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#### Abstract

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#### Introduction

Technology innovations have resulted in an increasing interconnected population, bridging distances by allowing people to instantaneously communicate over any distance. An enormous shift in the American population's diversity is evidenced by each census. The United States (U.S.) Census Bureau (2012) projects the U.S. may become a majority-minority nation for the first time in 2043. As the population makeup steadily continues to reflect globally diverse ethnicities, so will the exposures to different global cultures. One of the most impactful places of cultural exposure is within classrooms across the U.S. and this exposure plays a key role in developing global mindsets and awareness of a diverse array of cultures (VanderStel, 2014). For the first time in history, most U.S. schools are on the verge of becoming majority-minority schools where the overall number of Latino, African American, and Asian students in public K-12 classrooms surpasses the number of non-Hispanic whites. The success of these students is inseparably linked to the well-being of any nation (Maxwell, 2014). In addition to enrollment changes, educators must be mindful of a multitude of other challenges to students' education, including an increase in students living in poverty, an increase in English as a Second Language (ESL) learners (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2019), and an increase in students with vast differences in life experiences from those of their teachers, who remain overwhelmingly white. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (2013), in the 2011-12 academic year, 82 percent of 3.4 million public school teachers were non-Hispanic White. Previously in the 2003-04 academic year reports, 83 percent of all public-school teachers were non-Hispanic white. This represents only a one percent change over eight years (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013). With the ethnic diversity in teacher and student backgrounds, a growing social disconnect is occurring.

The increasing disconnect between teacher and student cultures are extending into classroom instruction. Unfortunately, many of America's teachers lack professional competence in the areas of diversity, experience in multicultural classrooms, and cross-cultural experiences. As a result, these teachers are not providing students with an education that expands their worldviews and allows them to become more informed of other cultures and nationalities (Milner, 2012; Cushner, McClelland, & Stafford, 2000). Furthermore, most teacher education programs do not provide pre-service teachers with significant intercultural experiences (Milner, 2012). Pre-service teachers are relatively inexperienced about global affairs, leaving a gap in the classroom curriculum (Goren & Yemini, 2017; Melnick & Zeichner, 1998). Regardless of their preparation, teachers will be called upon to teach individuals from very diverse backgrounds (Littleford & Nolan, 2013). In the world of agricultural education, experience and knowledge is especially important, as agriculture is not just a local phenomenon, rather spans across centuries and impacts every country in the world. Though the need for better cultural education of teachers and students applies to all areas of education, this work focuses specifically on the impact of global exposure and the experiences students have at the secondary level.

#### Need for the Study

A study by Lawrence, Rayfield, Moore, and Outley (2013) revealed that of the 7,487 FFA (formerly known as Future Farmers of America) chapters, during the time of their study, the collective racial composition of the chapters did not accurately reflect the racial composition of the U.S. population.

Of course, diversity is much broader than racial compositions, but the lack of racial exposure to the student organization reflects a deficiency for opportunities to engage discussions

that expands one's cultural mindset. Thankfully, there are other approaches for youth engagement in these critical conversations that enhance cultural beliefs, knowledge, and skillsets. Teaching from global experiences has a positive influence on broadening student perspectives on diversity and diverse issues (Banks, 2014; Milem, Chang, & Antonio, 2005), including democratic citizenship (Gurin, Nagda, & Lopez, 2004) and social justice (Banks, 2004). Consequently, agricultural education at the secondary level is limited in their global understanding and content. In 2015, Hurst, Roberts, and Harder conducted a national study and discovered that teachers had positive attitudes towards teaching students about global education, but few had traveled beyond the borders of the United States.

Unfortunately, preservice agriculture teachers prefer a global experience in a country similarly developed to the United States and with a large group of their peers (Murphrey, Lane, Harlin, & Cherry, 2016) limiting the opportunity for exposure that assist in the expansion of, not only their cultural perspective, but also the global mindset and cultural understanding of their students (Banks, 2014). However, once enrolled in the courses of preference, students report to not be fully engaged (Bunch, Lamm, Israel, & Edwards, 2013).

Students engaged in a longer global experience have noticed a more positive and influential difference in their cultural mindset. After serving ten weeks in Australia teaching agriculture, U.S. students identified an increase in cultural awareness by simply being exposed to someone from a different country for multiple months (Bunch, Stephens, & Hart, 2011). A qualitative interview occurred among college of agriculture faculty engaged in a study abroad program. Following their engagement, the faculty revealed how the international immersion assisted their cognizance and they now consider the cultural contexts of their students (Roberts, Rodriguez, Gouldthorpe, Stedman, Harder, & Hartmann, 2016). Furthermore, a higher global perspective is correlated to a more positive attitude for cultural diversity (Zhai & Scheer, 2004).

The 2016-2020 national research agenda for agricultural education contains a scientific focus to examine meaningful, engaged learning in all environments (Roberts, Harder, and Brashears, 2016). To begin this process, it is vital to first gain an idea of the level of cultural proficiency, or effectiveness of both agricultural students and agricultural educators. Once the intercultural effectiveness of students is known, teachers can then work on ways to increase their global exposure both in and out of the classroom.

#### **Theoretical Framework**

The study was guided by the Mere Exposure Theory (Zajonc, 1968). According to Zajonc (1968), familiarity and exposure to other cultures impact the formation of one's thoughts and ideas about individuals who are culturally different. The theory is shaped by two main concepts: 1) repeated exposure to a stimulus increases ones' perceptual fluency (how easily one processes a stimulus) and 2) increased perceptual fluency increases positive affect, or the tendency for one to "like" something (Reber, Winkielman, & Schwarz, 1998).

Mere Exposure is based on the phenomenon by which people tend to develop a preference for things merely because they are familiar with them and have been repeatedly exposed to them. This theory is often called the familiarity principle. In early research, the effects have been demonstrated with paintings, faces, characters, and sounds (Zajonc, 1968). This principle was demonstrated by a study conducted by Carlson and Widaman (1988), in which students who were repeatedly exposed to another culture showed higher levels of concern and interest in the areas of international political concern, cross-cultural interest, and cultural cosmopolitanism.

When testing Mere Exposure, Zajonc found a strong connection between "familiarity" and "liking". The connection would later be known as the affective primacy hypothesis, which posits affective reactions can be elicited with minimal stimulus input (Zajonc, 1980). In other words, the ability of someone to have an effective response to something (for example, liking something) requires very minimal stimuli. This was demonstrated in an experiment when subjects showed a positive bias or preference towards Chinese ideographs they had been previously exposed to during the experiment. Additionally, the time subjects spent making their decisions for liking an image, or not, decreased significantly on those images they had been exposed to previously (Kunst-Wilson & Zajonc, 1980).

When taking the idea of Mere Exposure into consideration, one can see the power the theory holds within the classroom context. The theory may be a valuable tool in expanding the worldviews of students by exposing them to individuals who are different from them. Mere Exposure theory is the underlying basis for the idea that cultural exposure can happen within the walls of a classroom and extend far beyond the lesson curriculum.

With the advancement over time, Mere Exposure has provided a lens in a variety of modern cultural concerns. Researchers found Mere Exposure coupled with intergroup contact reduces intergroup prejudice (Pettigrew & Troop, 2006); Pettigrew, Troop, Wagner, & Christ, 2011). Zebrowitz, White and Wieneke (2008), propose exposure may reduce racial prejudice by simply exposing people to other-race faces. Findings from this particular study are consistent with explanations for mere exposure effects as well as with the familiar face overgeneralization hypothesis (where prejudice is derived from negative reactions to faces that are of a different race). Similaly, Kinzler and Spelke (2011) examined the social preferences of children based on race. They found children begin to develop preferences based on race between the ages of 2.5 and 5-years old. These same-race preferences, in turn, affect social choices and interactions.

While the theory of Mere Exposure is versatile and can be applied to multiple scenarios, it may hold the key to some of the world's cultural hostility issues. When something or someone is familiar, people unconsciously perceive that person or object as being more likable and friendly. Is it possible much of the cultural dissonance that exists today is simply due to the lack of familiarity of one culture with another?

#### Purpose

The purpose of this descriptive correlational study is to examine the relationship global exposure has on secondary agriculture students' Intercultural Effectiveness. The guiding research questions for this quantitative study are as follows:

- 1) What international exposure have the participants experienced?
- 2) What are the results of the student participants' perceived Intercultural Effectiveness?
- 3) What is the relationship between students' Intercultural Effectiveness factors with one another?
- 4) What is the relationship between students' Intercultural Effectiveness by their international exposure?

#### Methods

To determine the relationship between a student's score on the Intercultural Effectiveness Survey and their global experiences and exposure. Before the collection data, the Office of Research Integrity (also known as IRB) approved the use of human subjects, following the acceptance of parental consent. During data collection, participants completed the IES questions in a Likert scale format, demographics, international exposure questions, and questions related to their agricultural education classrooms.

#### Instrument

The instrument utilized during this study was adapted from the original Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES) created by the Kozai Group, Inc. (2015). The IES assessment survey evaluates competencies critical for effective interaction with people who are from cultures other than one's own based on their national culture, gender, generation, ethnic group, religious affiliation, etc. There are three main Intercultural Adaptability factors assessed by the survey: Continuous Learning, Interpersonal Engagement, and Hardiness. Each of these three is broken down into two additional dimensions for a total of six different constructs of assessment (Kozai Group, Inc., 2015). The following figure illustrates this breakdown of Intercultural Adaptability factors and their sub-sections.

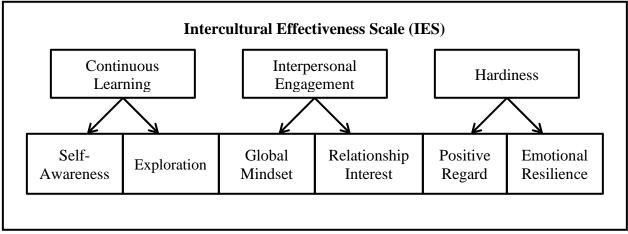


Figure 1. Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (Kozai Group, Inc., 2015)

Table 1 further defines the six constructs for interpreting Intercultural Effectiveness (Mendenhall, Stevens, Bird, Oddou, & Osland, 2012).

#### Table 1

Construct	Definition
Self-	The degree to which people are aware of their strengths and weaknesses in
Awareness	interpersonal skills, philosophies, and values, how past experiences have
	helped shape them into who they are as a person, and the impact personal values
	and behavior have on relationships with others
Exploration	An openness and active pursuit of the understanding of ideas, values, norms,
	situations, and behaviors that are new and different
Global	The degree to which one is interested in and seeks to actively learn about other
Mindset	cultures and the people that live in them
Relationship	The degree to which people have a desire and willingness to initiate and
Interest	maintain relationships with people from other cultures
Positive	The predisposition to view other cultures from a positive perspective
Regard	
Emotional	A person's emotional strength and ability to cope with challenging cross-
Resilience	cultural situations

*Defining constructs in the intercultural effectiveness scale (Mendenhall, et al., 2012)* 

In terms of reliability measures for this instrument, the Kozai Group published reliability measures for the six intercultural effectiveness survey constructs and reliability scores are: self-awareness (a = 0.76), exploration (a = 0.82, global mindset (a = 0.84), relationship interest (a = 0.80), positive regard (a = 0.79), and emotional resilience (a = 0.81) (Mendenhall, et al., 2012). The instrument included all original Intercultural Effectiveness Survey questions in their entirety. Also, the PI added additional demographic questions, which were tailored for high school students as the original survey was created for adults ages 18 and up. The researchers also added questions related to the student's agricultural education experiences. A panel of experts (n = 9) reviewed the questionnaire, as amended, for face and content validity. The panel consisted of college professors with international experience as well as future agriculture teachers. The panel provided feedback that resulted in minimal amendments to the questionnaire, but not, of which, affected the overall intent of the questions and questionnaire.

#### **Population and Sample**

For the context of this study, the researchers began by considering each agricultural education program (N = 126) in [STATE]; however, a variety of factors limited the overall population. Limitations that led to a decrease in the population were the presence of a teacher whose school's employment was a minimum of four years. A four-year minimum was set to reflect the teacher's influence on the student throughout their tenure of high school. Considering the schools that contained teachers with less than four years of teaching experience were pulled from the population, a stratified random sampling technique was installed (Singh & Masuku, 2014) within the population. From the narrowed list (n = 76), a random selection of 15 schools were selected and invited to participate. Due to scheduling conflicts or inability to gain administration permission for participation, 11 schools consented to participate.

From the selected 11 agricultural education programs, a total of 401 students participated in the study. Due to missing answers or the inability to complete the survey, 14 surveys were omitted from the dataset; thus, a total 387 responses were analyzed in the study with the majority identifying themselves as White (f = 326, 84.24%) and males (f = 226, 58.40%). The largest number of students had taken only one year of agriculture courses (f = 181, 46.77%). The researchers requested seniors to complete the questionnaire. Seniors were purposefully selected because they are considered the face of four-year programs as they reflect the philosophies set forth by the leaders before them (Dhuey & Lipscomb, 2008). Considering most seniors were not 18 years of age, the researchers obtained parental consent followed by the student's assent.

Once the researcher obtained school consent, a date was scheduled for a face-to-face visit. All students that provided parental consent participated in the online questionnaire. At some schools, students were provided with in-class computers while a designated computer lab was provided for the remaining. Before the completion of the questionnaire, the researchers provided the participants with the purpose, instructions, clarifying statements, and assistance in the form of proctoring.

#### **Data Analysis**

Data were transferred onto Google Forms and downloaded into a Microsoft Excel worksheet to allow for data analysis. Utilizing Google Forms allowed the researcher to see the breakdown of individual questions in a more user-friendly and readable format. Quantitative data from Likert scale and demographic questions were analyzed and correlations were derived using Pearson product-moment correlation and reported as an r. To provide a magnitude adjective to explain the correlations sought, Miller's (1994) descriptors were utilized. The descriptors, as provided by Miller (1994), are: 0.0-0.1 "very small"; 0.1-0.3 "small"; 0.3-05 "medium"; 05.-07 "large"; 0.7-0.9 "very large"; 0.9-1.0 "nearly perfect."

#### Findings

Research question 1 sought to describe a variety of international exposures the students encompassed. When evaluating the languages spoken, many were English only (f = 350; 90.4%), followed by students who spoke two languages fluently (f = 33; 8.5%). Most students had an agriculture teacher who had traveled outside of the U.S. (f = 271; 70.0%). Many students reported having no family members from another country (f = 318; 82.2%) as well as having no friends from another country (f = 260; 67.2%). When asked about the student's family members' military service overseas, the majority had a family member (f = 227, 58.7%) in the armed forces who had served, or are serving, overseas. Most students reported never living in another country (f = 374; 96.6%) nor had ever completed a high school study abroad trip (f = 386; 99.7%). The majority of students had never been outside of the U.S. (f = 280, 72.4%), followed by students who had taken one trip outside of the U.S. (f = 48, 12.4%), students who had taken multiple trips outside of the U.S. (f = 69, 17.8%). Table 2 expands upon the findings in research question 1.

Table 2

Student participant demographics (n = 387)

	f	%
Languages Spoken		
One	350	90.4
Two	33	8.5
Three	3	0.8
Four or more	1	0.3
Citizenship in Other Country		
None	365	94.3
One	22	5.7
Ag. Teacher has Travelled Outside the U.S.		
Yes	271	70.0
No	116	30.0
Do You Have Family from Another Country?		
Yes	69	17.8
No	318	82.2
Do You Have Friends from Another Country?		
Yes	127	32.8
No	260	67.2
Do You Have Family in the Armed Forces Who Have Tra	veled/Served Overse	eas?
Yes	227	58.7
No	160	41.3
Have You Lived in Another Country?		
Yes	13	3.4
No	374	96.6
Participation in a High School Study Abroad Program?		
Yes	1	0.3

No	386	99.7
Have You Ever Traveled Outside of the U.S.?		
Yes	107	27.7
No	280	72.4
Number of Trips Outside of the U.S.		
None	280	72.4
One	48	12.4
Two	29	7.5
Three	12	3.1
Four	6	1.6
Five	2	0.5
Six or More	10	2.6

Table 3 describes the Intercultural Effectiveness of student participants (n = 387). The students responded to the six areas of Intercultural effectiveness: Self-Awareness, Exploration, Global Mindset, Relationship Interest, Positive Regard, and Emotional Resilience. Once this data was collected, the mean, standard deviation, and range of the data were determined. When looking at each construct from the Intercultural Effectiveness Survey (IES) the following mean, standard deviation, and range were found for: Self-Awareness (m = 3.82; SD = 0.08); Exploration (m = 3.95; SD = 0.46); Global Mindset (m = 2.22; SD = 0.71); Relationship Interest (m = 3.05; SD = 0.46); Positive Regard (m = 3.47; SD = 0.60); and Emotional Resilience (m = 3.32; SD = 0.51).

Table 3Description of student intercultural effectiveness (n = 387)

			Range
Construct	M	SD	(Low – High)
Exploration	3.95	0.46	2.60 - 5.00
Self-Awareness	3.82	0.08	2.33 - 5.00
Positive Regard	3.47	0.60	1.44 - 5.00
Emotional Resilience	3.32	0.51	1.67 - 5.00
Relationship Interest	3.05	0.46	1.00 - 4.63
Global Mindset	2.22	0.71	1.00 - 4.57

Research question three sought to determine a relationship between the Intercultural Effectiveness constructs. Self-Awareness had a large, positive relationship with Exploration (r = 0.575), a very small positive relationship with Global Mindset (r = 0.087), a small positive relationship interest (r = 0.179), and a very small positive relationship with Positive Regard (r = 0.095). Self-Awareness has a very small negative relationship (r = -0.044) with Emotional Resilience. Exploration had a small positive relationship with Global Mindset (r = 0.178); a small positive relationship with Relationship interest (r = 0.163) and Emotional Resilience (r = 0.109); and a very small positive relationship with Positive Regard (r = 0.079). Global Mindset has a very small positive relationship with Self Awareness (r = 0.087) and Positive Regard (r = 0.058); a small positive relationship with Exploration (r = 0.178) and Emotional Resilience (r = 0.135); and a medium positive relationship with Relationship Interest (r = 0.319). Relationship Interest has a very small positive relationship with Relationship with Relationship Interest (r = 0.319). Relationship Interest has a very small positive relationship with Emotional

Table 4

Resilience (r = 0.173); and a small positive relationship with Positive Regard (r = 0.225). Positive Regard had a small positive relationship with Emotional Resilience (r = 0.171).

Relationship of intercultural effectiveness constructs							
	SA	EX	GM	RI	PR	ER	
Self-Awareness (SA)	-	0.575	0.087	0.179	0.095	-0.044	
Exploration (EX)		-	0.178	0.163	0.079	0.109	
Global Mindset (GM)			-	0.319	0.058	0.134	
Relationship Interest (RI)				-	0.225	0.173	
Positive Regard (PR)					-	0.171	
Emotional Resilience (ER)						-	

Research question four sought to determine if a relationship existed among the various Intercultural Effectiveness Survey constructs (Self-Awareness, Exploration, Global Mindset, Relationship Interest, Positive Regard, and Emotional Resilience) and student characteristics (have/had citizenship in another country; high school agriculture teacher has traveled internationally; number of languages spoken; including having family from another country; having friends from another country; having family in the armed forces who have been overseas; having lived in another country; having participated in a school study abroad trip; traveled outside of the U.S.; and number of international experiences). As Table 5 provides that in the current student a small or very small relationship exists among the participants' Intercultural Effectiveness and their student characteristics.

	Teacher Travel	Family from Other Country	Friends from Other Country	Family in Armed Forces	Lived in Another Country	High School Study Abroad	Student Travel
Self-Awareness	0.036	-0.035	-0.006	-0.024	-0.106	-0.054	0.047
Exploration	0.024	0.028	0.147	0.018	0.056	0.016	0.068
Global Mindset	-0.051	0.064	0.051	0.055	0.051	0.056	0.019
<b>Relationship Interest</b>	-0.166	0.010	-0.020	0.035	-0.062	0.036	-0.093
Positive Regard	-0.080	0.013	0.046	0.035	0.067	0.017	-0.028
Emotional Resilience	-0.077	0.043	0.062	0.019	0.019	0.035	-0.022

Table 5Relationship of intercultural effectiveness constructs to student characteristics

#### **Conclusion, Implications, and Recommendations**

There is little to argue regarding the need to expand global mindsets within our youth; however, differences may exist as to the approach the profession should take at expanding the mindset. Within the context of the current study, the researchers examined the possible global surroundings of the secondary agricultural education students within random schools throughout [STATE] and assessed their intercultural effectiveness.

Of the six constructs questioned within the Intercultural Effectiveness Scale, students reported highest on Exploration, which refers to openness and active pursuit of the understanding of ideas, values, norms, situations, and behaviors that are new and different. In a study conducted by Kealey (1996), having an interest in Exploration was an important part of global competency and one's willingness to explore their intrigue regarding different cultures, which normally lead to a desire to understand people and traditions. Furthermore, studies conducted by those in the education field suggest that overseas teaching experiences for pre-service teachers expand intercultural effectiveness, develop an appreciation for the location visited, and enhances the critique of their own culture in the process. The appreciation and reflection cause increased respect for diverse ways to include more cross-cultural examples within their classrooms and curriculum in addition to continuing to increase their level of intercultural effectiveness. As the Exploration data indicates, students are more interested in learning about other cultures or individuals who are culturally and globally different from them. One approach to the recommendation includes teachers incorporating examples of agricultural practices from other countries around the world and then comparing them to practices found in the U.S. teachers may also look to their local community for assistance in incorporating other cultures and international networks into their classrooms. The hosting of a cultural lunch/dinner where students learn to prepare a dish from another culture along with the ingredients origins, traditions and agricultural practices.

Closely following *Exploration* was the construct of *Self-Awareness*. According to Jokinen (2005) Self-Awareness was fundamental to one's ability to effectively work with people from other cultures. Similarly, Varner and Palmer (2005) argued that "conscious cultural self-knowledge is a crucial variable in adapting to other cultures" (p. 1). Based on these findings, it is suggested that all teachers and students take an intercultural effectiveness survey to identify their strengths and weaknesses in intercultural communication and begin to work towards increasing their cultural competence in these six construct areas. High Self Awareness indicates that the students would be more comfortable with who they are as individuals and also more adaptable to situations when they were exposed to other cultures. Students who perform higher in self-awareness appreciate classroom discussions about global policies and issues affecting agriculture. Because of the significance of this data in Self-Awareness teachers should encourage their students to discuss more controversial and analytical topics within the agricultural classroom. Topics such as animal rights/welfare, the ethics of cloning, and the perception of antibiotics in conventional farming methods may be examples of controversial issues to discuss as they may be different around the world.

Global Mindset was the lowest scored construct, among the 387 secondary agriculture youth. In his research on international experiences in creating a teacher that is both culturally competent and internationally-minded, Cushner and Mahon (2002) believed "humans, as social beings, learn best in situations when the complexity of social reality is encountered, examined, and understood" (p. 36). Furthermore, he discovered that the lived intercultural experience is the most beneficial type of experience in gaining a meaningful understanding of other cultures. In 2007, Cushner further found that lived experiences expanded cross-cultural knowledge and developed a global perspective. According to Cushner's work students who are familiar with other countries or cultures (through having family, friends, or other connections) will also be more likely to desire to maintain relevancy on the status of the countries or cultures; thus, Global Mindset improves. Teachers need to engage students in assignments that include participation in cultural interactions. The most beneficial and logical suggestion for increasing one's Global

Mindset scores is to have students (and teachers) interact with people who are culturally different from them. This includes utilizing residents from the community (i.e. local restaurant and store owners for specialty foods), utilizing an educational trip that is centered on agriculture (i.e. a tour of the major agricultural regions of France to learn their major products and exports), or utilizing other means of technology to infuse cultural experiences into the classroom curriculum (i.e. video conference calls, videos, documentaries, or social media).

In terms of the relationships between the students' Intercultural Effectiveness, as shown by Table 3, a positive relationship existed between Self-Awareness and Exploration; while students who scored high in Global Mindset positively scored high in Relationship Interest. Remember from the construct descriptions earlier that Relationship Interest refers to the degree to which people have a desire and willingness to initiate and maintain relationships with people from other cultures. People high on this dimension work have a more difficult time developing relationships with others (Mendenhall et al., 2012). Black, Morrison, and Gregersen (1999) describe it as the ability to emotionally connect with others. Based on the findings, it can be concluded that when students are more aware of themselves, they are also more likely to be interested in learning about other people. Students who have an elevated Global Mindset are also more likely to be interested in forming and keeping relationships with those who are culturally different from them. Therefore, the recommendation for all students to take the IES survey is strengthened. This will allow them to identify their cultural strengths and weaknesses and allow them to find ways in which they can improve their abilities in those lower-scoring constructs.

In addition to increasing our students' Global Mindset scores, it may also be beneficial to increase our teachers' Global Mindset scores. Throughout post-secondary institutions, educational abroad experiences immerse students in an environment that is different than that of their norm, but does it enhance teaching following the experience? Is intercultural effectiveness enhanced? And are the college students obtaining the ability to adapt to various situations, which transpires to the students they will one day teach? As a suggestion to [STATE] Department of Education Staff, it would be beneficial to offer an intercultural effectiveness professional development opportunity for current teachers.

The results of this study tell a story that can assist current educators to better understand the needs of their increasingly diverse student population, see where the average student ranks in terms of intercultural awareness, and introduce the conversation of increasing intercultural effectiveness both in and out of the classroom. Furthermore, in the ever-shifting cultural climate of America's schools, agricultural educators must recruit and retain students from all races, ethnicities, genders, religions, and statuses. It is pivotal that youth gain a respect for agriculture as one of the oldest traditions allowed in an established society, and at the same time, learn to respect others for their diverse contributions, perspectives, and opinions no matter how similar or different they may be.

The findings are exploratory, but provide practicing scholars with discussion points for further exploration and theoretical development. To expand our preservice teachers for a multicultural classroom environment, further studies are needed to see the depth and breadth of cultural exposure (Zajonc, 1968) and further explore its role in intercultural effectiveness. How effective are our international experiences in helping expand an individual's desire to talk to others who are culturally different?

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