46. An entire Web site (cont.)

b. Web site with organization as author

Title of Web site
Organization

c. Web site with no author

Begin with the title of the site. If the site has no title, begin with a label such as “Home page.”


47. Short work from a Web site

a. Short work with author

Author: Last name first
Title of short work
Title of Web site

b. Short work with no author

Title of article
Title of Web site

Citation at a glance

Short work from a Web site (MLA style)

To cite a short work from a Web site in MLA style, include the following elements:

1. Author(s) of short work (if any)
2. Title and subtitle of short work
3. Title and subtitle of Web site
4. Publisher or sponsor of Web site (unless it is the same as the title of site)
5. Update date
6. URL of page (or of home page of site)
7. Date of access (if no update date on site)

For more on citing sources from Web sites in MLA style, see items 47 and 48.
48. **Long work from a Web site**

- **author**: last name as first title of long work and title of Web site
- **URL**: website URL


49. **Entire blog**

Cite a blog as you would an entire Web site (see item 46).


50. **Blog post or comment**

Cite a blog post or comment as you would a short work from a Web site (see item 47). If the post or comment has no title, use the label “Blog post” or “Blog comment.” Follow with the remaining information as for an entire blog (see item 49). (See item 11 for the use of screen names.)

- **author**: last name first
- **title of blog post**: title of blog
- **URL**: website URL
- **date**: date


51. **Academic course or department home page**

Cite as a short work from a Web site (see item 47). For a course home page, begin with the name of the instructor and the title of the course or title of the page (use “Course home page” if there is no other title). For a department home page, begin with the name of the department and the label “Department home page.” End with the URL.

54. Supplementary material accompanying a film Begin with the title of the supplementary material, in quotation marks, and the names of any important contributors, as for a film. End with information about the film, as in item 53, and about the location of the supplementary material.


55. Video or audio from the Web Cite video or audio that you accessed on the Web as you would a short work from a Web site (see item 47), giving information about the author before other information about the video or audio.

author: last name first
title of video
Web site title
date
URL

author: last name first
title of video
Web site title
date
URL
12 Feb. 2014, www.nps.gov/media/video/view.htm?id=C92C0D0A-1DD8-B71C-07C8C6E8970CD73F.

author: last name first
title of video
Web site title
date

56. Video game List the developer or author of the game (if any); the title, italicized; the version, if there is one; and the distributor and date of publication. If the game can be played on the Web, add information as for a work from a Web site (see item 47).


57. Computer software or app Cite as a video game (see item 56), giving whatever information is available about the version, distributor, and date.


58. Television or radio episode or program If you are citing an episode or a segment of a program, begin with the title of the episode or segment, in quotation marks. Then give the title of the program, italicized; relevant information about the program, such as the writer, director, performers, or narrator; the episode number (if any); the network; and the date of broadcast.

For a program you accessed on the Web, after the information about the program give the network, the original broadcast date, and the URL. If you are citing an entire program (not an episode or a segment), begin your entry with the title of the program, italicized.

a. Broadcast

title of episode
program title
author: last name first
title of video
network
broadcast date
URL

58. Television or radio episode or program (cont.)

b. Web

Table: Television or radio episode or program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title of Episode</th>
<th>Narrator</th>
<th>Episode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;The Cathedral. Reply All,&quot; narrated by Srinith Pinnamneni,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>publisher/sponsor</td>
<td>of posting</td>
<td>URL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


How to cite a source reposted from another source

PROBLEM: Some sources that you find online, particularly on video-sharing sites, did not originate with the person who uploaded or published the source online. How do you give proper credit for such sources?

EXAMPLE: Say you need to cite President John F. Kennedy’s inaugural address. You have found a video on YouTube that provides footage of the address (see image). The video was uploaded by PaddyIrishMan2 on October 29, 2006. But clearly, PaddyIrishMan2 is not the author of the video or of the address.

JFK Inaugural Address 1 of 2

[Video icon] PaddyIrishMan2 · 12 videos

Uploaded on Oct 29, 2006

President John F. Kennedy’s inaugural address, January 20th 1961.

Vice President Johnson, Mr. Speaker, Mr. Chief Justice, President Eisenhower, Vice President Nixon, President Truman, reverend clergy, fellow citizens, we observe today not a victory of party, but a celebration of freedom — symbolizing an end, as well as a beginning — signifying renewal, as well as change. For I have sworn before you and Almighty God the same solemn oath our forebears prescribed nearly a century and three quarters ago.

59. Transcript

You might find a transcript related to an interview or a program on a radio or television Web site or in a transcript database. Cite the source as you would an interview (see item 27) or a radio or television program (see item 58). Add the label “Transcript” at the end of the entry.


STRATEGY: Start with what you know. The source is a video that you viewed on the Web. For this particular video, John F. Kennedy is the speaker and the author of the inaugural address. PaddyIrishMan2 is identified as the person who uploaded the source to YouTube.

CITATION: To cite the source, you can combine the basic MLA guidelines for a lecture or public address (see item 61) and for a video found on the Web (see item 55).


Because Kennedy’s inauguration is a well-known historical event, you can be fairly certain that this is not the only version of the inauguration video. It is a good idea, therefore, to include information about the version you viewed as supplementary information.


note: If your work calls for a primary source, you should try to find the original source of the video; a reference librarian can help.
60. Performance For a live performance of a concert, a play, a ballet, or an opera, begin with the title of the work performed, italicized (unless it is named by form, number, and key). Then give the author or composer of the work; relevant information such as the director, the choreographer, the conductor, or the major performers; the theater, ballet, or opera company, if any; the theater and location; and the date of the performance.

The Draft. By Peter Snoad, directed by Diego Arciniegas, Hibernian Hall, Boston, 10 Sept. 2015.

Symphony no. 4 in G. By Gustav Mahler, conducted by Mark Wigglesworth, performances by Juliane Banse and Boston Symphony Orchestra, Symphony Hall, Boston, 17 Apr. 2009.

61. Lecture or Public Address Begin with the speaker's name, the title of the lecture, the sponsoring organization, location, and date. If you viewed the lecture on the Web, cite as you would a short work from a Web site (see item 47). Add the label "Address" or "Lecture" at the end if it is not clear from the title.

a. Live


b. Web


62. Musical Score For both print and online versions, begin with the composer's name; the title of the work, italicized (unless it is named by form, number, and key); and the date of composition. For a print source, give the publisher and date. For an online source, give the title of the Web site; the publisher or sponsor; the date; and the URL.


63. Sound Recording Begin with the name of the person you want to emphasize: the composer, conductor, or performer. For a long work, give the title, italicized (unless it is named by form, number, and key); the names of pertinent artists; and the orchestra and conductor. End with the manufacturer and the date.


64. Work of Art (a) For an original work of art, cite the artist's name; the title of the artwork, italicized; the date of composition; and the institution and city in which the artwork is located. (b) For artworks found on the Web, include the title of the Web site (unless it is the same as the institution) and the URL. (c) If you viewed the artwork as a reproduction in a print source, add publication information about the print source, including the page number or figure number for the artwork.

a. Original

64. Work of art (cont.)

b. Web


c. Reproduction (print)


65. Photograph  (a) For an original photograph, cite the photographer's name; the title of the photograph, italicized; the date of composition; and the institution and city in which the photograph is located. (b) For photographs found on the Web, include the title of the Web site (unless it is the same as the institution) and the URL. (c) If you viewed the photograph as a reproduction in a print source, add publication information about the print source, including the page number or figure number for the artwork. Add the label "Photograph" at the end if it is not clear from the rest of the entry.

a. Original


b. Web


c. Reproduction (print)


66. Cartoon  Give the cartoonist's name; the title of the cartoon, if it has one, in quotation marks; publication information; and the label "Cartoon" at the end. To cite an online cartoon, cite as a short work from a Web site (item 47).


67. Advertisement  Name the product or company being advertised and publication information for the source in which the advertisement appears. Add the label "Advertisement" at the end.


68. Visual such as a table, a chart, or another graphic  Cite a visual as you would a short work within a longer work.


69. Map  Cite a map as you would a short work within a longer work. Or, if the map is published on its own, cite it as a book or another long work. Use the label "Map" at the end if it is not clear from the title or source information.

Government and legal documents

70. Government document  Treat the government agency as the author, giving the name of the government followed by the name of the department and the agency, if any. For sources found on the Web, follow the model for an entire Web site (see item 46) or for short or long works from a Web site (see items 47 and 48).

How to cite course materials

PROBLEM: Sometimes you will be assigned to work with materials that an instructor has uploaded to a course Web site or has handed out in class. Complete publication information may not always be given for such sources. A PDF file or a hard copy article, for instance, may have a title and an author’s name but give no other information. Or a video may not include information about the creator or the date the video was created. When you write a paper using such sources, how should you cite them in your own work?

EXAMPLE: Perhaps your instructor has included a PDF file of an article in a collection of readings on the course Web site (see image at right). You are writing a paper in which you use a passage from the work.

THE IMAGE OF THE RAILROAD IN ANNA KARENINA

Guy R. John, University of Chicago

The motif of the railroad recurs so frequently in Leo Tolstoy’s Anna Karenina that the reader cannot help but see it as a metaphor for the modernity of 19th century Russia. The railroad is shown to be a symbol of progress and change, yet it also represents the decay and corruption that is facing Russian society. The railroad is shown to connect the East and West, bringing new ideas and culture to the Russian people, but also bringing new problems and conflicts.

government department agency (or agencies)

STRAIGHT: Look through section 56b for a model that matches the type of source you’re working with. Is it an article? A chapter from a book? A photograph? A video? The model or models you find will give you an idea of the information you need to gather about the source. The usual required information is (1) the author or creator, (2) the title, (3) the date the work was published or created, and (4) the URL for sources on the Web (see p. 471).

CITATION: For your citation, you can give only as much of the required information as you can find in the source. In this example, you know the source is an article with an author and a title, so you can use item 13a (basic format for an article). Because you don’t have much other information about the source, it is a good idea to include the description “Course materials” and supplementary information about the course (such as its title or number and the term).

author: last name first article title
John, Gary R. “The Image of the Railroad in Anna Karenina.”

supplementary information
Course materials, EN101, Fall 2013.

NOTE: When in doubt about how much information to include or where to find it, consult your instructor.
70. Government document (cont.)


71. Testimony before a legislative body


72. Historical document

The titles of most historical documents, such as the US Constitution and the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, are neither italicized nor put in quotation marks. For a print version, cite as a selection in an anthology (see item 35) or as a book (with the title not italicized). For an online version, cite as a short work from a Web site (see item 47).


73. Legislative act (law)

Begin with the name of the act, neither italicized nor in quotation marks. Then provide the act's Public Law number; its Statutes at Large volume and page numbers; and its date of enactment.


74. Court case

Name the first plaintiff and the first defendant. Then give the volume, name, and page number of the law report; the court name; the year of the decision; and publication information. Do not italicize the name of the case. (In the text of the paper, the name of the case is italicized; see item 19 on p. 465.)


Personal communication and social media

75. E-mail message

Begin with the writer's name and the subject line. Then write "Received by," followed by the name of the recipient. End with the date of the message.


76. Text message


77. Posting to an online discussion list

When possible, cite archived versions of postings. If you cannot locate an archived version, keep a copy of the posting for your records. Begin with the author's name, followed by the title or subject line, in quotation marks (use the label "Online posting" if the posting has no title). Then proceed as for a short work from a Web site (see item 47).

78. **Facebook post or comment**  Cite as a short work from a Web site (see item 47), beginning with the writer's screen name followed by the real name in parentheses, if both are given. Otherwise use whatever name is given in the source. Follow with the title of the post, if any, in quotation marks. If there is no title, use the label "Post."


79. **Twitter post (tweet)** Begin with the writer's screen name followed by the real name in parentheses, if both are given. Otherwise use whatever name is given in the source. Give the text of the entire tweet in quotation marks, using the writer's capitalization and punctuation. Follow the text with the date and time noted on the tweet, and end with the URL.

Curiosity Rover. "Can you see me waving? How to spot #Mars in the night sky: https://youtu.be/hk8hvW3lsQo." Twitter, 5 Nov. 2015, 11:00 a.m., twitter.com/marscuriosity/status/672859022911889408.

@grammarcharter (Patricia T. O’Conner and Steward Kellerman). "Is ‘if you will,’ like, a verbal tic? #English #language #grammar #etymology #usage #linguistics #WORD." Twitter, 14 Mar. 2016, 9:12 a.m., twitter.com/grammarcharter.

56c **MLA information notes (optional)**

Researchers who use the MLA system of parenthetical documentation may also use information notes for one of the two purposes:

1. to provide additional material that is important but might interrupt the flow of the paper
2. to refer to several sources that support a single point or to provide comments on sources

Information notes may be either footnotes or endnotes. Footnotes appear at the foot of the page; endnotes appear on a separate page at the end of the paper, just before the list of works cited. For either style, the notes are numbered consecutively throughout the paper. The text of the paper contains a raised Arabic numeral that corresponds to the number of the note.

**Text**

In the past several years, employees have filed a number of lawsuits against employers because of online monitoring practices.¹

**Note**

¹ For a discussion of federal law applicable to electronic surveillance in the workplace, see Kesan 293.

57 **MLA manuscript format; sample research paper**

The following guidelines are consistent with advice given in the MLA Handbook, 8th edition (MLA, 2016), and with typical requirements for student papers. For a sample MLA research paper, see pages 517–25.

57a **MLA manuscript format**

**Formatting the paper**

Papers written in MLA style should be formatted as follows.

**Font** If your instructor does not require a specific font, choose one that is standard and easy to read (such as Times New Roman).

**Title and identification** MLA does not require a title page. On the first page of your paper, place your name, your instructor's name, the course title, and the date on separate lines against the left margin. Then center your title. (See p. 517 for a sample first page.)
If your instructor requires a title page, ask for formatting guidelines.

Page numbers (running head) Put the page number preceded by your last name in the upper right corner of each page, one-half inch below the top edge. Use Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3, and so on).

Margins, line spacing, and paragraph indents Leave margins of one inch on all sides of the page. Left-align the text.

Double-space throughout the paper. Do not add extra space above or below the title of the paper or between paragraphs.

Indent the first line of each paragraph one-half inch from the left margin.

Capitalization, italics, and quotation marks In titles of works, capitalize all words except articles (a, an, the), prepositions (to, from, between, and so on), coordinating conjunctions (and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet), and the to in infinitives—unless the word is first or last in the title or subtitle. Follow these guidelines in your paper even if the title appears in all capital or all lowercase letters in the source.

In the text of an MLA paper, when a complete sentence follows a colon, lowercase the first word following the colon unless the sentence is a quotation or a well-known expression or principle.

Italicize the titles of books, journals, magazines, and other long works, such as Web sites. Use quotation marks around the titles of articles, short stories, poems, and other short works.

Long quotations When a quotation is longer than four typed lines of prose or three lines of poetry, set it off from the text by indenting the entire quotation one-half inch from the left margin. Double-space the indented quotation and do not add extra space above or below it.

Do not use quotation marks when a quotation has been set off from the text by indenting. See page 522 for an example.

URLs If you need to break a URL at the end of a line in the text of a paper, break it only after a slash or a double slash or before any other mark of punctuation. Do not add a hyphen. If you will post your project online or submit it electronically and you want your readers to click on your URLs, do not insert any line breaks. For MLA guidelines on dividing URLs in your list of works cited, see page 516.

Headings MLA neither encourages nor discourages the use of headings and provides no guidelines for their use. If you would like to insert headings in a long essay or research paper, check first with your instructor.

Visuals MLA classifies visuals as tables and figures (figures include graphs, charts, maps, photographs, and drawings). Label each table with an Arabic numeral ("Table 1," "Table 2," and so on) and provide a clear caption that identifies the subject. Capitalize the caption as you would a title (see 45c); do not italicize the label or caption or place them in quotation marks. Place the label and caption on separate lines above the table, flush with the left margin.

For a table that you have borrowed or adapted, give the source below the table in a note like the following:


For each figure, place the figure number (using the abbreviation "fig.") and a caption below the figure, flush left. Capitalize the caption as you would a sentence; include source information following the caption. (When referring to the figure in your paper, use the abbreviation "fig." in parenthetical citations; otherwise spell out the word.) See page 519 for an example of a figure in a paper.

Place visuals in the text, as close as possible to the sentences that relate to them, unless your instructor prefers that visuals appear in an appendix.

Preparing the list of works cited

Begin the list of works cited on a new page at the end of the paper. Center the title "Works Cited" about one inch from the top of the page. Double-space throughout. See pages 117 and 524–5 for sample lists of works cited.
Alphabetizing the list  Alphabetize the list by the last names of the authors (or editors); if a work has no author or editor, alphabetize by the first word of the title other than A, An, or The.

If your list includes two or more works by the same author, use the author’s name for the first entry only. For subsequent entries, use three hyphens followed by a period. List the titles in alphabetical order. (See items 6 and 7 on p. 473.)

Indenting  Do not indent the first line of each works cited entry, but indent any additional lines one-half inch. This technique highlights the names of the authors, making it easy for readers to scan the alphabetized list. See page 524.

URLs (Web addresses)  If you need to include a URL in a works cited entry and it must be divided across lines, break it only after a slash or a double slash or before any other mark of punctuation. Do not add a hyphen. If you will post your project online or submit it electronically and you want your readers to click on your URLs, do not insert any line breaks.

57b Sample MLA research paper

On the following pages is a research paper on the topic of the role of government in legislating food choices, written by Sophie Harba, a student in a composition class. Harba’s paper is documented with in-text citations and a list of works cited in MLA style. Annotations in the margins of the paper draw your attention to Harba’s use of MLA style and her effective writing.
Harba explains her use of a key term, reasonable.

Harba establishes common ground with the reader.

Transition helps readers move from one paragraph to the next.

How Do Typical American Diets Compare to Recommended Intake Levels or Limits?

![Graph showing dietary intake levels vs. recommended goals.](image)

**Fig. 1.** This graph shows that Americans consume about three times more fats and sugars and twice as many refined grains as is recommended but only half of the recommended foods (United States, Dept. of Agriculture and Dept. of Health and Human Services, fig. 5-1).

is not the need to find a cure; the challenge is to prevent chronic diseases from striking in the first place.

Legislation, however, is not a popular solution when it comes to most Americans and the food they eat. According to a nationwide poll, 75% of Americans are opposed to laws that restrict or put limitations on access to unhealthy foods (Neergaard and Agiesta). When New York mayor Michael Bloomberg proposed a regulation in 2012 banning the sale of soft drinks in servings greater than twelve ounces in restaurants and movie theaters, he was ridiculed as "Nanny Bloomberg." In California in 2011, legislators failed to pass a law that would impose a penny-per-ounce tax on soda,
which would have funded obesity prevention programs. And in Mississippi, legislators passed "a ban on bans—a law that forbids . . . local restrictions on food or drink" (Comly A23).

Why is the public largely resistant to laws that would limit unhealthy choices or penalize those choices with so-called fat taxes? Many consumers and civil rights advocates find such laws to be an unreasonable restriction on personal freedom of choice. As health policy experts Mello et al. point out, opposition to food and beverage regulation is similar to the opposition to early tobacco legislation: the public views the issue as one of personal responsibility rather than one requiring government intervention (2502). In other words, if a person eats unhealthy food and becomes ill as a result, that is his or her choice. But those who favor legislation claim that freedom of choice is a myth because of the strong influence of food and beverage industry marketing on consumers' dietary habits. According to one nonprofit health advocacy group, food and beverage companies spend roughly two billion dollars per year marketing directly to children. As a result, kids see nearly four thousand ads per year encouraging them to consume unhealthy food and drinks ("Facts"). As was the case with antismoking laws passed in recent decades, taxes and legal restrictions on junk food sales could help to counter the strong marketing messages that promote unhealthy products.

The United States has a history of state and local public health laws that have successfully promoted a particular behavior by punishing an undesirable behavior. The decline in tobacco use as a result of antismoking taxes and laws is perhaps the most obvious example. Another example is legislation requiring the use of seat belts, which have significantly reduced fatalities in car crashes. One government agency reports that seat belt use saved an average of more than fourteen thousand lives per year in the United States between 2000 and 2010 (United States, Dept. of Transportation, Natl. Highway Traffic Safety Administration 231). Perhaps seat belt laws have public support because the cost of wearing a seat belt is small, especially when compared with the benefit of saving fourteen thousand lives per year.

Laws designed to prevent chronic disease by promoting healthier food and beverage consumption also have potentially enormous benefits. To give just one example, Marion Nestle, New York University professor of nutrition and public health, notes that "a 1% reduction in intake of saturated fat across the population would prevent more than 30,000 cases of coronary heart disease annually and save more than a billion dollars in health care costs" (7). Few would argue that saving lives and dollars is not an enormous benefit. But three-quarters of Americans say they would object to the costs needed to achieve this benefit—the regulations needed to reduce saturated fat intake.

Why do so many Americans believe there is a degree of personal choice lost when regulations such as taxes, bans, or portion limits on unhealthy foods are proposed? Some critics of anti-junk-food laws believe that even if state and local laws were successful in curbing chronic diseases, they would still be unacceptable. Bioethicist David Resnik emphasizes that such policies, despite their potential to make our society healthier, "open the door to excessive government control over food, which could restrict dietary choices, interfere with cultural, ethnic, and religious traditions, and exacerbate socioeconomic inequalities" (31). Resnik acknowledges that his argument relies on "slippery slope" thinking, but he insists that "social
and political pressures" regarding food regulation make his concerns valid (31). Yet the social and political pressures that Resnik cites are really just the desire to improve public health, and limiting access to unhealthy, artificial ingredients seems a small price to pay. As legal scholars L. G. Gustin and K. G. Gustin explain, "Interventions that do not pose a truly significant burden on individual liberty" are justified if they "go a long way towards safeguarding the health and well-being of the populace" (214).

To improve public health, advocates such as Bowdoin College philosophy professor Sarah Conly contend that it is the government's duty to prevent people from making harmful choices whenever feasible and whenever public benefits outweigh the costs. In response to critics who claim that laws aimed at stopping us from eating whatever we want are an assault on our freedom of choice, Conly offers a persuasive counterargument:

[L]aws aren't designed for each one of us individually. Some of us can drive safely at 60 miles per hour, but we're bound by the same laws as the people who can't, because individual speeding laws aren't practical. Giving up a little liberty is something we agree to when we agree to live in a democratic society that is governed by laws. (A23)

As Conly suggests, we need to change our either/or thinking (either we have complete freedom of choice or we have government regulations and lose our freedom) and instead need to see health as a matter of public good, not individual liberty. Proposals such as Mayor Bloomberg's that seek to limit portions of unhealthy beverages aren't about giving up liberty; they are about asking individuals to choose substantial public health benefits at a very small cost.

Despite arguments in favor of regulating unhealthy food as a means to improve public health, public opposition has stood in the way of legislation. Americans freely eat as much unhealthy food as they want, and manufacturers and sellers of these foods have nearly unlimited freedom to promote such products and drive increased consumption, without any requirements to warn the public of potential hazards. Yet mounting scientific evidence points to unhealthy food as a significant contributing factor to chronic disease, which we know is straining our health care system, decreasing Americans' quality of life, and leading to unnecessary premature deaths. Americans must consider whether to allow the costly trend of rising chronic disease to continue in the name of personal choice or whether to support the regulatory changes and public health policies that will reverse that trend.
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