Utilizing the Power of Yet

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ABSTRACT

The power of yet is based on the premise that humans are all on a learning journey, and that just because a person has not accomplished a task yet, does not mean that they cannot or should not try, and certainly that they should not give up. A person’s yet is coming, but their yet has not quite arrived. Yet creates a growth mindset, high hope, and positive expectations, which, in turn, enhance self-efficacy that can transform past and current difficulties into possibilities of future success. Small interventions (small wins) like utilizing yet can serve as a key vehicle of personal change and can be highly effective in producing dramatic performance increases.

Keywords: yet, hope, positive expectations, self-efficacy

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INTRODUCTION

Small changes can have large, real-world consequences. Social psychological research demonstrates the potential for brief interventions to have lasting benefits (Garcia & Cohen, 2012; Wilson, 2011) and Martin, Goldstein, and Cialdini (2014) convincingly illustrate with numerous examples that a small modification in the setting, framing, timing, or context of how we convey information can significantly alter how it is received and acted upon. Throughout their book, Martin et al. (2014) continually point out that “When it comes to influencing the behaviors of others, it is often the smallest changes in approach that make the biggest differences” (p. xiv). For example, Fogg (2019) discussed the idea that to change behavior, individuals should make a tiny habit by using the following recipe: “After I …, I will …” For instance, to create the habit of tooth flossing, Fogg suggests: “After I brush, I will floss one tooth;” just one tooth, not flossing all one’s teeth. Individuals then commit to performing this habit over five days which often results in a habit that the individual will continue to do.

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In another study, Grant and Hoffman (2011) showed that changing a single word in messages about handwashing produced meaningful changes in behavior. Specifically, the effectiveness of signs about hand hygiene in a hospital that emphasized personal safety (“Hand hygiene prevents you from catching diseases”) on patient safety (“Hand hygiene prevents patients from catching diseases”) produced significant differences. The hand hygiene of health care professionals significantly increased when reminded of the implications for patients but not when reminded of the implications for themselves. Specifically, patient safety signs resulted in using more than 45 percent more hand sanitizer per dispenser and a 10 percent increase in hand-hygiene behavior among health care practitioners. Furthermore, if sustained for a year, the potential benefits of increased hand-hygiene would be the prevention of more than 100 infections and a savings of more than $300,000—in just one hospital!
Such interventions help people using a small win’s approach—those tiny, daily progressions that do not seem like much, but which add up, over time, to big things worth celebrating (Weick, 1984). These events act as catalysts that induce progress and help undertakings move forward often by just changing or modifying some simple wording. Words (spoken or written) have power and might be the most formidable force available to humanity (Zahed, 2015). They can help or heal as well as hurt or harm. “Words create worlds and images inspire action” (Razzetti, n. d.). How we frame words can have a significant impact on behavior. Frames help people to make sense of an issue—they “organize everyday reality” (Tuchman 1978, p.193). For example, in commenting on his experiments with electric light bulbs, Thomas Edison indicated, “I have not failed. I’ve just found 10,000 ways that won’t work” (quoted in Elkhorne, 1967, p. 52). Unsurprisingly, hamburgers labeled as having 75% lean beef were perceived more favorably than burgers said to contain 25% fat, even though both statements are mathematically equivalent (Levin & Gaeth, 1988). In a similar vein, the United States Marine Corps, as part of its training protocol, reframes pain as just weakness leaving the body (U.S. Marine Corps, n. d.).

The simple phrases in the table above, ending with the simple word of yet, can likewise have a significant impact on employee behavior. This word, in one way or another, suggests that accomplishment and success are not far off and that in time successful performance can be achieved by underperforming workers. We suggest that leaders consider adding these small wording changes to their lexicon.

The significance of the simple word yet is discussed here within the context of several perspectives. We first discuss these words within Dweck’s (2012) mindset approach. Secondly, we examine the significance of yet within the hope of research literature. Finally, we review the effects of yet within the positive expectation’s literature. These three factors then combine to impact a person’s self-efficacy resulting in higher performance. Figure 1 below presents a schematic of this analysis.

Figure 1. Yet and Its Impact on Worker Performance.

MINDSETS

In the next section, we present a broader discussion of mindset, hope, expectations, and efficacy.

Mindsets matter. A mindset is a mental frame or lens that guides individuals toward a unique way of understanding experiences and steering them toward corresponding actions and responses (adapted from Dweck, 2008). Yet instills a “growth mindset.” Although there can be many mindsets, Dweck has focused on two types of mindsets: fixed and growth. People with
fixed mindsets view talent and ability as a quality they either have, or do not have, and where skills and knowledge are considered stable and “carved in stone” (Dweck, 2012, p. 14). In a growth mindset, people believe they can develop their most basic abilities through dedication and hard work—brains and talent are just the starting point. This view creates a love of learning and a resilience that is essential for accomplishment. Individuals who embrace growth mindsets—the belief that they can learn more or become smarter if they work hard and persevere—actually learn more and learn it more quickly. Endorsement of a growth mindset inclines individuals to embrace challenges as opportunities to develop their abilities. And after a person makes a mistake, it helps them look for lessons rather than protect their ego (Duckworth, 2019). Individuals with a growth mindset can improve and expand their knowledge, abilities, and performance by working hard and their willingness to receive and learn from feedback, including criticism.

Crum (2014) and Crum and Phillips (2015) reported that the mindsets that people adopt about numerous aspects of life, such as nutrition, aging, emotions, and stress, have downstream effects on judgment, evaluations, and behavior. In the domain of aging, individuals who had a negative mindset about aging were less likely to engage in proactive measures such as eating well, engaging in physical exercise, and visiting a physician. This mindset created a diminished will to live compared to those with more positive views of what it means to age (Levy, Slade, Kunkel, & Kasl, 2002). In studies on stress, individuals who believe that stress has enhancing consequences are happier, healthier, and perform better during times of stress than those who think stress has debilitating effects (Crum, Salovey & Achor, 2013).

Mindsets can also determine the body’s physiological responses. In research on nutrition, for example, manipulating the perceived cost of wine to be more expensive (with the same wine) can result in heightened activity in areas of the brain related to pleasure and reward (Plasman, O’Doherty, Shiv, & Rangel, 2008). In the domain of physical exercise, hotel room attendants who adopted the mindset that their work constitutes good exercise showed significant reductions in weight, body mass index, and systolic blood pressure (Crum & Langer, 2007). These data strongly demonstrate the influence of the psychological context in constructing objective reality and that mindsets can fundamentally alter the impact of those experiences.

More recently, Dweck (2014) suggests in her TED Talk framing failure and unacceptable performance as yet to be achieved:

“I heard about a high school in Chicago where students had to pass a certain number of courses to graduate, and if they didn’t pass a course; they got the grade “Not Yet.” And I thought that was fantastic, because if you get a failing grade, you think, I’m nothing, I’m nowhere. But if you get the grade ‘Not Yet’ you understand that you’re on a learning curve. It gives you a path into the future.”

Failure suggests finality and is stigmatizing (Sitkin, 1992). Students not yet helped interpret their failure as an opportunity for growth rather than evidence of incompetence and improved their academic performance (Yeager et al., 2014). It presumes there will be another time, and it also tells students that they might pass the course in the future. Yet says to an underperforming student that they are not stupid or a loser or that they cannot do it but provides a
path to the future and tells them, “You might pass the course the next time you try.” Failure is not treated like the other F word (Bauer, 2007).

Within an organizational context, the main attributes that create a growth-mindset environment are:

- Presenting skills as learnable;
- Conveying that the organization values learning and perseverance, not just ready-made genius or talent;
- Giving feedback in a way that promotes learning and future success; and
- Presenting managers as resources for learning (Farnan Street, 2016).

The use of yet would appear to be a behavior that managers can use in communicating that skills are learnable and that the organization values and promotes learning. Workers perceive that they can learn in time. Encouraging managers and supervisors to discuss problematic performance initially using yet may, in time, lead to the development of a growth mindset in managers even if they first had a fixed mindset. This is expected, in part, because, over time, behavior can change attitudes and assumptions (Von Bergen, Soper, & Chong, 2006), just as attitudes can change behavior. A growth mindset in leaders can also help create a growth mindset in employees.

HOPE

Centuries ago, Napoleon Bonaparte observed that “A leader is a dealer in hope” (Kruse, 2012). Gardner (1990) suggested that “the first and last task of the leader is to keep hope alive” (p. 195). More recently, Kouzes and Posner (1997) indicated that encouragement is central to the task of a leader and highlight the stimulation of hope as a key leadership role. It is increasingly important for organizational leaders to understand the significance of hope and to instill it in employees. Employees look to leaders to capitalize on the spirit and ideas of the times, to dream big, and to motivate them toward a worthy future.

Moreover, Helland and Winston (2005) showed that hopeful leaders could create hopeful thinking in their followers. They also found that without a sense of hope, followers are less likely to invest the necessary energy to complete the tasks needed to achieve organizational goals. Leadership, and particularly hopeful leadership, is needed to achieve desired goals.

Yet gives individuals a sense of hope. A person’s yet is coming; their yet has not quite arrived. It allows them to understand that they can accomplish what they hope to do; they are not there yet. People are not ashamed of the yet evaluation because they understand that they are expected to master the material, if not the first time, then the next time, or the next. Yet implies that soon with practice and perhaps a different approach, individuals will triumph, and failure is not inevitable, and their current level of knowledge or skill is not immutable. By using the word yet, supervisors provide hope for improvement and the motivation to continue (Rissanen, Kuusisto, Tuominen, & Tirri, 2019). By framing low performance, mistakes, or failure as an opportunity to improve, instead of a final result, yet gives workers a sense of hope and invites them to envision a brighter future by imagining possibilities of what could be or needs to be.

Hope is often allied with positive psychology, and appreciative inquiry (e.g., optimism, positive affect, self-efficacy, resiliency) and is an important construct in these literatures (Snyder, Rand, & Sigmon, 2002). Norman, Luthans, and Luthans (2005) further point out that hope has been one of the most widely researched variables in positive psychology and that the
research has produced empirical evidence that hope enhances individual performance in many settings. Hope is a relief from despair and anticipation that something beneficial will happen in the future. It is useful in explaining performance in many areas such as academics (e.g., Onwuegbuzie & Snyder, 2000), sports (Curry, Snyder, Cook, Ruby, & Rehm, 1997), and organizational behavior (Adams, Snyder, Rand, King, Sigman, & Pulvers, 2002; Luthans, 2002). For instance, Peterson and Byron (2008) found that more hopeful sales employees, mortgage brokers, and management executives had higher job performance, as measured a year later. In a fourth study, they found that higher hope management executives produced more and better-quality solutions to a job-related problem, suggesting that hopefulness may aid employees when confronted with problems and encounter obstacles at work. Workplace hope plays a vital role in the building of positive psychological capital, which is integral to higher worker satisfaction and productivity (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Hope theory (Snyder, 1994; Snyder et al., 1991), the most comprehensive approach to the scholarly study of hope, has three components: 1) having goal-oriented thoughts; 2) developing strategies to achieve goals, and 3) motivated to expend effort to achieve goals. It assumes that human actions are goal-directed (Snyder, 2000), and people are always trying to accomplish something. Hope can be defined as “goal-directed thinking in which people perceive that they can produce routes to desired goals (pathways thinking) and the requisite motivation to use those routes (agency thinking)” (Lopez, Snyder, & Teramoto-Pedrotti, 2003, p. 94). It is the energy and ideas that prompt people to change their circumstances. Within the theory, agency or goal-directed energy is the perceived capacity to use one’s pathways to reach the desired goals, and thus, it represents the motivational component of hope theory (Snyder, 2002). Agency thinking is important in all goal-directed thoughts, but it takes on special importance when individuals encounter roadblocks. High-hope individuals embrace self-talk agency phrases such as, “I can do this,” or “I am not going to be stopped” (Snyder, LaPointe, Crowson, & Early, 1998).

What is also needed is considering multiple strategies until the obstacle is overcome and praising that initiative and the learning that resulted. The idea of pathways that reflect the means to reach someone’s objectives and entail the thoughts of generating usable routes to meet the desired goals; for example, “I can think of many ways to get the things in life that are most important to me.” The pathways component of hope is influenced by the identification and generation of multiple tactics to accomplish the same goal, as well as to create contingency plans for overcoming potential obstacles and problems. Pathways thinking leads persons to consider more possible solutions when faced with novel or difficult problems. Higher hope individuals can conceive of many strategies to reach their goals and plan contingencies when faced with obstacles along the way. They view barriers as challenges to overcome and use their ability to change through reflection and assessment to generate alternative avenues to their goals (Snyder, 2000).

On the other hand, low-hope individuals are less likely to find alternate pathways or are more likely to disengage from their goals because of their lower motivation to pursue alternate strategies. Low-hope people stop interacting with the world. They pull back and do not show up (Gallup, 2009). Pathways thinking operates in a combined iterative process to generate hope (Snyder, 2000). As one becomes more hopeful, rather than problems, perceived difficulties as learning opportunities and challenges. We can develop and nurture hope (Snyder et al., 1991), and training and practice approaches can be developed in workplace settings (Curry et al., 1997).
Gallup (2009) defines the opposite of having hope as being “stuck.” Stuck means people cannot grow and improve and thus become discouraged. Stuck people do not have goals, they do not have the energy to move on, and they do not have many ideas about what direction to move in. Hope suggests the possibility of goal attainment. Individuals with high hope tend to be successful in their goal pursuits and, as a result, tend to experience more positive emotions. Hope nullifies fear. It gives individuals the belief that good things can happen in the future. People with low hope tend to have more difficulty in overcoming the barriers to goal attainment and, therefore, tend to experience more negative emotions (Lopez et al., 2003).

Despite these positive effects, it should be noted that hope sometimes inhibits taking necessary, or advisable, action. That is, hoping for something does not in itself imply doing anything about it. Rather, it can keep a person in a holding pattern rather than prompting them to act to achieve their hopes.

**POSITIVE EXPECTATIONS**

Expectations, personal beliefs about occurrences that may take place in the future, are often referred to as the Pygmalion Effect (Eden, 1990; what managers expect from subordinates significantly affects subordinate’s performance and careers), self-fulfilling prophecies (Merton, 1948; the process in which the expectation that an event will occur increases the likelihood of the event’s occurrence), or the placebo effect (Harvard Men’s Health Watch, 2019; the idea that one’s brain and the ritual of treatment can convince the body a fake cure or medicine is the real thing and thus stimulate healing). What we expect shapes what happens (Whitely, Sy, & Johnson, 2012). Indeed, organizational scholars and practitioners have long known that managers who expect more get more (e.g., Likert, 1961, 1967; McGregor, 1960). Expectations matter and can “bend reality” (Cook, 2012). Berdik (2012), for instance, found that highly-trained weight lifters can out-do their personal bests when they believe they’ve taken a performance booster and people who stand in powerful poses (think Superman) for a minute or two, have similar hormonal changes to people given actual power and authority over another person, and they exhibit the same sorts of behavioral changes. In organizational settings, Eden and Shani (1982) tested the applicability of the Pygmalion effect on adult military trainees and found that trainees with instructors who had been led to expect better performance scored significantly higher on objective achievement tests, exhibited more positive attitudes, and perceived more positive leadership behavior. Similarly, Eden and Ravid (1982) “found that raising instructors’ expectations for certain trainees resulted not only in higher performance for those trainees but also in those trainees having a higher expectation for themselves. Furthermore, raising the trainees’ expectations directly by telling certain trainees, not their instructors, that they had high potential also resulted in higher performance levels.”

The expectation of future employee success is communicated by yet. It conveys the viewpoint that difficulty and failure are opportunities to stop, reassess, and employ new strategies for making sense of problems. As a supervisor, it is important to instill in employees’ self-talk these words. When an employee says, “I don’t get it,” the nurturing yet supports the notion of eventual competence. The term yet, in many ways, also raises the manager’s expectations regarding their subordinates’ potential to be high performers (Eden, 1990). It seems that simply believing that a person can improve impacts their ability to succeed.
Nevertheless, a key feature of expectancy effects is that their effectiveness depends on the point in the process where introduced. For example, if teachers expect certain incoming students in their classroom to bloom intellectually, they elicit stronger performance from those students (Rosenthal, 1994). But the effects of this “high expectations” intervention disappear if it is delivered only a short time after teachers have met their students and begun to form their impressions of them (for a meta-analysis, see Raudenbush, 1984).

**SELF-EFFICACY**

Social-cognitive theory and its central variable, self-efficacy—the optimistic self-belief in one’s competence or chances of accomplishing a task and producing a favorable outcome, have been the focus of a voluminous amount of research in psychology. Its applicability is expressed as “pervasive across contexts and domains of human functioning” (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2003, p. 448). Self-efficacy has been employed in the work domain (Bandura, 1997). As indicated in the model in Figure 1, we can interpret the positive effects of yet through various methods, which can increase a worker’s self-efficacy.

Bandura (1997) indicated that “perceived self-efficacy refers to belief in one’s agentive capabilities, that one can produce given levels of attainment” (p. 382); that is, one’s belief in one’s capability to perform a specific task. It is founded on an individual’s belief in their capacity to achieve. When faced with obstacles, setbacks, and failures, those who doubt their capabilities slacken their efforts, give up prematurely or settle for poorer solutions. Those who have a strong belief in their capabilities redouble their effort to master the challenges (Bandura, 1997). Many studies have reported significant correlations between self-efficacy and subsequent task performance (Bandura, 1982).

Moreover, “a meta-analysis by Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) gathered the data from over 100 separate studies on the relationship between self-efficacy and job performance and found that there was a correlation of .38 between self-efficacy and work-related performance indicating that there is a strong linkage between self-efficacy and job performance. Certainly, some portion of this relationship is explained by successful performance influencing self-efficacy, but there is much evidence to suggest the opposite is a significant relationship as well: that increasing self-efficacy results in better job performance, on average” (https://positivepsychology.com/self-efficacy). Another meta-analysis conducted by Judge and Bono (2001) “found results that were just as significant—self-efficacy relates to job performance as well as job satisfaction. This indicates that not only do those with high self-efficacy tend to perform better in their jobs, and they also tend to like their jobs more” (https://positivepsychology.com/self-efficacy).

Bandura (1986, 1997) identified four main techniques for enhancing self-efficacy: 1) enactive mastery or building skills through practice; 2) role modeling or observing the performance of competent others with whom one can identify; 3) interpreting ambiguous states of arousal in positive terms (e.g., urging a person to interpret the butterflies in their stomach as excitement rather than fear; and 4) verbal persuasion or expression of encouragement aimed at convincing a person of his or her capability of performing a task. If people believe in themselves, they will exert more effort, which increases their chances of success. However, credible persuaders must be knowledgeable and practice what they preach. Effective efficacy builders do more than convey faith in others. They arrange situations for others in ways that bring success. They avoid placing them, prematurely, in situations where they are likely to fail. They measure
success by self-improvement, rather than by triumphs over others. Without enabling guidance, Pep Talks achieve little.

Guided mastery is a procedure that involves training people to perform a task by reducing it into its constituent elements, practicing the elements one at a time with instruction, and gradually reintegrating them into a whole (Bandura, 2009). The goal of this procedure is to build the trainee’s sense of self-efficacy through a series of “small wins” (Weick, 1984) by starting with easily mastered subtasks and gradually increasing difficulty and complexity until the trainee feels confident of performing the whole task. As Eden (1990) noted, using a small wins technique allows people to achieve challenging goals in the long term by pursuing relatively easy goals in the short term.

Leaders using guided mastery must learn to deliver constructive feedback to subordinates. Effective feedback should refer to some standard (Locke & Latham, 1990) and provide a constructive suggestion for how to improve performance or performance strategies (Bandura, 1997). Also, it is important to deliver feedback in an encouraging, non-threatening manner to avoid resentment or discouragement on the part of employees (White & Locke, 2000). This is what yet does.

When an employee says, “I don’t get it,” the nurturing yet supports the notion of eventual competence. Yet impacts worker self-efficacy (Judge, Jackson, Shaw, Scott, & Rich, 2007), gives employees greater confidence, provides them a path into the future that creates greater persistence, and the possibility of future achievement and success (Dweck, 2010). Influential people, such as managers, can strengthen subordinate beliefs that they have what it takes to succeed by using such language. Being persuaded that they possess the capabilities to master certain activities means that employees are more likely to put in the effort and sustain it when problems arise. By allowing underperforming workers the opportunity to experience small wins, celebrating even the little successes, and offering verbal encouragement in terms of yet, supervisors can help their employees succeed. Through carefully crafted wording, supervisors can instill increased self-efficacy leading to higher levels of worker performance.

CONCLUSION

Leaders can utilize yet with their employees in several areas, including training, performance appraisal, career development, and worker motivation. One practical micro intervention for enhancing performance not widely discussed in the workplace literature is the importance of providing honest critical feedback in the form of yet which leaves space and provides a possibility for improvement and future success.

Yet can increase a worker’s self-efficacy and subsequent performance through one or more of the following: creating a growth mindset, providing hope, and crafting positive expectations. Not a passive self-efficacy more akin to positive thinking and fantasizing but an active self-efficacy that is realistic, and that impels action. Empirical research is needed to determine the validity of the model and the contribution of each of these three mechanisms.

A small change in wording how we convey information can dramatically affect after it is received and acted upon. Leaders can make a big difference when communicating with underachieving followers by making a small change, such as using yet. Particularly with new employees, the power of yet suggests that the worker is not there yet, but she or he can get there. Yet leaves room for change and gives space for improvement. This allows employees to understand that they can accomplish what they desire; they are not there yet.
Supervisors can help their employees enhance self-efficacy but must also ask them to consider 1) what obstacles may lie ahead for them as they move to achieve their goal, and 2) what strategies they have developed to overcome possible difficulties. It is useful to keep in mind that anticipating favorable results is not without its hazards and that these risks are best reflected upon in advance. Indeed, Kappes and Oettingen (2011) found that the most positive fantasies about the future predicted poor achievement—when people imagined an idealized future, they had less energy and motivation to turn that fantasy into a reality. Results indicate that one reason positive fantasies predict poor achievement is that they do not generate energy to pursue the desired future. In such positive fantasies, people hardly question whether they can achieve the desired future, nor do they imagine that the path to the desired future may contain obstacles, setbacks, pain, or effort (Oettingen & Mayer, 2002).

The power of yet does not mean avoiding conflicts and dismissing problems. When they arise, they are validated and reframed as a possibility for future success. However, leveraging yet does not mean being naïve or Pollyannaish. By hiding and ignoring failure, people foreclose the possibility of learning from it, leaving a powerful resource untapped (Edmondson, 2011).

A key takeaway from this paper is that using yet tells employees that they can progress and motivates them to exert greater effort and to consider more effective work strategies. Instead of saying, “you didn’t do it,” say, “you didn’t do it yet.” This allows employees to understand that they can accomplish what they desire to do; they are not there yet. Sometimes, however, supervisors focus only on effort. This is problematic because it may foster a belief in workers that if they try hard enough, they will succeed no matter their strategies. In effect, it can bring them to repeat the same futile approaches repeatedly. On the other hand, insisting on the process or the use of multiple strategies (alternative “Plan Bs”) until we overcome the obstacle and praise that effort, teaches them that they may need to change their approaches to solve problems. Workers should be praised for their effort, but not the usual after-the-fact praise, which focuses on outcomes, but praise that focuses on the process of learning. It is not just about blanketing individuals in praise for any of their efforts, but also about praising the approaches they used and the entire process that leads to outcomes. Praise the effort as well as the strategies, focus, perseverance, and information-seeking concerning the outcome—with particular emphasis on learning and progress. A simple example of this would be saying, “I liked how you tried all these different strategies while solving this problem until you got it” instead of saying, “Great job. I knew you’d get it; you are smart!” Simply praising effort is ineffective.

When workers try hard but fail to progress, supervisors can begin by appreciating their effort, and utilizing yet but then they need to sit with them and say, “Show me what you’ve tried, and let’s figure out what you can try next” or “Tell me exactly what your thought process was when you did it this way, and let’s see if there are other ways that you can try.” The supervisor and employee can then take steps to collaborate on how to move forward more effectively. Indeed, successful supervisors hold all workers to high standards but help them to move toward those standards. Employees need an arsenal of things to do when they are confronting difficult work, not just brute force.

The emphasis on yet can sometimes turn into overlooking the flaws and weaknesses of workers, but those flaws in many cases can be corrected. This feedback is particularly useful and effective early on in a worker’s problematic performance. Unfortunately, some employees may not try or whose strategies are still inadequate. In such situations, businesses cannot retain employees who are unwilling or unable to perform their basic duties and must then turn to the
firm’s disciplinary protocol. A business’s obligation is not to provide jobs for their own sake, but to provide a quality product or service made by the people they employ.

Future research on yet could empirically validate our model and look more closely at the relationships between the key variables of mindset, hope, and expectations. It would be interesting to ascertain the most influential factor impacting an individual’s self-efficacy. Additionally, a review of other positive psychology concepts such as resilience, optimism, compassion, and psychological well-being might prove fruitful in exploring the consequences of yet.

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