

Visionary Leadership and Innovative Work Behavior: The Mediating Role of Psychological Empowerment among Civil Servants of the Rokan Hulu Regency Health Office

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ABSTRACT

Leaders who communicate a clear picture of the future are often expected to encourage innovation, yet evidence from Indonesian local government is limited. We examined whether visionary leadership is linked to innovative work behavior among civil servants and whether psychological empowerment carries part of that link. All 51 eligible civil servants of the Rokan Hulu Regency Health Office took part in a census survey, and the model was estimated with PLS-SEM, controlling for grade and tenure. Staff who rated their supervisor as more visionary felt more empowered ($\beta = 0.411$; $p < 0.001$) and reported more innovative behavior ($\beta = 0.325$; $p = 0.006$). The direct estimate was imprecise, with a wide interval (95% CI [0.087; 0.551]) and fewer respondents than the 59 required for 80 percent power on that path. Empowerment was the strongest correlate of innovation ($\beta = 0.465$; $p < 0.001$) and carried roughly 37 percent of the total link between vision and innovation (indirect = 0.191; 95% CI [0.083; 0.350]). Grade and tenure showed no significant links. Given the single office, the cross-sectional self-report design and a global fit index above the usual benchmark, the results describe associations and remain preliminary.

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1. INTRODUCTION

District health offices in Indonesia carry a broad mandate. They plan disease prevention and control, run public health programs, oversee health services and manage health personnel and facilities. In Rokan Hulu, as in many regencies, this work rests on a small office staff whose program targets grow faster than their budgets. Routines that once worked can quickly become outdated in such conditions, and

much depends on whether staff are willing to look for better methods, argue for them and put them into practice. Scholars call this pattern innovative work behavior: an employee's effort to come up with new ideas, win support for them and turn them into working practice in his or her own job [1], [2]. Narotama and Sudewi [3] reviewed 15 Indonesian studies of civil servants and listed 25 factors that shape such behavior, leadership and psychological empowerment among them.

Public organizations make this kind of initiative harder than private firms do. Detailed procedures, layered approval chains and a fear of being blamed for errors encourage staff to keep to what is familiar. Bysted and Jespersen [4] showed that the managerial levers which encourage innovation among government staff are not the same as those that work in companies, so evidence from business settings cannot simply be applied to bureaucracies. Even so, what the immediate supervisor does still matters a great deal for public employees [5]. In a review of 48 public sector studies, Makhrojan et al. [6] identified visionary thinking as one of the leader traits most often linked to staff innovation. Indonesian evidence points the same way. Sinaga and Sianipar [7] found that transformational leadership and psychological empowerment both contributed to innovation among local government employees in North Sumatra, and Fatkhurahman [8] reported a similar role for inclusive leadership in the Riau Provincial Secretariat.

Among leadership styles, visionary leadership deserves closer attention. A visionary leader paints a clear and appealing picture of where the unit should go and keeps communicating it until staff understand the destination [9], [10]. Van Knippenberg and Stam [11] argue that a vision does its work by making jobs feel purposeful and by connecting everyday tasks to a goal beyond them. A health office has an obvious goal of this kind, namely a healthier population. Yet most recent research on vision and employee innovation comes from companies, such as IT-based small firms in China [12] and organizations in the United Arab Emirates [13]. Very little comes from Indonesian local government.

Hearing a vision, however, does not automatically lead staff to innovate. People also need to sense that their job matters to them, that they are good at it, that they can choose how to do it and that what they do makes a difference. Spreitzer [14] brought these four perceptions together under the label psychological empowerment, drawing on the cognitive model of Thomas and

Velthouse [15]. A meta-analysis by Seibert et al. [16] linked empowerment to both performance and innovation and found leadership to be one of its most powerful sources. Empowerment is therefore a natural candidate for the mechanism that connects a leader's vision with innovative work.

The Rokan Hulu Regency Health Office is a fitting place to study this link. Most of its civil servants hold functional or administrative posts, including health administrators, epidemiologists, health promotion officers and technical policy analysts. Their days are spent planning, managing and evaluating programs rather than treating patients. Innovation at this level means finding better ways to design programs, analyze surveillance data or coordinate community health centers, and the direction such improvements take depends heavily on guidance from division heads.

Existing studies leave a specific gap. Research on Indonesian local government staff has usually measured transformational leadership as a single composite score [17], [7]. In such a score, vision is averaged with other leader behaviors such as individual consideration and intellectual stimulation, so it is impossible to tell which behavior accounts for the link with innovation. The few studies that measured visionary leadership on its own were carried out in firms [12], [13]. Treating vision separately matters for theory, because vision is thought to operate through a distinct channel: it supplies meaning and direction [11], [18], which maps most directly onto the meaning and impact components of empowerment. Isolating vision thus gives a more precise test of how future-oriented communication by leaders relates to staff innovation. Program staff in health offices, whose work centers on planning, coordination and evaluation, have also rarely been the focus of studies on innovative behavior.

Against this background, the present study investigates how visionary leadership relates to innovative work behavior among civil servants of the Rokan Hulu Regency Health Office, and whether psychological empowerment carries part of that

relationship. The study adds to existing knowledge in three respects. It estimates the direct and indirect links between the vision dimension of leadership and innovation in a public organization, instead of deriving them from composite transformational leadership measures. It shows what share of the vision and innovation link passes through empowerment, which helps distinguish between vision as a source of direction and vision as a source of motivation. And it offers evidence from program staff in a district health office, a group largely missing from research on public sector innovation.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 *Theoretical Background*

Two theories guide the study: psychological empowerment theory [14], [15] and self-determination theory [19]. According to self-determination theory, people become intrinsically motivated when they experience autonomy, feel capable and feel connected to others. Innovating at work is optional and carries risk, since staff must depart from established procedure and may face rejection. Behavior of this kind tends to come from inner motivation rather than from orders.

Thomas and Velthouse [15] treat empowerment as the way employees appraise their own tasks. These appraisals are shaped by the surrounding work context, of which the supervisor's behavior is a major part. Seen this way, leadership changes how staff read their jobs, and those readings in turn guide what they do.

Each theory explains a different part of the model. Empowerment theory accounts for the first step, from leadership to empowerment, by

naming the four appraisals (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact) through which staff make sense of cues in their environment, a leader's vision included [14], [15]. Self-determination theory accounts for the second step, from empowerment to innovation, by explaining why a sense of autonomy and capability makes people willing to invest effort in tasks their job description does not demand [19]. The direct link between vision and innovation rests on a different, non-motivational argument. A vision gives staff a yardstick for deciding which problems deserve fresh solutions [11], so it may relate to innovation even when feelings of empowerment stay the same.

2.2 *Visionary Leadership*

For Bennis and Nanus [9], being able to form a vision and convey it to others lies at the heart of leading well. Nanus [10] described a good vision as a picture of the organization's future that people find realistic, believable and worth pursuing. Measurement studies usually treat vision as one facet of transformational leadership. Podsakoff et al. [20] separated the identification and articulation of a vision as its own factor, and Rafferty and Griffin [21] distinguished vision as a facet centered on a clear long-range direction. The evidence suggests that visions affect followers chiefly by shaping their attitudes and perceptions [22], and Stam et al. [18] found that a vision boosts performance most when it helps followers imagine the person they hope to become.

2.3 *Psychological empowerment*

Spreitzer [14] understood psychological empowerment as motivation rooted in the task itself and expressed in four appraisals. Meaning refers to how well the demands of the job match what the employee values. Competence is confidence in being able to do the work well, an idea close to self-efficacy [23]. Self-determination captures the feeling of having a say over when and how work is started and carried out, and impact concerns how far employees believe they can shape what happens in their unit. Empowerment in this psychological sense is not the same as structural empowerment, which is about formally handing over authority [24]. Studies in government agencies have also linked empowerment to staff attitudes and performance [25].

2.4 *Innovative work behavior*

Scott and Bruce [2] described individual innovation as a sequence that runs from noticing a problem and thinking up solutions to gathering backing and putting the solution in place. Janssen [1] condensed this sequence into three phases, generating ideas, championing them and implementing them. Unlike creativity, innovative work behavior covers the effort to apply ideas and not only to think of them [26]. In a health office it shows up when staff streamline reporting procedures, adopt digital tools to track programs or suggest new ways to reach immunization targets in villages.

2.5 *Hypothesis development*

Vision and innovative work behavior. A vision gives staff grounds for changing their

routines. Once leaders spell out where the unit is going, employees can judge whether current practice will get them there. De Jong and Den Hartog [27] listed the communication of a vision among the leader behaviors that stimulate innovation by staff. In Indonesia, Yudiatmaja et al. [28] observed that transformational leaders raised innovation among millennial public servants, and Diandary et al. [17] reported a comparable pattern among 500 civil servants in Mamuju Regency. Leader influence is not always visible, though. Sabela and Etikariena [29] found no moderating role for strengths-based leadership among civil servants, which suggests that leaders' influence is better examined alongside psychological processes within employees.

H1: Employees who perceive their supervisor as more visionary report more innovative work behavior.

Vision and empowerment.

By tying routine tasks to a broader aim, a clear vision helps work feel worthwhile [11]. Leaders who motivate others through their plans also signal faith in those people's ability to contribute, and a shared sense of direction lets leaders allow discretion over methods while keeping goals in view. Avolio et al. [30] reported that transformational leadership, of which vision is one element, went together with higher psychological empowerment.

H2: Employees who perceive their supervisor as more visionary report higher psychological empowerment.

Empowerment and innovative work behavior. Staff who see their job as meaningful have a motive to make it better, and staff who are confident in their skills are readier to try something new. Feeling free to choose methods leaves space for experimentation, and believing that one's actions count makes the work of pushing an idea seem worth the trouble. Spreitzer [14] linked empowerment with innovative behavior, Seibert et al. [16] confirmed the link across many settings in their meta-analysis, and Sinaga and Sianipar [7] observed it among local government employees.

H3: Employees with higher psychological empowerment report more innovative work behavior.

Empowerment as a mediator. If a vision works mainly by changing how staff interpret their jobs [18], empowerment is a likely channel between visionary leadership and innovation. Zhang and Bartol [31] showed that leader behavior raised employees' empowerment, which then increased their engagement in creative work. Pieterse et al. [32] found that transformational leadership went together with innovative behavior only when employees felt highly empowered. Empowerment has been reported as a mediator for transformational leadership by Stănescu et al. [33] and Vu et al. [34], and for visionary leadership by Wang et al. [12].

H4: Psychological empowerment carries part of the link between visionary leadership and innovative work behavior.

Grade and length of service were included as controls, since senior staff may have more room to suggest and carry out changes. Leaving them out could make part of a seniority advantage look like a leadership or empowerment effect.

3. METHODS

3.1 Design population and respondents

The study followed a cross-sectional survey design with an explanatory aim. Our sampling frame was the office's seniority list (Daftar Urut Kepangkatan), which named 53 civil servants. To take part, staff had to be on active duty in the office while data were gathered and had to report to a supervisor inside the office, because the questionnaire asked them to rate that person. Two people fell outside these criteria: the head of the office, who reports to an official outside the office, and one staff member on study leave. We invited all 51 remaining employees, so the study is a census of eligible staff. Every one of the 51 questionnaires came back complete enough to analyze. With no eligible employee excluded and nobody declining, nonresponse bias does not arise here. The results nonetheless speak only for staff of this one office and say nothing about civil servants based in community health centers. Questionnaires were distributed and collected in May and June 2025, after the head of the Rokan Hulu Regency Health Office granted permission.

We assessed whether the sample was large enough both before and after estimation. Under the inverse square root approach [35], a test at $\alpha = 5$ percent with 80 percent power needs $n > (2.486 / |\beta_{\min}|)^2$, with $\beta_{\min}$ standing for the smallest coefficient that would still be of practical interest. Setting $\beta_{\min}$ at 0.35 gives a requirement of 51, exactly the number of respondents, so smaller coefficients may go undetected. After estimation, SmartPLS indicated that 29 cases would suffice for the empowerment to innovation path (0.465) and 37 for the vision

to empowerment path (0.411) at the same α and power. The direct vision to innovation path (0.325), however, would have needed 59 cases, eight more than were available. Because these post hoc figures depend on the coefficients actually observed, we read them only as a warning that the direct path may be underpowered and not as confirmation that the other paths are adequately powered, and we interpret the direct path in light of its confidence interval. Covering every eligible employee removes sampling error within the office, but with so few respondents the estimates remain imprecise, and findings from one office need to be replicated before they are applied to other agencies.

3.2 Measures

Items for every construct were taken from established scales (Table 1). Leadership and empowerment items were rated for agreement on five points (1 for strong disagreement up to 5 for strong agreement), and innovation items were rated for frequency on five points (1 for never up to 5

for always). The authors translated the items into Indonesian and made two adjustments for the setting. Mentions of the organization or department were replaced with the respondent's own division or work unit, and the original seven-point formats of the empowerment and innovation scales were reduced to five points so that one format applied throughout. Section 4.3 shows that the items performed consistently in this sample. Such statistics cannot on their own demonstrate that the Indonesian version is equivalent in language and content to the originals, so we do not claim full validation of the adapted scales for Indonesian settings. KV7, the negatively worded vision item of Rafferty and Griffin [21], was reverse-coded before analysis (1 became 5, 2 became 4, 3 stayed 3, 4 became 2 and 5 became 1) and appears as KV7R. Grade entered the model as a dummy (III coded 0, IV coded 1), and tenure as an ordinal code (1 for under 5 years, 2 for 5 to 10 years, 3 for 11 to 20 years and 4 for over 20 years).

Table 1. Constructs, definitions and item sources

Construct	How it is defined in this study	Facets	Number of items	Adapted from
Visionary leadership (KV)	How staff see their immediate supervisor forming, conveying and gaining commitment to a direction for the unit	Articulating a vision; long-term vision	7 (KV1–KV7)	Podsakoff et al. [20]; Rafferty & Griffin [21]
Psychological empowerment (PP)	Task-based intrinsic motivation expressed in four appraisals	Meaning; competence; self-determination; impact	12 (PP1–PP12)	Spreitzer [14]
Innovative work behavior (PKI)	Frequency with which staff generate, champion and implement new ideas	Idea generation; idea promotion; idea realization	9 (PKI1–PKI9)	Janssen [1]

Source: Instrument items adapted from the cited sources.

3.3 Data Analysis

We estimated the model in SmartPLS 4 [36]. Partial least squares SEM was chosen chiefly for its fit with our purpose and model. The study seeks to account for variation in innovative behavior and to estimate an indirect path, and this explanatory and predictive aim is what the method was designed for [37]. Our model also mixes multi-item constructs with single-item controls, one of them a binary dummy, and

the method makes no assumption of multivariate normality. The small sample was a secondary reason. Visionary leadership, empowerment and innovation were specified as reflective first-order constructs measured by all their items, while grade and tenure were single-item constructs with paths to empowerment and innovation. The algorithm used path weighting, starting weights of 1, up to 3,000 iterations and a convergence criterion of 10^{-7} . For inference we drew 5,000 bootstrap

samples with a fixed seed and used percentile intervals and two-sided tests at $\alpha = 0.05$.

For the measurement model we examined loadings, keeping items between 0.40 and 0.70 only when they were significant and the AVE of their construct stayed at 0.50 or above, with 0.708 as the usual benchmark. Internal consistency was judged with Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability against a range of 0.70 to 0.95, convergent validity with AVE of at least 0.50, and discriminant validity with both the Fornell-Larcker test and HTMT. For HTMT we applied a ceiling of 0.90 for conceptually close constructs and also required the upper limit of each 95 percent interval to fall below 1 [38]. Full collinearity VIFs served as a check on common method bias [39]. The structural model was judged on predictor collinearity (VIF), explained variance (R^2), f^2 effect sizes [40], Q^2 from blindfolding and SRMR as an index of fit [41]. We treated an indirect effect as significant when its 95 percent interval excluded zero [42] and classified the type of mediation after Zhao et al. [43]. Following PLS-SEM usage, we speak of direct, indirect and total effects to mean estimated path

coefficients and their products. Since the data are self-reported and cross-sectional, we read these estimates as associations rather than causal effects.

To describe the data we averaged item scores and placed each mean in one of five bands of width 0.8, calculated as $(5 - 1) / 5$: 1.00 to 1.80, 1.81 to 2.60, 2.61 to 3.40, 3.41 to 4.20 and 4.21 to 5.00, labelled very low, low, moderate, high and very high. The bands only show where a mean falls on the answer scale. They are not norms, and we do not treat a moderate mean as showing any particular level of real behavior.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Respondent profile

Women made up nearly three quarters of the respondents (74.5 percent), and almost half were in their forties (49.0 percent). Close to two thirds held an undergraduate or professional degree (64.7 percent), two thirds were in grade III (66.7 percent), and the same share had between 11 and 20 years of service (66.7 percent). Table 2 gives the complete breakdown.

Table 2. Profile of respondents (n = 51)

Item	Group	n	Share
Sex	Women	38	74.5%
	Men	13	25.5%
Age group	Under 30	3	5.9%
	30 to 39	8	15.7%
	40 to 49	25	49.0%
	50 and above	15	29.4%
	Diploma	2	3.9%
Highest education	Undergraduate, applied undergraduate or professional	33	64.7%
	Master's or advanced professional	15	29.4%
	Could not be identified	1	2.0%
Civil service grade	III	34	66.7%
	IV	17	33.3%
Years as civil servant	Under 5	7	13.7%
	5 to 10	7	13.7%
	11 to 20	34	66.7%
	Over 20	3	5.9%

Source: Primary Data Processed (2026)

4.2 Descriptive statistics

All three constructs averaged close to the middle of the five-point scale, from 3.08 to

3.17, which places them in the moderate band (Table 3). In plain terms, respondents on average neither clearly endorsed nor clearly

rejected statements about their supervisor's vision or their own empowerment, and they described innovative actions as something they did sometimes rather than often. Within empowerment, self-determination scored lowest (3.01) and competence highest (3.13).

Within innovation, implementing ideas scored lowest (2.98) and championing them highest (3.23), so respondents on average reported pushing ideas a little more often than putting them into practice.

Table 3. Mean scores by construct and facet

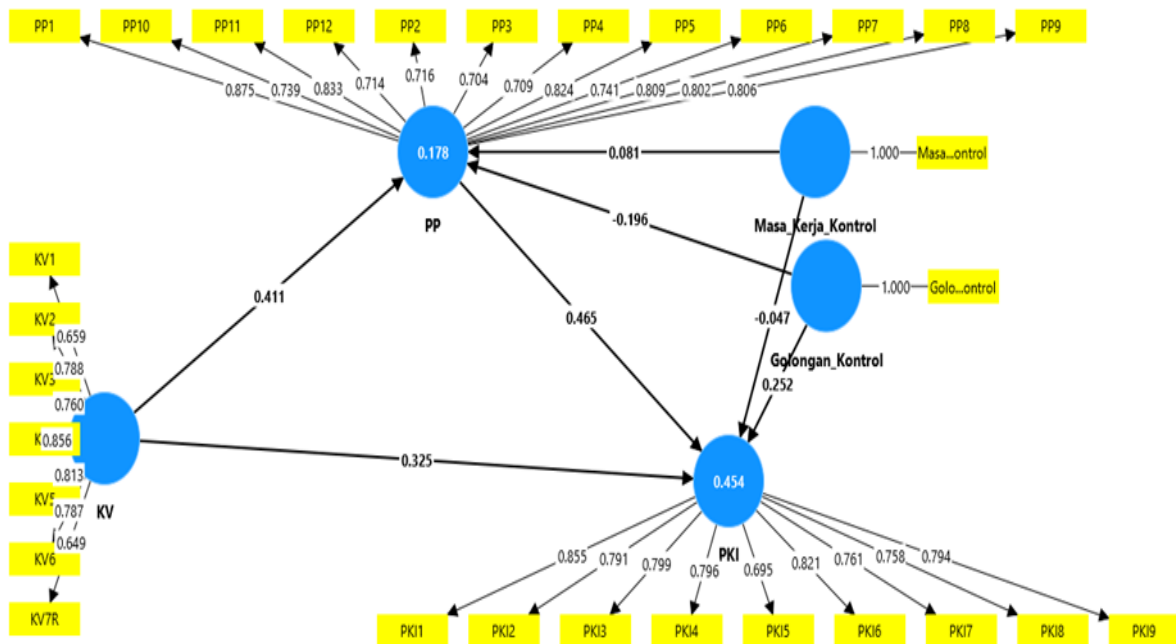
Construct or facet	Average	Band
Visionary leadership	3.17	Medium
Psychological empowerment	3.08	Medium
Meaning	3.08	Medium
Competence	3.13	Medium
Self-determination	3.01	Medium
Impact	3.08	Medium
Innovative work behavior	3.12	Medium
Generating ideas	3.15	Medium
Championing ideas	3.23	Medium
Implementing ideas	2.98	Medium

Source: Primary Data Processed (2026).

4.3 Measurement model

Item loadings lay between 0.649 for KV7R and 0.875 for PP1. Four items fell a little short of 0.708, namely KV1 (0.659), KV7R (0.649), PKI5 (0.695) and PP3 (0.704). We kept them because of what they measure. KV1, which asks whether the supervisor keeps looking for new opportunities for the unit, covers the opportunity-seeking side of vision articulation in the source scale. KV7R is the only item about the lack of direction, and as the only negatively worded item its weaker loading may partly reflect its wording. PKI5, on seeking approval for new ideas, is one of

just three items for the championing phase, and PP3 is one of three items for meaning. Dropping them would thin out the content of these constructs. Each of the four was significant at $p < 0.001$ (t values from 6.26 to 10.08), and the AVE of each construct remained above 0.50 [37]. Across constructs, alpha values lay between 0.878 and 0.939, rho_A between 0.895 and 0.949, rho_C between 0.906 and 0.947 and AVE between 0.581 and 0.619 (Table 4), which meets the reliability and convergent validity criteria. Figure 1 reproduces the SmartPLS algorithm output with loadings, path coefficients and R² values.

Figure 1. SmartPLS output of the PLS algorithm (outer loadings, path coefficients and R²)

Source: SmartPLS 4 Output, Primary Data Processed (2026)

Table 4. Internal consistency and convergent validity by construct

Construct	Loadings (min to max)	Alpha	rho_A	rho_C	AVE
Visionary leadership	0.649 to 0.856	0.878	0.895	0.906	0.581
Psychological empowerment	0.704 to 0.875	0.939	0.949	0.947	0.600
Innovative work behavior	0.695 to 0.855	0.923	0.929	0.936	0.619

Source: Primary Data Processed (2026).

The constructs were empirically distinct. For each one, the square root of its AVE exceeded every correlation it had with the other two, so

the Fornell-Larcker test was passed (Table 5). No HTMT ratio reached 0.85, and none of their 95 percent intervals reached 1 [38].

Table 5. Fornell-Larcker and HTMT results

Construct	KV	PP	PKI
Visionary leadership (KV)	0.762	0.430	0.565
Psychological empowerment (PP)	0.410	0.775	0.598
Innovative work behavior (PKI)	0.520	0.590	0.787

Note: bold diagonal entries give the square root of each construct's AVE, entries below them give correlations between constructs, and entries above them give HTMT values. Intervals for HTMT (95%): KV and PP [0.280; 0.652]; KV and PKI [0.368; 0.761]; PP and PKI [0.427; 0.765]. Source: Primary data processed (2026).

Full collinearity VIFs based on the construct correlations came to 1.40 for KV, 1.57 for PP and 1.79 for PKI, under the 3.3 cut-off proposed by Kock [39]. The values give no sign of the strong collinearity that would point to method bias, yet the check is not conclusive and cannot exclude shared method variance. Since every construct came from one self-report questionnaire completed at a

single time, we return to this point among the limitations in Section 4.11.

We also asked whether keeping the four weaker items changed the substantive results. Re-running the model without KV1, KV7R, PKI5 and PP3, with identical algorithm and bootstrap settings, raised the AVE of all three constructs but hardly moved the structural estimates (Table 6). The three direct paths and the indirect path stayed significant,

and their intervals almost fully overlapped with those of the original model, so we report the full model.

Table 6. Results with and without the four lowest-loading items

Estimate	All items	KV1, KV7R, PKI5 and PP3 removed
KV → PKI (H1), β [95% CI]	0.325 [0.087; 0.551]	0.301 [0.079; 0.515]
KV → PP (H2), β [95% CI]	0.411 [0.215; 0.635]	0.418 [0.212; 0.629]
PP → PKI (H3), β [95% CI]	0.465 [0.269; 0.637]	0.498 [0.309; 0.674]
KV → PP → PKI (H4), indirect [95% CI]	0.191 [0.083; 0.350]	0.208 [0.096; 0.361]
R ² of PP / PKI	0.178 / 0.454	0.185 / 0.471
AVE of KV / PP / PKI	0.581 / 0.600 / 0.619	0.662 / 0.611 / 0.639

Source: Primary Data Processed (2026).

4.4 Structural model

Inner VIFs ran from 1.004 to 1.217, low enough that collinearity did not distort the path estimates. Vision and the two controls together accounted for 17.8 percent of the variation in empowerment ($R^2 = 0.178$; adjusted 0.126). Adding empowerment, the predictors accounted for 45.4 percent of the variation in innovative behavior ($R^2 = 0.454$; adjusted 0.406). Blindfolding gave Q^2 of 0.085 for empowerment and 0.252 for innovation, pointing to small and medium predictive relevance respectively. The SRMR was 0.092, higher than the 0.08 benchmark often cited [41]. Although Hair et al. [37] caution that global fit indices remain contested in PLS-SEM and should not drive model evaluation, this value means that the model's overall fit is not fully satisfactory. Good reliability and validity in the measurement model do not in themselves guarantee good global fit, so we

keep this caveat in view when interpreting the results and do not describe the model as well fitting.

Judged against the guidelines of Cohen [40], all three main paths showed medium effect sizes: 0.325 for empowerment on innovation, 0.205 for vision on empowerment and 0.160 for vision on innovation. The controls had negligible effect sizes, between 0.004 and 0.023.

4.5 Hypothesis testing

Table 7 reports the bootstrap tests of the four hypotheses and Table 8 those of the control paths. H1 to H4 all received support, while none of the four control paths reached significance. Figure 2 summarizes the main paths, and Figure 3 shows the SmartPLS bootstrap output with p values for every loading and path.

Table 7. Tests of H1 to H4

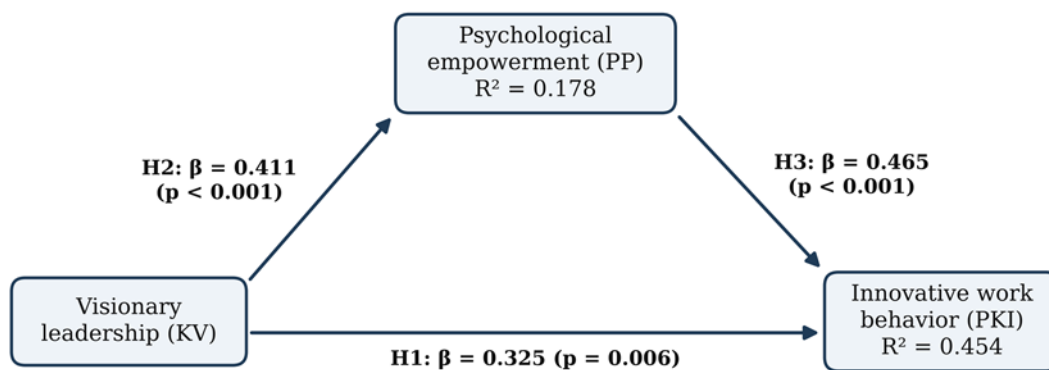
Hypothesis	Path	β	t	p	95% CI	f ²	Result
H1	KV → PKI	0.325	2.764	0.006	[0.087; 0.551]	0.160	Accepted
H2	KV → PP	0.411	3.785	<0.001	[0.215; 0.635]	0.205	Accepted
H3	PP → PKI	0.465	4.984	<0.001	[0.269; 0.637]	0.325	Accepted
H4	KV → PP → PKI	0.191	2.793	0.005	[0.083; 0.350]	–	Accepted

Source: Primary Data Processed (2026).

Table 8. Paths from the control variables

Path	β	t	p	95% CI	f ²
Grade → PP	-0.196	0.618	0.537	[-0.776; 0.478]	0.009
Grade → PKI	0.252	0.901	0.367	[-0.272; 0.805]	0.023
Tenure → PP	0.081	0.529	0.597	[-0.240; 0.360]	0.007
Tenure → PKI	-0.047	0.520	0.603	[-0.221; 0.131]	0.004

Note: grade is a 0/1 dummy (III = 0; IV = 1), and its coefficients are therefore unstandardized, as reported by SmartPLS. No control path is significant. Source: Primary data processed (2026).



H4, indirect effect $KV \rightarrow PP \rightarrow PKI$: 0.191, 95% CI [0.083; 0.350], $p = 0.005$

Grade and tenure were included as controls on PP and PKI; their paths are reported in Table 8.

Figure 2. Structural model results

Note: β = path coefficient; p values from bootstrapping with 5,000 subsamples. Source: Primary data processed with SmartPLS 4 (2026).

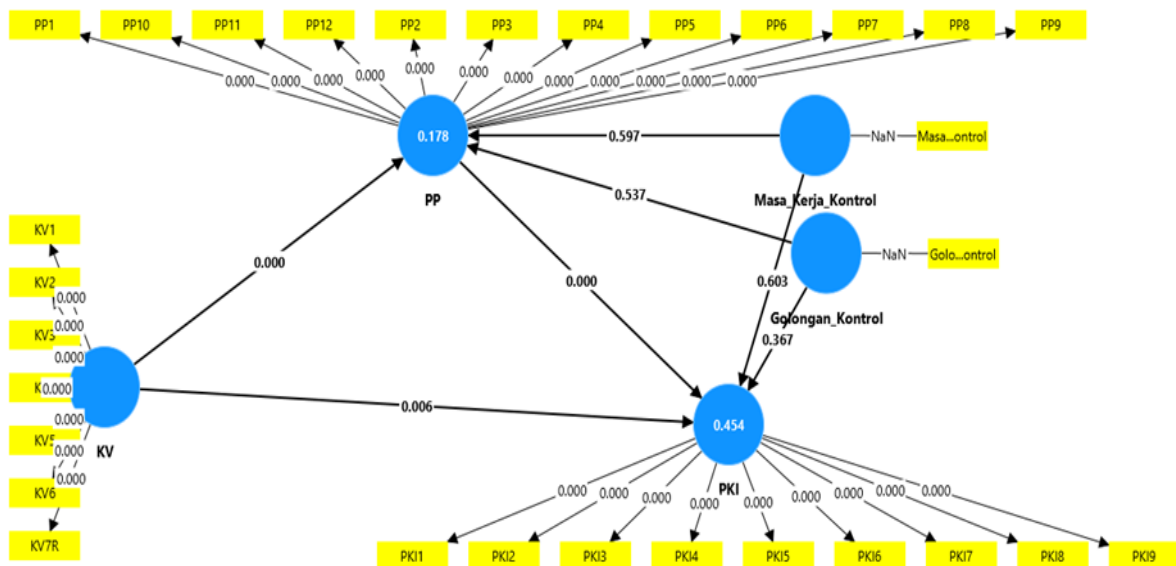


Figure 3. SmartPLS bootstrapping output (p values)

Note: NaN is shown for the outer loadings of grade and tenure because each is measured with a single indicator whose loading is fixed at 1; their structural paths are reported in Table 8. Source: SmartPLS 4 output, primary data processed (2026).

Table 9 splits the link between vision and innovation into its components. The indirect part is obtained by multiplying the vision to empowerment coefficient ($a = 0.411$) by the empowerment to innovation coefficient ($b = 0.465$), which gives 0.191. Adding the direct part gives the total ($0.325 + 0.191 = 0.516$), and dividing the indirect part by the

total gives the share carried by empowerment ($0.191 / 0.516 = 0.370$). Both the indirect and the direct parts were significant and positive, which corresponds to complementary partial mediation in the typology of Zhao et al. [43]. Neither grade nor tenure had a significant indirect path through empowerment.

Table 9. Components of the link between KV and PKI

Component	Value	t	p	95% CI
Direct, KV → PKI (c')	0.325	2.764	0.006	[0.087; 0.551]
Indirect, KV → PP → PKI ($a \times b$)	0.191	2.793	0.005	[0.083; 0.350]
Total, KV → PKI ($c = c' + a \times b$)	0.516	5.140	< 0.001	[0.329; 0.714]
Share mediated ($a \times b / c$)	0.370	–	–	–

Source: Primary Data Processed (2026).

4.6 Vision and innovative work behavior

H1 was supported: staff who rated their supervisor as more visionary also reported more innovative behavior. Those who described a supervisor with a clear sense of direction, an eye for new opportunities and a convincing picture of the unit's future said they came up with, promoted and applied new ideas more often. The result agrees with De Jong and Den Hartog [27], who counted conveying a vision among the leader behaviors behind innovation, and with Indonesian public sector evidence from Yudiantmaja et al. [28] and Diandary et al. [17]. For program staff, the supervisor's vision offers a benchmark against which current practice can be judged. Without it, a proposal for change can easily look like a breach of procedure.

This finding calls for caution. By the post hoc estimate, a path of this size needs about 59 respondents for 80 percent power, eight more than the study had, and its confidence interval is broad (0.087 to 0.551). The data point to a positive direct link, but its magnitude is uncertain and might be noticeably smaller or larger in another sample. The direct estimate (0.325) was roughly 1.7 times the indirect one (0.191). A plausible reason is that vision helps partly by signalling which problems call for solutions and which kinds of change leaders are prepared to back. A larger sample is needed before the relative size of the two paths can be regarded as settled.

4.7 Vision and psychological empowerment

H2 was also supported ($\beta = 0.411$): staff who saw their supervisor as visionary felt more empowered. This agrees with the argument of van Knippenberg and Stam [11] that visions make work meaningful and with the evidence of Avolio et al. [30] connecting

transformational leadership to empowerment. In bureaucracies, staff often work from written task descriptions. When supervisors explain the unit's direction, those tasks become easier to see as part of improving community health and less as paperwork for its own sake.

Still, vision and the controls explained just 17.8 percent of the variation in empowerment, so most of what makes staff feel empowered lies outside the model. The low score for self-determination (3.01) hints at why. Vision may make work feel worthwhile, but the freedom to decide how the work is done is also limited by rules and structures that division heads do not fully control.

4.8 Psychological empowerment and innovative work behavior

H3 received the strongest support of the three direct paths ($\beta = 0.465$; $f^2 = 0.325$). This mirrors the findings of Spreitzer [14], the meta-analysis of Seibert et al. [16] and the study of local government staff by Sinaga and Sianipar [7]. Staff who see purpose in their work have a reason to improve it, and those who trust their own skills are more prepared to experiment. Discretion over methods leaves space to try things within the rules, and believing that one's actions count makes it seem worthwhile to argue for an idea before superiors. In terms of self-determination theory [19], discretionary innovation is more likely when autonomy and competence needs are satisfied.

The descriptive results add a further point. Implementing ideas had the lowest mean (2.98), below championing them (3.23). One interpretation, not tested here, is that putting ideas into practice in public agencies runs into procedural hurdles [4] such as tight budgets and the need for formal approval, so that feeling empowered may not be enough at this last step. Data on implementation

resources and approval processes would be needed to check this explanation.

4.9 Empowerment As A Mediator

H4 was supported as well: empowerment carried part of the link between vision and innovation. The estimated share was about 37 percent. Coming from a small cross-sectional sample, this figure shows how the association divides between the two paths in these data and should not be taken as evidence of a causal mechanism. The pattern resembles the partial mediation found by Wang et al. [12] for visionary leadership and agrees with Stănescu et al. [33] and Vu et al. [34] for transformational leadership. It also supports the view of Pieterse et al. [32] that employees' psychological state helps decide whether a leader's behavior translates into innovation.

A share of about one third fits the idea that vision and innovation are connected through two complementary routes. One route supplies direction, letting staff know which problems matter and what kind of improvement is wanted. The other supplies motivation, as staff come to feel that their tasks matter, that they are trusted and that they have influence, which makes them readier to take the initiative. A vision that appears only in meetings or in the strategic plan leaves this second route unused.

4.10 Control Variables

Neither grade nor tenure was significantly related to empowerment or innovation. Including them suggests that the links we found are not merely a product of grade or tenure in this office. All control paths had wide intervals that included zero, for instance grade on innovation (0.252; 95% CI -0.272 to 0.805), so the direction of these links cannot be read from our data. The absence of significant results therefore does not show that seniority is irrelevant to empowerment or innovation.

4.11 Implications and Limitations

Theoretical implications. Evidence from a local health bureaucracy shows the vision component of leadership connected to

staff innovation along two routes, directly as a source of direction and indirectly through the motivational process of empowerment. This widens research on visionary leadership, most of which has been done in private firms.

Practical implications. Office leaders can coach division and subdivision heads to state the unit's direction clearly and often, and not only in planning documents. The vision should come with practices that build empowerment, such as connecting each person's tasks to program targets, allowing discretion over methods within the rules and showing staff what became of their proposals. With all three constructs averaging in the middle band, there is room to improve.

Limitations. First, leadership perceptions, empowerment and innovation were all reported by the same people in one questionnaire at one time. Such a design supports conclusions about association, not causation, and the coefficients called effects here should be read accordingly. It also leaves room for shared method variance, which the full collinearity check cannot fully rule out, and for socially desirable answers, as staff may have rated their supervisors and their own innovation more favorably than is warranted, even though responses were anonymous. Second, the sample came from a single office of 51 people, which restricts generalization, and power for the direct vision to innovation path was below the recommended level. Third, the SRMR of 0.092 was above 0.08, so global fit was not fully satisfactory, and four items loaded slightly under 0.708, among them the reverse-coded KV7R, although removing them did not alter the conclusions. Fourth, the model explained only 17.8 percent of the variation in empowerment, and the facets of empowerment and the phases of innovation were not modeled separately.

5. CONCLUSION

In this office, staff who saw their supervisors as more visionary reported more innovative work behavior, both directly and through a stronger sense of empowerment. Part of this association ran through feeling that the work is meaningful, that one is capable,

that one can choose how to work and that one's efforts count. The direct link was estimated to be larger than the indirect link, but that estimate was imprecise, because the sample fell short of what was needed to detect the direct path with adequate power and its confidence interval was wide. Grade and tenure showed no significant links with empowerment or innovation here, which, given the wide intervals in so small a sample, does not mean that seniority plays no part. Since the evidence comes from one office and one cross-sectional survey, and the global fit index exceeded the usual reference value, these conclusions are tied to this setting and should be treated as preliminary. They describe associations, not causes, and need to be replicated in larger samples drawn from several agencies before they are generalized. We recommend that the office's leadership coach division and subdivision heads to

communicate where their units are heading, clearly and repeatedly, and to back this up with practices that build empowerment: linking individual tasks to program targets, allowing discretion over methods within the rules and following staff proposals through to implementation. Further studies could use larger samples, extend the scope to community health centers or to several district health offices, rely on supervisor ratings of innovation or on data collected at two points in time, and add organizational factors such as support for innovation.

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