physical proximity tends to increase attraction, whereas long distances make relationships difficult to form and maintain.

Even very small differences in distance—such as the case of a next door neighbour versus someone who lives down the block—can make a significant difference in friendship patterns. Familiarity, or "mere exposure," also increases attraction, influencing people even if the familiarity is not consciously noticed. One of the most important factors in interpersonal attraction is similarity: the more similar two people are in attitudes, background, and other traits, the more probable it is that they will like each other. Contrary to popular opinion, opposites do not usually attract.

Physical attractiveness is an important element of romantic relationships, particularly in the early stages characterized by high levels of passion. Later on, similarity and other compatibility factors become more important, and the type of love people experience shifts from passionate to companionate. Robert Sternberg has suggested that there are actually three components of love: intimacy, passion, and commitment.

When two people experience all three, they are said to be in a state of consummate love; this condition is relatively rare and difficult to maintain for a long period of time.

Social Exchange Theory: According to social exchange theory, relationships are based on rational choice and cost-benefit analysis. If one partner's costs begin to outweigh his or her benefits, that person may leave the
relationship, especially if there are good alternatives available. This theory is similar to the minimal principle proposed by mathematicians and economists. With time, long term relationships tend to become communal rather than simply based on exchange.

CONCLUSION

Each attitude change theory possesses its own assumption about human nature as regard behavioural change or modification. It could be concluded that environment, culture, beliefs, emotion, feelings, perception, values, knowledge, information and experience are consistent with attitudes of an individual.

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