
University Managers or Academic Leaders: Rectors of Prestigious Universities

 **Antoni Kolek:** Kozminski University, Warsaw, Poland.
E-mail: koleka@kozminski.edu.pl

ABSTRACT: *The article analyzes the rector's evolving role in the modern university. Traditionally perceived as a manager responsible for the efficiency of the university, today's rector is also expected to be an inspirational leader, capable of introducing changes and uniting the academic community. Based on a review of literature and analysis of cases of the best universities in the world, the article examines the key competencies and characteristics that allow rectors to run their institutions. The biographical approach allows for a deeper understanding of the factors influencing the successes and failures of individual rectors. Based on the analyses conducted, the article suggests practical tips for rectors and university personnel responsible for the recruitment and development of management staff.*

Key words: *Challenges of the modern university, Competencies, Leader, Leadership, Management, Manager, Rector, University.*

1. Introduction

A modern university is a complex organization that faces many challenges. Globalization, technological progress and growing social expectations constantly force it to change and adapt to new conditions. In this dynamic environment, a key role is played by the rector – the person responsible for the strategic management of the university.

The rector's role has traditionally been perceived through the prism of management. The rector was expected to ensure the efficiency of the university's operations, manage its human and financial resources, and take responsibility for the achievement of strategic goals. However, in recent years, the leadership aspects of this function have also been emphasized. The rector must be not only a manager, but also an inspirational leader who can unite the academic community around a shared vision and mission.

The literature in management science has identified the significant differences between a manager and a leader. A manager ensures stability and order; in contrast, a leader introduces changes and drives development. Ideally, an effective leader should have managerial skills, and an effective manager should possess leadership qualities.

In this article, we will answer the question of whether a rector should be a manager or a leader. By analyzing the roles and responsibilities of the rectors of the best universities, we will identify the key competencies and characteristics that allow them to run their universities. We will use a biographical approach, using examples of rectors to understand the factors behind their successes and failures.

The aim of the article is to describe the role of the rector, and to answer two questions: What challenges do rectors face? What competencies are necessary make them effective?

The research hypothesis is that effective rectors combine the characteristics of both a manager and a leader. This combination of managerial and leadership skills allows them to succeed in advancing the development of the university. The article presents the results of research that will allow the formulation of



practical guidelines for rectors, and university personnel responsible for the recruitment and development of management staff.

2. Theoretical Aspects of Leadership and Management

In everyday conversation, using the terms “leadership” and “management” interchangeably can cause ambiguity and misunderstandings in defining expectations of people in managerial positions. A review of the literature on leadership and management shows that the two terms are often equated (Edwards, Schedlitzki, Turnbull, & Gill, 2015). Some practitioners and social scientists make no distinction at all between leaders and managers. However, the dominant trend in the discourse is one in which researchers distinguish between the concepts of leadership and management as a manager. These researchers strive to clearly understand the differences and similarities between managers and leaders (Day, 2001; Edwards et al., 2015). Moreover, there are premises regarding tasks, roles, competencies, characteristics that allow treating these two terms as separate (Bertocci, 2009; House, 1995; Kotter, 2001).

Bush, Bell and Middlewood (2010) note that the use of different terms to describe the role of a manager – as administrator or leader – reflects the profound changes that have taken place in the perception of the tasks that managers are expected to undertake.

Zaleznik provided extremely valuable insight into the nature of leadership and management. His theory helps to understand why some people are effective leaders and others are excellent managers. Leaders are change-oriented and search for innovation. They understand people's values and ambitions, and know how to persuade and motivate them. Managers, for their part, focus on administrative tasks, which are manifested in maintaining stability in the performance of duties, exercising power and achieving designated goals. Zaleznik clearly states that leaders and managers are two different kinds of people. Of course, this does not mean that these roles are mutually exclusive, because one can be both a leader and a manager, and the effectiveness of an organization often depends on the skillful combination of the two (Zaleznik, 1977).

More importance than ever is being attached to leadership and management as key factors for the organizational development and operational effectiveness. At the same time, we can observe a tendency to place the management and leadership at odds, which leads to needless discussions about which is more important. Both are necessary for a college or university to operate smoothly. Leadership offers vision, inspiration and motivation; management brings structure, organization and efficient use of resources. In order to avoid an artificial conflict between leadership and management, a deeper understanding of these two and their relationship is necessary.

Drawing a distinction between leadership and management traits has created a hierarchy. Traits associated with leadership, such as the ability to inspire and innovate, were seen as more valuable than management traits, which were often associated with bureaucracy and shortsightedness. This opposition contributed to the perpetuation of the belief that "managers do things well, and leaders do good things" (Bennis & Nanus, 2007). Maccoby states that while traditional management functions such as planning, budgeting, and control are necessary, they do not have to be the exclusive responsibility of a manager. Instead, individual team members can take responsibility for managerial tasks, which can increase their autonomy and team involvement (Maccoby, 2000). Therefore, the tasks customarily performed by the manager can be delegated to others. With leadership, which is customarily identified with the leader, it is difficult if not impossible to transfer responsibilities to other people.

Leadership is at the heart of strategic planning. Leaders, thanks to their in-depth knowledge of the organization and its environment, create a convincing vision of the future and then convey it in an emotional way not only inspires, but also mobilizes the team to reach their shared goal. Thanks to the leaders, that the vision becomes reality, and subordinates find meaning in their work.

Leadership is also manifested at the operational level. Gardner believed that leadership is a process of persuasion, through which the leader persuades the group to strive for the indicated goals. Therefore, at the organizational level, leadership means breaking through bureaucratic barriers, streamlining procedures or creating new patterns [Gardner, 1990].

Schein's work on organizational culture has defined leadership as the ability to go beyond the specific organizational culture and inspire evolutionary changes that increase the organization's adaptive capabilities (Schein, 1992). Kotter and Hickman have added an invaluable perspective, one that stresses that leadership and management are separate but complementary systems of action in an organization. Leadership aims to



change the organization. Leaders set the direction of action when they create a vision of the organization's future and inspire others to implement it, aligning people with the vision by communicating the vision in a clear and convincing way, engaging employees in its implementation, and motivating and inspiring. Managers, in contrast, create organizational stability. They are responsible for planning and budgeting, meaning that they define short-term goals and allocate resources, create the organizational structure, control work and solve problems (Hickman, 1990; Kotter, 1990).

There are also several types of leadership. Burns (1987) a pioneer of research on political leadership, observed that transactional leaders offer subordinates remuneration, benefits, or paths to promotion paths in exchange for them fulfilling certain tasks and achieving specific goals. They are most concerned with their subordinates' lower-order needs. Transformational leaders inspire their subordinates to overcome their limitations and achieve common goals. These leaders do more than set a course of action; they also motivate and develop their people in an atmosphere of trust and cooperation. Transformational leaders are focused on meeting their subordinates' higher-order needs for belonging, esteem, and self-fulfillment, which are related to personal development and fulfillment (Burns, 1987).

Bass (1995) added a third type of leadership to Burns' theory. In a "laissez-faire" relationship, there are no transactions between leaders and subordinates (Bass, 1995). According to Bass, this form of leadership should be avoided, and the term itself is used to describe a situation. If we agree with Blanchard (year) that the lack of a clear and inspiring vision is often the greatest barrier to organizational success, it should be emphasized that the leader's role is to define an important goal for the entire organization, to create an image of the future, and to define the shared values that set the direction for the company (Blanchard 2007, p. 24). This scope of leadership focuses on more intangible and long-term aspects than everyday operational management.

The effect of this approach is what Hersey and Blanchard call situational leadership, where managers offer each employee individualized support and guidance. It can therefore be stated that leadership will be depend on what each employee needs (Blanchard, 2012). Hersey and Blanchard called for managers to create appropriate conditions for subordinates to use their knowledge, skills and attitudes to implement the organizational vision and mission, as well as to increase their own motivation and self-development. This ability to inspire and obtain positive actions from employees is what they consider leadership.

When analyzing the current discourse on leadership, it is important to mention authentic leadership: leaders' awareness and their real emotions, needs, desires, beliefs or experiences and expressing what they really think and believe. Authentic leadership, as research shows, is much more than just a management style. It encompasses the leader's deeply rooted characteristics and behaviors. As Avolio et al. (date) rightly note, authenticity is a set of interconnected behaviors that include both relationships with subordinates and ethical decision-making (Avolio, 2004).

Walumbwa et al. (date) distinguish four dimensions of authentic leadership: relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, balanced procedure, and self-awareness. Each of these dimensions contributes to the creation of a coherent whole, strengthening the leader's credibility and building trust in the team (Walumbwa et al., 2008). It should therefore be emphasized that there is no single binding definition of leadership; the different types of leadership can give rise to different views on the role and actions of leaders. A review of the literature on leadership and management shows an evolutionary transition from a discussion differentiating leadership from management to a discussion on types of leadership. Despite this diversity of approaches, authentic leadership puts the human at the center - both the leader and the team members, building relationships based on trust, respect and mutual support. Conversely, managers are more concerned with resource management, controlling schedules and implementing agreed-upon tasks.

3. The Role of the University Rector

In the 18th century, Wilhelm von Humboldt assumed that the university should be a place of both education and scientific research where young men cultivated their intellectual and critical thinking skills in preparation for active participation in social life. Although Humboldt lived three centuries ago, his premise remains relevant (Humboldt, 1964). However, today's universities are not only places for the acquisition of theoretical knowledge. They are dynamic centers that respond to the needs of a changing world. They focus on interdisciplinarity, cooperation with business and other institutions, and the development of innovation. At the same time, universities face new challenges, such as digitization, globalization or students' growing expectations. That is why the role of the university rector is more important than ever.



As noted by Engwall, Levay and Lidman, the results of research among the rectors of Sweden's higher education institutions indicate the complexity of their priorities. On the one hand, there is a clear tendency to create an innovation-friendly climate. On the other hand, actual management practice often differs from the declared intentions; factors such as the size and age of the university influence the shaping of priorities. All of the rectors emphasize the importance of inspiring faculty and staff to innovate and change, perceiving their universities as creative organizations, not just heavily regulated structures. Despite their declared priorities, in practice the rectors spend more time than they consider necessary on control systems. In addition, the research results indicate that rectors of smaller and younger universities more often consider control systems to be the most important, perhaps because of the need for greater operational stability and quality assurance. In addition, larger and older universities place greater emphasis on innovation, which may result from their maturity and their ability to take more risks.

There was also a significant discrepancy between declared priorities and the actual time devoted to individual tasks. Rectors of all types of universities spend more time on control systems than they consider justified, while claiming that they would prefer to spend more time on cultural change (Engwall, Levay, & Lidman, 2000). Eriksson at Uppsala University has provided empirical evidence on the role of rectors at higher education institutions. The applied diary method showed that their daily lives were tense, chaotic, and dominated by the need to make quick decisions. This situation, as Eriksson noted, was surprisingly similar to what management staff described in the 1950s. Department heads faced the difficult task of reconciling often conflicting expectations. They were expected to excel in management, research and teaching. At the same time, they were expected to be colleagues, bosses, advisers and strategic thinkers. This multiplicity of roles meant that many people perceived the role of department head as unclear and difficult to fill (Eriksson, 1997).

4. Research Methodology

University rankings are instrumental in shaping the way that universities are perceived around the world. They help prospective students make decisions and serve as a benchmark for other universities. The three best-known university rankings are ShanghaiRanking, Times Higher Education World University Rankings and QS World University Rankings. Each uses a unique methodology, which explains the differences in results.

4.1. ShanghaiRanking

ShanghaiRanking, also known as the Academic Ranking of World Universities, assesses universities' research achievements. This ranking uses six objective indicators, including the number of Nobel Prize winners, the number of highly cited researchers, and the number of articles published in prestigious journals. ShanghaiRanking also publishes subject rankings, which allows for a more detailed analysis of the achievements of universities in specific fields of science.

4.2. Times Higher Education World University Rankings

The Times Higher Education World University Rankings (THE) uses a more diverse methodology, covering teaching, research, citations, internationality, and industry income. This ranking emphasizes the quality of both research and teaching. THE also takes into account the opinions of academics and employers, allowing for a more holistic view of the university.

4.3. QS World University Rankings

QS World University Rankings, like THE, uses a variety of indicators, including academic reputation, employer reputation, research impact, and internationalization. QS places great importance on the opinions of academics and employers, which makes this ranking particularly valuable for prospective students.



Table 1. Comparison of criteria for university rankings.

Criterion	Shanghairanking	Times higher education	QS World University rankings
Academic reputation	Yes	Yes	Yes
Employer reputation	No	Yes	Yes
The impact of research	Yes (Publications, citations)	Yes (Citations, research income)	Yes (Scientific citations)
Teaching	Not directly	Yes (Student/Teacher ratio, institutional income)	Yes (Student/Teacher ratio, teaching reputation)
International character	Yes (Number of foreign students and employees)	Yes (International cooperation, number of foreign students and employees)	Yes (Number of foreign students and employees, international cooperation)
Income from industry	No	Yes	Yes

All three rankings are valuable for comparing universities, but each has its own characteristics. The Shanghai Ranking focuses on research achievements, THE emphasizes the balance between research and teaching, and QS places great importance on the opinions of academics and employers. Choosing the right ranking depends on the applicant's individual needs and goals. Although university rankings are useful, they do have limitations. Rankings cannot capture all aspects of a university's quality, and the results can be distorted by the size of the university, the research profile, and the country of origin. In addition, different rankings result from different methodologies. Therefore, while recognizing the limitations of each ranking, the Shanghai Ranking was selected as the data source for identifying the world's top 30 universities. Based on the Shanghai Ranking published in 2024, the following universities were selected:



Research in Social Sciences

Vol. 8, No. 1, pp. 33-42

2025

DOI: 10.53935/26415305.v8i1.292

Email: koleka@kozminski.edu.pl

Copyright:

© 2025 by the author. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

Table 2. List of universities selected for further research.

1.	Harvard University
2.	Stanford University
3.	Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT)
4.	University of Cambridge
5.	University of California, Berkeley
6.	Princeton University
7.	University of Oxford
8.	Columbia University
9.	California Institute of Technology (Caltech)
10.	University of Chicago
11.	Yale University
12.	Cornell University
13.	University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA)
14.	University of Pennsylvania
15.	Paris-Saclay University
16.	Johns Hopkins University
17.	University College London (UCL)
18.	University of Washington
19.	University of California, San Diego (UCSD)
20.	ETH Zurich
21.	University of California, San Francisco (UCSF)
22.	Tsinghua University
23.	Imperial College London
24.	University of Toronto
25.	Washington University in St. Louis
26.	University of Michigan-Ann Arbor
27.	University of Tokyo
28.	New York University (NYU)
29.	Beijing University
30.	Northwestern University

In the next step, using the biographical method, the rectors of these 30 universities were characterized in terms of their career path, scientific achievements and management experience.

5. Biographical Method

Biographical analysis, based in the rich tradition of the Chicago School of the 1920s, plays a key role in contemporary interactionist research. Although interest in biography was present at that time, it was not always treated as a separate subject of research. Biographical aspects appeared as a complement to the main goal of sociological research: the analysis of society. In works from the 1920s, biographical issues were not reduced to psychological analyses of the individual, but were set in their broader social context. Researchers combined the analysis of individual and collective biographies with the analysis of social structures, such as institutions, organizations or ethnic groups. The aim of these studies was to generate practical knowledge that could serve social reformers in solving pressing social problems (Strauss, 1991).

There have been noteworthy Polish achievements in research conducted using the biographical method. In the 1920s and 1930s, the work of Znaniński, Grabski, Krzywicki and Chałasiński, based on the biographies of workers, the diaries of residents of Poznań and Silesia, and the diaries of the unemployed, became internationally recognizable and contributed to the professionalization of the research method.

The interest in biography in German and Austrian sociology had its sources primarily in philosophy, cultural studies, literary studies and psychology. In contrast to the strongly empirical approach characteristic of American sociology, German biographical research was always closely linked to economic sciences.

The key figure in this context is Dilthey, the precursor of the hermeneutic tradition in biographical research. For Dilthey, biographical notes were invaluable for examining the structure of meanings and



understanding human experiences. The concept of generation was particularly important to him, as it allowed for the search for general intellectual motives characteristic of the entire group of people born at a similar time. The analysis of individual figures was enabled historical generalizations and by extension the understanding of broader cultural processes (Dilthey, 1982). Although Kohli points to the strong connections between biographical research and economic sciences in German sociology, the dominant paradigm was Dilthey's humanistic approach, which remains the central point of reference for German biographical research. Numerous continuations of this tradition can be found in later German studies (Kohli, 1989).

Strauss's concept of identity, which takes into account both the social contexts of an individual's life and its dynamic nature, allows for the interpretation of biography as a continuous evolution of social relationships and the accompanying changes in identity. Biography then becomes a narrative about the process of shaping and transforming oneself in relationships with others. The analysis of these changes considers both predictable changes related to going through subsequent stages of life and resulting from social conditions, and breakthrough events that introduce unexpected changes to an individual's identity (Strauss, 1969). Denzin, representing the constructivist trend, criticizes structuralists like Bourdieu or Bertaux, who claim that culture and social structure shape our life and identity (Bertaux 1981; Bourdieu, 1986). For Denzin, these are not external forces, but rather components that co-create our reality. Sharing the views of Plath, Denzin emphasizes that individuals give meaning to their own lives by creating their autobiographies. By writing about their lives, they simultaneously create culture and shape their identity. Denzin introduces the concept of "biographical methods", which are ways of describing one's own life. He emphasizes that the way one creates an autobiography is influenced by situational contexts (social interactions) and by broader conventions. This means that Denzin states that biography is not only a passive reflection of reality, but an active creation of meanings. By using the cultural tools available to them, individuals construct their stories and shape their own identity (Denzin, 1989). Therefore, when examining the roles of people holding management positions in higher education institutions, it is reasonable to refer to biographical studies and show the changes taking place in their careers. This method also allows for demographic comparisons and the outlining of similar factors in the biographies of the rectors of the world's 30 top institutions of higher education according to the Shanghai Ranking.

6. Results of the Research on 30 Rectors of Selected Universities

The application of the biographical method through the analysis of biographies included on the websites of the universities studied allows for the reconstruction of the rectors' career path. This allows for the identification of key moments in their lives that shaped them as leaders. By comparing the biographies of different rectors, it is possible to distinguish recurring behavioral patterns that characterize those who achieved the greatest successes. For example, effective rectors often have experience in several areas of management, and demonstrate the ability to build relationships and inspire others. Moreover, the biographical method allows for the analysis of the influence of the historical, cultural and institutional context on the rectors' actions.

The basic research technique allowed the analysis of data collected from the websites of the 30 universities occupying the highest positions in the Shanghai Ranking. The analysis focused on the biographies of the universities' rectors, supplemented with information from publicly available sources. The reconstruction of the profile of a typical rector of one of these universities, based on an analysis of the biographies of 30 rectors, conducted using the biographical method, reveals several key features and trends characterizing this group of academic leaders.

The rectors studied here is quite diverse in terms of age, education and professional experience. The oldest rector is over 83 years old; the youngest is 51. They have educational backgrounds in fields ranging from medicine and physics to English literature, economics and law. Despite these differences, these rectors have several attributes in common. Twenty-three of the 30 are men. Furthermore, all rectors have extensive experience in managing large teams and projects, often at lower administrative echelons of the university where they are now rectors. This finding indicates the dominance of internal promotion in the recruitment of rectors. There are several explanatory factors for this dominance. Candidates promoted from within are well acquainted with the university, its organizational culture and the needs of its academic community. In addition, they have an established position in the academic environment, which gives them an advantage in building relationships and conducting negotiations.



At the same time, not all of the rectors were selected from the faculty or staff of their university. This fact suggests that although internal promotion is the preferred form of recruitment, it is not the only possible one.

The analysis of the education of rectors indicates a range of academic fields. It cannot be unequivocally stated that a degree in a specific field is a necessary prerequisite for the position. Nevertheless, many rectors do have academic backgrounds in fields closely related to science or management.

The professional experience of rectors is equally varied. In addition to scientific work, many of them were involved in consulting, politics or entrepreneurialism. This indicates that modern rectors must have not only specialist knowledge, but also interpersonal skills, leadership skills and the ability to build relationships with various stakeholders.

The necessity of formal education as a prerequisite for performing managerial functions is the subject of constant debate. In large and complex organizations like universities, it may be an additional argument. In the past, a degree in economics or management sciences was seen as an important criterion, but modern universities require their leaders to have an increasingly broad range of competences, not only those related to an academic discipline.

Having a degree in the sciences undoubtedly indicates solid theoretical foundations and research skills, which is a significant asset in managing an academic unit. Nevertheless, the role of the rector goes beyond managing scientific processes to encompass relationship building, leadership and strategic decision-making. In this context, academic credentials may prove insufficient.

Especially in universities, where the rector is elected, interpersonal skills, the ability to build consensus and clear leadership are of central importance. These attributes form the basis of social legitimacy and allow for effective management of diverse stakeholders. In an academic environment, formal competences may take a back seat to the ability to build trust and inspire others. It is worth emphasizing that in some cases, the lack of formal qualifications may even be an asset. A person from outside the management environment may bring fresh perspectives and an innovative approach to the role, which may prove particularly valuable in the context of the need to carry out profound reforms. However, a rector's lack of leadership skills may have serious consequences for the functioning of the university. The inability to build a cohesive team, motivate employees and resolve conflicts may lead to stagnation, loss of efficiency and diminished morale. This means that formal education in a field like economics or management is undoubtedly important in a prospective rector, but it is not always a determining assessment criterion. Modern universities need leaders who combine theoretical knowledge, practical management skills and sophisticated social competences. The ability to build relationships, inspire others and solve problems should be required competences in candidates for a rectorship.

Leadership is an integral part of the role of the rector. An effective rector should be able to formulate a clear vision for the university and convince the academic community to support it; build a strong management team and delegate responsibility; make difficult decisions in a transparent and responsible manner; motivate and inspire others to achieve their goals; and promote the values of the university and build its positive image.

In turn, soft skills such as empathy, communication, the ability to delegate tasks and resolve conflicts are just as important as hard skills. The ability to build trust and create a positive working atmosphere is crucial to the success of any organization, and especially important for universities. The rector should be able to cooperate with various stakeholder groups, such as faculty, students, administrative staff, and representatives of the government and business.

7. Discussion

A modern higher education institution is a dynamic organization that requires effective management of a variety of resources. Rectors, as leaders, help shape the future of the university. Their tasks go beyond teaching to cover the spectrum of management activities, from finance to building relationships with stakeholders. As strategists and managers, rectors are responsible for developing and implementing the university's development strategy. They must make decisions about:

- **Finances:** effective budget management, investment planning and ensuring the university's stable financial situation
- **Personnel:** recruitment and development of research and teaching staff, in order to provide the university with highly qualified staff
- **Cooperation:** building relationships with the social and business environment and other institutions, which allows for obtaining financial resources and strengthening the university's position on the market



- Image: creating a positive image of the university that attracts both students and potential partners
- Among the challenges for modern rectors of higher education institutions operating in a dynamic and complex environment, it is necessary to face many challenges, such as:
- Competitiveness: constantly growing competition between universities requires continuous improvement of the educational offer and scientific research
 - Changing expectations: both students and employees and society have increasingly higher expectations of the university
 - Constant changes: the dynamic environment requires the rector to be flexible and able to react quickly to changes
 - Pressure from various environments: the rector must skillfully balance between various interests, such as the expectations of the government, business, social organizations and the academic community

It is also worth noting that in some cases, conflicts occur at universities. The conflicts may be:

- Lack of transparency: if the rector does not inform the academic community about the decisions made, this may lead to a loss of trust.
- Excessive emphasis on results: if the priority is only scientific and financial results, this may lead to neglect of other areas of the university's activity.
- Ineffective management: if management processes are too complicated and bureaucratic, this may lead to frustration among employees and students.

Therefore, the role of the rector in managing a modern university is complex. To this function, rectors must have a wide range of competences, including leadership and managerial skills and the ability to build relationships. They must be able to reconcile competing interests, make difficult decisions and inspire others to act.

This analysis is only a starting point. To arrive at a more detailed picture of the profile of the modern rector, it is necessary to conduct more in-depth analyses, for instance, comparing rectors at universities in different countries, analyzing the impact of demographic characteristics on the performance of the rector's function or examining the relationship between the rector's management style and the effectiveness of the university.

8. Conclusion

The role of the rector in a modern university requires a combination of managerial and leadership competencies. The conducted literature analyses and case studies of leading universities confirmed that an effective rector must be both an efficient administrator and an inspiring leader.

Changing social expectations, digitalization and global competition make the role of the rector increasingly complex. The conflict between the requirements of economic efficiency and maintaining academic values is one of the most difficult dilemmas. The recruitment process of rectors should take into account both managerial experience and leadership skills. Universities should invest in the development of leadership competencies of their leaders through training and mentoring programs.

It should be emphasized that the analysis of the biographies of outstanding rectors has shown that individual experiences, personality and values affect the effectiveness of leadership. At the same time, one should be aware of the limitations of the research method, which does not provide the opportunity for a deeper understanding of the rector's role or verification of all information.

A modern rector is more than an administrator - he is a leader who shapes the future of the university through vision, communication skills and the ability to adapt to changing conditions. Universities that can select leaders who combine these traits will be better prepared for the challenges of the future. A modern approach to university management requires conscious talent management and promoting leadership at all levels of the academic structure.

References

- Bass, B. (1995). Theory of transformational leadership redux. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6(4), 463–478.
- Bennis, W. G., & Nanus, B. (2007). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Bertaux, D. (1981). *Biography and society: The life-history approach in the social sciences*. London & Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Blanchard, K. (2012). *Przywództwo wyższego stopnia [Higher-level leadership]*. Warszawa, 75–88.
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). L'illusion biographique. *Acts de la Recherche en Sciences Sociales*, 62/63, 69–72.



- Bruce, A., Gardner, W., Walumbwa, F., Luthans, F., & May, D. (2004). Unlocking the mask: A look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6), 801–823.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper and Collins.
- Bush, T., Bell, L., & Middlewood, D. (2010). *The principles of educational leadership and management*. London: Red Sage Publications.
- Carvalho, T., & Diogo, S. (2018). Women rectors and leadership narratives: The same male norm? *Education Sciences*, 8(2), 75.
- Denzin, N. K. (1989). *Interpretive interactionism*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Dilthey, W. (1982). *Pisma estetyczne [Aesthetic writings]*. PWN, Warszawa.
- Engwall, C., Levay, R., & Lidman, E. (2000). The roles of university and college rectors. *Higher Education Management*.
- Gardner, J. (1990). *On leadership*. New York: Free Press.
- Hickman, C. R. (1990). *Mind of manager, soul of leader*. Wiley: New York.
- Humboldt, W. (1964). Ueber die innere und äussere Organisation der höheren wissenschaftlichen Anstalten in Berlin [On the internal and external organization of higher educational institutions in Berlin]. In *Werken in 5 Bänden, Vol. 4, Schriften zur Politik und Bildungswesen* (pp. 1–35). Berlin: Rütten & Loening.
- Kohli, M. (1986). Biographical research in the German language area. In Z. Dulczewski (Ed.), *A commemorative book in honour of F. Znaniecki on the centenary of his birth* (pp. 91–110). Poznań.
- Kotter, J. P. (1990). *A force for change: How leadership differs from management*. New York: The Free Press.
- Maccoby, M. (2000). Understanding the difference between management and leadership. *Research Technology Management*, 43(1), 57–59.
- Michalski, M. (2020). Miejsce nowego modelu uniwersytetu we współczesnej gospodarce wiedzy, czyli między korporacjonizmem a systemem monistycznym. *Krytyka Prawa*, 12(2), 89–102.
- O'Connor, P., & Carvalho, T. (2015). Different or similar: Constructions of leadership by senior managers in Irish and Portuguese universities. *Studies in Higher Education*, 40(9), 1679–1693.
- Parakhina, V., Godina, O., Boris, O., & Ushvitsky, L. (2017). Strategic management in universities as a factor of their global competitiveness. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 31(1), 62–75.
- Pawłowski, K. (2014). Rola rektora w budowaniu długotrwałych relacji szkoły wyższej z otoczeniem. [The role of the rector in building long-term relationships between higher education institutions and their environment].
- Rony, Z. T., Lestari, T. S., Ismaniah, Yasin, M., & Lubis, F. M. (2023). The complexity of leadership competence in universities in the 21st century. *Cogent Social Sciences*, 9(2), 2276986.
- Schein, E. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Strauss, A. L. (1991). Implicit and explicit aspects of the Chicago sociological tradition's approach to biography.
- Tigerstedt, C. (2022). A discourse analytic approach to HEI leadership in Finland: The what and how of rectors' leadership.
- Walumbwa, F., Avolio, B., Gardner, W., Wernsing, T., & Peterson, S. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management*, 34(1), 89–126.
- Zaleznik, A. (1977). Managers and leaders: Are they different? *Harvard Business Review*, 68.



Research in Social Sciences

Vol. 8, No. 1, pp. 33-42

2025

DOI: 10.53935/26415305.v8i1.292

Email: koleka@kozminski.edu.pl

Copyright:

© 2025 by the author. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).