
Volume 8

Issue 1 *Community Development and Other
Community Applications*

Article 5

January 1990

Six Models of Community Intervention: A Dialectical Synthesis of Social Theory and Social Action

Drew Hyman

Follow this and additional works at: <http://digitalcommons.wayne.edu/socprac>



Part of the [Sociology Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Hyman, Drew (1990) "Six Models of Community Intervention: A Dialectical Synthesis of Social Theory and Social Action," *Sociological Practice*: Vol. 8: Iss. 1, Article 5.

Available at: <http://digitalcommons.wayne.edu/socprac/vol8/iss1/5>

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Open Access Journals at DigitalCommons@WayneState. It has been accepted for inclusion in *Sociological Practice* by an authorized administrator of DigitalCommons@WayneState.

Six Models of Community Intervention: A Dialectical Synthesis of Social Theory and Social Action

Drew Hyman

ABSTRACT

Two dominant theoretical perspectives—systems theory and conflict theory—underlie major approaches to community intervention. This paper presents a conceptual linkage between models of intervention for planning and organizing as developed by Rothman and elaborated by Stockdale and major sociological theories of society. Two additional models are presented to address issues of management and administration. The six models are integrated into a typology which integrates the conflict and consensus theories of society in relation to the six strategies. The result is a synthesis of six models for community engagement which is rooted in dialectically opposed theories of society, and which addresses the major functions of any system or organization—planning, organizing/implementation, and management.

The inquiry into community intervention models to date has been practice-driven, with theory following the emergence of models in the field rather than vice versa.¹ This paper suggests that two dominant theoretical perspectives in Western

This article is a revision of one published in *Sociology and Social Welfare* 13/2 (June 1986):265-87. It is printed here with permission of *Sociology and Social Welfare*.

¹Prior to Jack Rothman's (1968) classic article, the literature and practice of community intervention were directed primarily to community-based grassroots which emphasized educational methods and self-help projects. Rothman notes that in the 1960s a "social action" approach emerged in the civil rights and welfare movements associated with Saul Alinsky and the Industrial Areas Foundation, as well as the anti-Vietnam War movement, and aspects of community action programs associated with the War on Poverty. Similarly, Perloff (1961) and Morris and Binstock

thought underlie major approaches to community intervention. Conflict theory and consensus (or systems) theory each provide a basis for specific theories of action. The paper has four objectives: (1) to create a typology which integrates models of community intervention in relation to the conflict and consensus theories of society; (2) to examine the conceptual linkage between four Rothman/Stockdale models of intervention and major sociological theories of society; (3) to present two additional models of intervention which provide a basis for including management and administration in the framework developed herein; and (4) to explore the interrelationships of the models of management and administration to both the theories of society and the other models of intervention. The resulting synthesis provides six models for change action which are rooted in dialectically opposed theories of society, and which address major functions of any organization or system: planning, organizing/implementation, and management.

Consensus and Conflict: The Theoretical Dialectic

The consensus and conflict perspectives have deep roots in human thought. In Western philosophy and science, fundamental differences between Plato and Aristotle, Rousseau and Hobbes, and Weber and Marx, can be seen to revolve around the question of whether human societies are rooted in rationality, consensus and shared values, or whether they are characterized by subjectivity, conflict and constraint. Dahrendorf (1959) identifies the dialectical characteristics of the two competing macro-views of society. According to *consensus theory*, social order results from a dominant set of shared values. People create communities to promote common interests and to escape from the "nasty, brutish and short" life of the pre-civilized. This perspective, in turn, leads to an *integration theory of society* which suggests that society is a relatively stable equilibrium based on a consensus of shared values and common patterns of interaction. *Systems theory* tends to be associated with this perspective. The competing approach, *conflict theory*, asserts that the social order is based on domination and constraint. Communities result from a survival of the fittest contest wherein the prize to the winners is the right to impose their will on others. This perspective, in turn, leads to a *coercion theory of society* wherein contending forces continually vie for domination and control: conflict and change are ubiquitous. The theorist points out that these theories represent "two faces of society" and should be viewed as such. Each side focuses on certain

(1966) articulate "social planning" as an approach to community intervention. Hence Rothman's three models—locality development, social action, and social planning. In the mid-1970s, Stockdale (1976) suggested that the social planning model should be bifurcated to reflect differences between more centralized and community-wide planning and community or interest-based "advocacy planning."

aspects of the totality to explain certain phenomena. Consensus or systems theory asks why societies hang together, and conflict theory asks why they change. Reality reflects each face from the perspective of the viewer. By being aware of both of these perspectives, we can dialectically approach the questions of change and stability with the understanding that each is but a face of the other.

The following sections explore six strategies, or models, for directing and changing community systems and human services programs. The first four models of change, which address planning and organizing, have been articulated previously by Rothman (1968, 1974) and Stockdale (1976) and are simply summarized here. The last two models are developed herein to extend the previous works to management and administration.

Two Models of Organizing and Implementation

“Locality development” and “social action” are the two models of organizing identified by the Rothman/Stockdale typology. *Locality development* conforms most closely to the consensus theory of society and is thus associated with traditional community development. It emphasizes self-help and concerted local action by the overall community. Implementation and change are seen as a matter of communication among leaders and citizens (and planners) to gain an understanding of what needs to be done. Thus, the practitioner serves the *process* of facilitation of communications and interactions among all concerned. As stated by Rothman (1974:34):

The basic change strategy involves getting a broad cross section of people involved in studying and taking action of their problems. Consensus strategies are employed, involving small-group discussion and fostering communication, among community subparts (class, ethnic, and so forth). The practitioner . . . is especially skilled in manipulating and guiding small-group interaction.

Locality development, therefore, assumes that the community is comprised of people who share values and orientations, and who subscribe to democratic processes of decision-making and control. President Lyndon Johnson’s favorite phrase, “Come let us reason together,” typifies this model. The contrasting model, *social action*, also emphasizes grassroots strategies, but it views the community as a hierarchy of privilege and power. The task, therefore, is to confront the community with a show of influence or force to convince the authorities that change is in order. Rothman puts it this way (1974:35):

The basic change strategy involves crystallizing issues and organizing indigenous populations to take action on their own behalf against enemy targets. Change tactics often include conflict techniques, such as confrontation and direct action—rallies, marches, boycotts (as well as “hard-nosed” bargaining). The practitioner . . . is skilled in the manipulation of mass organizations and political processes.

The overall goal of *locality development* is to enhance the relationship between the community power structure and its citizens. This approach assumes that all parties have, or can come to have, common interests, and any differences are reconcilable through rational discussion and interaction. The overall goal of *social action*, on the other hand, is to redress an imbalance of power between dominant and minority groups, and to gain allocations of resources for a segment or disadvantaged group. This model presumes that the power structure will not give up its benefits and privileges willingly. The social action model is appropriate where a community segment or disadvantaged group is involved. The fundamental difference between the models is clear: consensus versus conflict. These two faces of grassroots action present most clearly the implications of the two theories of society for community practice.

Two Models of Planning

The Rothman/Stockdale view of social planning also specifies two models which can be associated with the conflict and consensus theories of society. The two models of planning which reflect these approaches as identified by Stockdale (1976) are “traditional planning” and “advocacy planning.” *Traditional planning* conforms most closely to the idealist rational-comprehensive model, and thus is associated with the consensus theory of society. It emphasizes broad goals related to the overall community and seeks to address substantive social problems—health, housing, justice, nutrition, etc. A community-wide plan for recreation or health based on an overall assessment of needs and problems would be typical. Traditional planning is based on the premise that our highly complex and technological postindustrial society requires technical experts to design and to anticipate the future. The contrasting model, *advocacy planning*, also utilizes technical skills and leadership, but tends to focus on subgroup or subcommunity problems—neighborhoods, disadvantaged groups, and unserved or underserved segments of the community. Problem-solving is directed at reallocation of resources toward a particular segment or problem area. Fact-gathering and analysis are fundamental and are employed from an activist-advocate perspective. Advocacy planning would work for improved recreation, health care, nutrition, or community control of police, for example, in a particular neighborhood, or for a subgroup of the broader community.

Traditional planning is most closely associated with the consensus theory of society, and thus relies on the existing power structure for support and implementation. Advocacy planning, in that it addresses community subgroups or segments, is in a conflict position and requires campaign or contest tactics. The conflict theory of society provides the more appropriate perspective for the advocacy planner. It follows that traditional planners are typically part of the overall community power structure. They are part of the machinery of the authorities. Therefore, they are in a *subordinant* relationship with the power structure. Advocacy planners, conversely, are typically part of an organization or subsystem which sees the overall power structure as a target of action. They are in a position which requires *engagement* of the authorities as a target of action. Traditional planners are specialists of the power structure, and advocacy planners are specialists directed to change of the power structure. The former perspective tends to assume a variable sum game (expanding resource base), while the latter would tend to view the political process as a zero sum game where the benefits for one party are usually at the expense of another. The traditional planner assumes that if the overall system is taken care of in a carefully planned, rational manner, then the parts will be taken care of as well. The advocacy planner presumes that competing interests will contend in the arena of action, and that the disadvantaged can influence the distribution of existing (scarce) resources if they are afforded the technical skills of planning (Stockdale, 1976; Rothman, 1974).

A realistic plan will most likely have elements of both. Plans which have been incubated in a city planning department for a year or more, for example, may be completely unfamiliar to both community decision-makers and citizens. Hence, there is often a need for the traditional planner to convince others of the feasibility and viability of the proposed course of action. Likewise, advocacy planners may find it useful to present technical data on how the overall community will benefit from their proposal.

Two Models of Management

Planning and organizing are key aspects of any organization or program. They deal primarily with the identification of possible directions for an organization on the one hand, and bringing people and groups together at the grassroots level for action on the other. The 1970s, however, saw the emergence of social program administration and management as a major field for social practice. It is appropriate, therefore, to develop models of management to complement the Rothman/Stockdale typology.

Management pervades systems and organizations. It provides the direction and control without which systems would fall apart. According to Simon (1948), management is the art of "getting things done," and "the manner in which the decisions and behavior of [production level] employees are influenced within and

by the organizations." Gross (1964) summarizes the field as "getting things done through (or by) others." Management thus involves the direction and control of how the units of a system are organized and how they interact. Management entails both the external and the internal relationships which are vital to the operation of a system.

Recent studies of the management of both community organizations and large corporations which experienced innovation and growth in a time of recession have led to examination of what successful managers actually do, compared to what the rationalist approach would say they ought to do (Mayer and Blake, 1981; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Hyman, 1983; and Agor, 1984). This emerging debate in the field provides an opportunity to develop ideal type models in this area to parallel those of the Rothman/Stockdale typology. One model is called the *bureaucratic management*, or the institutional management model, to reflect the consensus theory of society; the other is labeled *innovative management*, or the charismatic management model, to reflect the conflict theory of society. ("Intuitive management" is another term which is related to the ideas in our second model.) *Bureaucratic management* tends to occur in well-established organizations which are accepted in the community. Emphasis is on dealing with *routine operations and control of ongoing activities*. Budgeting, personnel administration, supply logistics, and supervision of line personnel predominate. Professionalism, efficiency, and quantity are valued. Change is seen as being incremental, e.g., 5 percent a year. Operations are based on written regulations and procedures. Administrative and management personnel have well-established roles. The line-staff distinction is clear. Established relationships with environmental organizations make for relatively "placid" interorganizational interactions.

Innovative management, or charismatic management, is most appropriate for new or changing organizations, and for situations where significant challenges from the environment occur. The organization is essentially in a conflict situation with environmental organizations and must defend, establish, or reestablish its place in the organizational domain. This scenario was most evident in the late 1970s and 1980s when the energy crisis and recession challenged businesses, and cuts in federal spending challenged public and nonprofit agencies. A survival—of—the—creative—organization situation existed. In such situations, emphasis is on reassessment of goals and the control and direction of program or system design. Tactics require acquisitive operations in order to obtain resources to develop a constituency, and *to create or reestablish a working relationship in the organizational environment*. Change of the organization and its place in the community is the immediate goal of this model. A more collegial, "flat" organizational structure is appropriate, and administrative, management and other roles are often blurred and/or staff is multifunctional. More interpersonal, interactive, and face-to-face relationships exist. Emphasis is on

PRACTICE VARIABLES	BUREAUCRATIC MANAGEMENT	MANAGEMENT OF INNOVATION
GOAL CATEGORIES OF COMMUNITY ACTION	Routine procedures and operations; status quo. Maintenance of existing organizational resources (task goals).	Establishment of a place in the organizational domain, or adaptation to new environmental conditions (task and process goals).
ASSUMPTIONS CONCERNING COMMUNITY STRUCTURE AND PROBLEM CONDITIONS	Organization well established in interorganizational domain. Need to identify inefficient sub-units and problems within the organization.	Organization is not well established, or existence is threatened by other organizations. Need to gain a niche in the interorganizational domain.
BASIC CHANGE STRATEGY	Change internal operations; systems improvement; rational-technical analysis.	Change the environment; systems design; interactive adjustment to environmental networking.
CHARACTERISTIC CHANGE TACTICS AND TECHNIQUES	Authoritative direction; bureaucratic control.	Constituency Building; campaign or contest.
SALIENT PRACTITIONER ROLES	Budgeting, systems analysis, personnel management, information systems, accounting.	Negotiation (politician), grant and contract management, deemphasis on routine and technical aspects of administration.
MEDIUM OF CHANGE	Manipulation of formal organizations; rational systems analysis concerning sub-units.	Manipulation of community processes and formal organizations; interactional processes concerning environmental factors.
ORIENTATION TOWARD POWER STRUCTURE	Instrumental—a part of power structure. Power structure as employer.	Contention—power structure as target for acquisition of resources and power.
BOUNDARY OF CONSTITUENCY OR CLIENT SYSTEM	Total community or community sub-system, or organization as subject.	New or threatened organization, sub-system or segment as constituency or collaborator.
ASSUMPTIONS REGARDING INTERESTS OF COMMUNITY SUB-PARTS	Dominant interests are supportive. Consensus or competition perspective. Management and/or application of authority is required.	Conflicting interests challenge the organization from within. Need to establish space in the interorganizational domain. Conflict perspective—seeking authority, resources and power.

Figure 1
Two Models of Management

service to a target group, quality of the product, and perceived effectiveness. Establishment of relationships in the interorganizational domain and securing resources are major challenges. The next sections identify characteristics of the two models using categories similar to the “practice variables” identified by Rothman (1974). (See also Figure 1.)

Bureaucratic management conforms most closely to what Van Gigch (1974) calls the “system improvement” approach; and innovative management uses a “systems design” perspective. The former tends to be *introspective*, looking inward for problems in subunits or processes. The emphasis of bureaucratic management is on task goals and maintaining the status quo within the broader community system. Organizations characterized by this approach have difficulty in responding to rapid change. Innovative management tends to be *extrospective*, concerned with the role of the organization in the broader community. As such, it is open to questioning its goals and existing operations and to engaging in conflict with community organizations. This strategy is most appropriate for organizations that are faced with major challenges from the environment, and for those that desire to create change—both task and process goals are essential.

Assumptions Concerning Community Structure and Problem Conditions

Bureaucratic management is most appropriate for organizations that are well-established in the organizational domain. The challenge is to make the organization run more efficiently. The problem focus is on identifying inefficient subunits and problems within the organization. Innovative management assumes either that the organization is not well established in the interorganizational network, or that its existence is threatened by other organizations. The primary problem focus is externally directed to resource acquisition and to either establishing and protecting a place in the organizational domain or adapting to new, challenging environmental conditions.

Basic Change Strategy

The bureaucratic model emphasizes rational-technical analysis and tends to favor quantitative techniques of systems analysis, cost/benefit evaluations, performance appraisals, management by objectives, and other techniques of internal accountability and organizational fine-tuning. The innovative management model emphasizes change in environmental conditions, including both acquisitive activities and establishing legitimacy with other organizations, as well as conflict with external organizations to achieve its goals.

Change Tactics and Techniques

The bureaucratic model characteristically emphasizes internal control and efficiency. The innovative approach focuses on relationships with the environment, emphasizing constituency-building and other campaign or contest tactics as appropriate.

Salient Practitioner Roles

The bureaucratic model emphasizes rational-technical techniques of budgeting, systems analysis, personnel management, information systems and accounting. The innovating approach places major emphasis on creative program design and development (vision), negotiation with community and political elites, and networking (positioning leadership). One would seek staff skilled in analysis for bureaucratic management, and for integrative and synthesis perspectives for innovative management.

Medium of Change

The bureaucratic model relies primarily on manipulation of formal organizations. Innovative management relies on manipulation of community processes and formal organizations. The former uses rational analytic processes. The latter depends on interactional processes concerning environmental actors.

Orientation to the Power Structure

The orientation of the bureaucratic management model to the *power structure* is *instrumental*—the organization is part of the existing power structure and/or is well established in the interorganizational network. This consensus theory situation contrasts sharply with that of innovative management where a new or threatened organization is in *contention* with the status quo for *authority, resources, market share, and/or power*. In the former, we would expect dominant interests to be relatively supportive. In the latter the organization confronts its competitors and opposition in creative ways.

Boundary of Constituency or Client System

The bureaucratic model views its organization as an integral part of the total community. It serves a continuing role in the overall community and is a part of the existing systemic equilibrium. The innovative model views its organization as a subsystem in contention with the broader community or elements therein.

Assumptions Regarding Interests of Community Sub-Parts

For the bureaucratic model, dominant community interests are supportive, or at least accepting. Bureaucratic management can focus inwardly to improve its efficiency in producing products or services, hence the relationship of this model to the consensus theory of society. In the innovative management model, attention must be given to survival and change, which is essentially a conflict situation vis-a-vis the powers that be.

The two management models complete our repertoire of ideal type models of community engagement. *The six models, or approaches to change, provide a basis for a conceptual understanding of the major aspects of policy making and action.* The development and selection of optional courses of action and strategies provide a proactive basis on which to initiate present actions and to anticipate future decisions. Transformation of a plan from idea to action requires careful consideration of the models of engagement of both citizens and leaders in a community. Finally, the management of the process requires skill and wisdom in getting things done by, or through, others.

Situational Relativity: Mixing Strategies in the Real World

Strategies are not executed in isolation, and only rarely is the pure form appropriate in real-world situations. Rather, strategies should be “mixed and phased” as appropriate for specific scenarios. Figure 2 presents a refinement of Stockdale’s framework for analyzing change strategies at the community level (Stockdale, 1976). Interrelationships among strategies can be made on both horizontal (left-right) and vertical (up-down) dimensions. This chart allows us to compare relative similarities and differences among the strategies on the several practice variables.

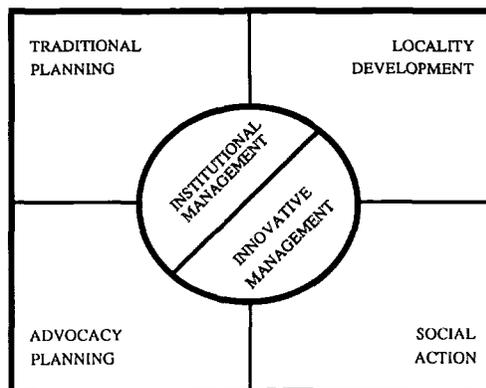


Figure 2 Strategies of Change

On the *horizontal* dimension, the more rational-technical and task-oriented strategies appear on the left. Institutional (bureaucratic) management and the two planning strategies tend to be technical and office-bound, relying more on analyses and reports than the other approaches. Locality development, social action and innovative management place more emphasis on community processes and interactions—they can be said to be more interpersonal and community-bound. On the *vertical* dimension, the strategies depicted at the top of the chart tend to have a consensus-based approach to change and the strategies on the bottom are oriented to the conflict perspective. Thus, social action, advocacy planning, and innovative management generally address a community segment or subpopulation, and are most likely to use conflict and contest strategies. Locality development, traditional planning, and bureaucratic management tend to view the overall community as their constituency and, in turn, tend to rely on collaborative strategies.

Now consider the strategies in relation to the policymaking process—the political system. The strategies on the *top* of the chart tend to be most appropriate for use by those in power—the authorities—and those who collaborate with the power structure. The strategies on the *bottom* are more appropriate for those not in power but who are seeking change by the authorities, and those who are seeking a role in the power structure. The goal of these latter strategies is to make *effective demands* on the authorities. For example, a city planner may devise a nutrition program for the city health department. A neighborhood planner, however, in working for a specific subarea may prepare a nutrition plan which is directed at convincing the city to alter its plan to provide more or different services to the neighborhood. The former involves a process *within* the power structure to decide what actions to take in the overall community. The latter involves a process *external* to the power structure directed at creating an *input* to the deliberations of the city authorities. The example illustrates the differences in focus of the two models, and it raises the issue of boundaries and system levels. Note that if the city planner is preparing a plan to be presented to a higher authority—state or federal levels, for example—there is a completely different role: the perspective changes. “Where you stand depends upon where you sit.”

The chart also enables us to consider compatibilities between strategies and the possibility of shifting from one to another. *Adjacent strategies*, those that share a common boundary on the chart, can be seen as a continuum of possible actions. In action situations, shifting from one strategy to another may be appropriate (Stockdale, 1976). An advocacy planner, for example, if successful in convincing the authorities that a plan (for a segment) is good for the entire community, may find the plan transformed into a community-wide traditional planning document. Similarly, if a group using locality development as a strategy encounters resistance from the authorities, it may find itself in a social action situation. Understanding these interactions is important for the community practitioner, for it establishes a broad range of strategies in his or her repertoire (instead of just six). Most important,

this discussion emphasizes the interactive nature of community action and change. If strategies are not modified to reflect changing community and environmental conditions, they will rapidly become obsolete and fail.

Note, too, that the two management strategies are placed on a diagonal to the other four. This arrangement recognizes the fact that bureaucratic, or institutional, management is most generally associated with the more technical and/or total community strategies: locality development, traditional planning and advocacy planning. Recall also that innovative management is appropriate for new organizations, for those dealing with a segment, and for existing organizations which are facing an external challenge. Thus, a new organization using a locality development strategy would be likely to choose innovative management, and we would expect a shift toward bureaucratic management as the organization becomes established in the community. Similarly, a traditional planning organization using bureaucratic management, when faced with funding cuts from external authorities, could be expected to shift to an advocacy planning mode and to utilize innovative management strategies. Note, too, that social action does not share a boundary with institutional management and traditional planning, and that traditional planning does not share a boundary with innovative management and social action. These pairings tend to be unlikely, as explained below.

Another principle illustrated in Figure 2 is that *nonadjacent strategies*, those on a diagonal across from each other, tend to be *incompatible*. The most conflict-oriented strategy, social action, would tend to be incompatible with the most consensus-oriented strategies—traditional planning and bureaucratic management. While variations across all dimensions of the six models should be available as options for every action situation, it should be recognized that successful mixing and phasing of the nonadjacent approaches is less likely. Likewise, locality development, which uses group, consensus-oriented approaches to the overall community, and advocacy planning, which emphasizes rational-technical conflict approaches for a community segment, would tend to be incompatible. If environmental conditions or organizational goals change, however, and an organization using a locality development approach should find itself in a social action relationship with the authorities, then advocacy planning enters as a more likely complementary strategy.

A Hierarchical View of The Six Strategies

The six models of action have been presented as ideal types in order to categorize, analyze, and explain their characteristics. In practice, community organizations and programs use approximations or mixtures of the pure types. Furthermore, any one organization or program has a need to address all three functions: planning, organizing/implementation, and management.

Figure 3 depicts the strategies in a hierarchical manner which is suggestive of levels within organizations and the policymaking system: community, regime and authorities. *Community* is where needs and problems occur and where the outputs and impacts of policies and programs are felt. Interests are articulated and aggregated at this level, and this is where programs must be implemented. Thus, as indicated in the chart, the organizing and implementation strategies would be most dominant here. At the intermediate level, where the staff planning and administrative roles tend to occur, we find the planning strategies. The development of data to support decisions and options for dealing with problems and needs, for evaluating impact, and for designing new approaches tend to occur at this level. Finally, the authorities are responsible for the overall direction and control of the organization, program, or system.

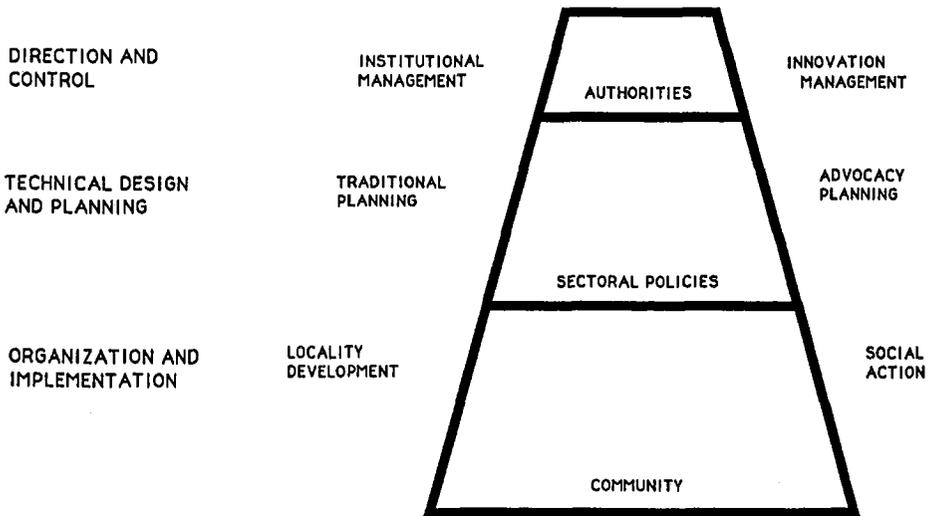


FIGURE 3 STRATEGIES AND LEVELS OF CHANGE

Consider these levels in light of the principle that our world can be conceived as system within system within system. The pyramid can be seen to apply at all levels of a community system: within a specific program, the relationship of a program to the environment, and in the overall community. A neighborhood mental health clinic, for example, might well have grassroots strategies involving consultation and education for local self-help. It would nevertheless need to have planning and management functions performed in the organization. Direct line staff at the street level would tend to be at a lower organizational level than staff planners and program managers. The entire organization, however, would be at a "lower" level in the vertical hierarchy of the overall community than a city-level mental health planning agency. The latter, in turn, would be subordinate to the city manager and council. Constant attention to the boundaries of inquiry and the focal system is necessary to avoid misdirection and misunderstanding. A principle of "*situational relativity*" could be said to apply to this phenomenon: the type of strategy which is most important changes according to whether there is a conflict or consensus relationship with the community-organizational hierarchy.

Note, too, that the strategies are arranged to suggest a continuum at each level. Grassroots *organizing and implementation* strategies range from locality development to pure social action. *Planning* strategies vary from idealized traditional planning to advocacy planning. *Management* strategies span a continuum from an ideal-type bureaucratic management to innovative management. Any organization has a full range of strategies on which to draw in order to pursue its goals and to respond to changing environmental conditions. Consider the situation of a neighborhood group which has the support of some but not all of the authorities for a community-wide transportation program for the aged. The group could be considered to be in a situation calling for a locality development strategy based on the community-wide character of the issue. On the other hand, there are two segmental characteristics to the constituency (a neighborhood and an elderly quasi-group) which would suggest a social action approach. The organization would be wise to use different tactics in working with neighborhood citizens and proponents of the aged throughout the community than with the opposing authorities and their supporters. The choice of planning and management strategies would be crucial as well. Expenditure of considerable resources for technical planning documents and analytical approaches to management would most likely not be well received by neighborhood residents and the aged who would rather see more action and less bureaucratic obfuscation. City authorities, however, would expect professional presentations and carefully completed documentation. Finding the correct balance among the six strategies is a task for which successful leaders are recognized.

A comparable "mixed strategy" situation would exist in a scenario in which traditional planners in a justice agency find opposition in management circles or

among community residents. It would be appropriate to consider some advocacy planning practices in order to work with community groups and to convince the authorities of the validity of the plans. At the highest level, an established organization using a bureaucratic management model might be confronted with opposition in the community or budget cuts from external funding sources; the need to revise its strategy to use some innovative management, and perhaps a bit of advocacy planning is apparent. Mayer and Blake's (1981) study of neighborhood development organizations found that managers who focused inwardly and favored the more technical processes were not as effective in establishing and managing neighborhood organizations where there was intense interorganizational competition for resources. Rather, those managers who employed interpersonal skills and more collegial staff relations, as with the innovative management model, tended to be more successful.

Finally, note that the two sides of the pyramid conform generally to the primary theories of society. The strategies on the left side tend to be consonant with the *consensus theory* and the strategies on the right side conform to the principles of the *conflict theory*.

This brings us full circle. We have explored approaches which allow the interrelation of the fundamental paradigms of Western philosophy and social theory to models of action for planning, organizing/implementation, and management. These concepts, processes and models occur in community systems; they are essential to the formulation and implementation of policies to establish, direct, and regulate community systems and human services. Continued development of *analytical* knowledge of the application of the models in community settings will provide a basis for *synthesis* of more complete theories and strategies of community and change.

References

- Agor, Weston H.
1984 *Intuitive Management: Integrating Left and Right Brain Skills*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Carroll, James D., A. Lee Fritschler and Bruce L. R. Smith
1985 Suupply-side management in the Reagan administration. *Public Administration Review* (November/December): 805-14.
- Dahrendorf, Ralf
1959 *Class and Class Conflict in Industrial Society*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press.
- Gross, Bertram M.
1964 *Organizations and Their Managing*. New York: The Free Press.
- Hyman, Drew
1983 A preventive approach to bureaucracy: The dialectical organization as a model for citizen's advocacy and ombudsmen. *Journal of Voluntary Action Research* 12 (October-December):65-80.

- 1986 On the dialectics of social theory and action: A synthesis of six models of community engagement. *Sociology and Social Welfare* 13/2 (June):265-287.
- Mayer, Neil S. and Jennifer L. Blake
1981 *Keys to the Growth of Neighborhood Development Organizations*. Washington, D.C.: Urban Institute press.
- Peters, Thomas J. and Robert H. Waterman
1982 *In Search of Excellence*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Ross, Murray G.
1951 *Community Organization Theory and Practice*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Rothman, Jack
1974 Three models of community organization practice. Pp. 20-36 in Fred Cox, John L. Erlich, Jack Rothman and John E. Tropman, eds., *Strategies of Community Organization*. Itasca, Illinois: F.E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., original article 1968.
- Simon, Herbert A.
1948 *Administrative Behavior*. New York: The MacMillan Co.
- Stockdale, Jerry D.
1976 Community organization practice: An elaboration of Rothman's typology. *Sociology and Social Welfare* 3 (May): 541-51.
- Van Gigch, John
1974 *Applied General Systems Theory*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Williams, Walter
1980 *The Implementation Perspective*. Los Angeles: The University of California Press.