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MLA Formatting and Documentation Guidelines

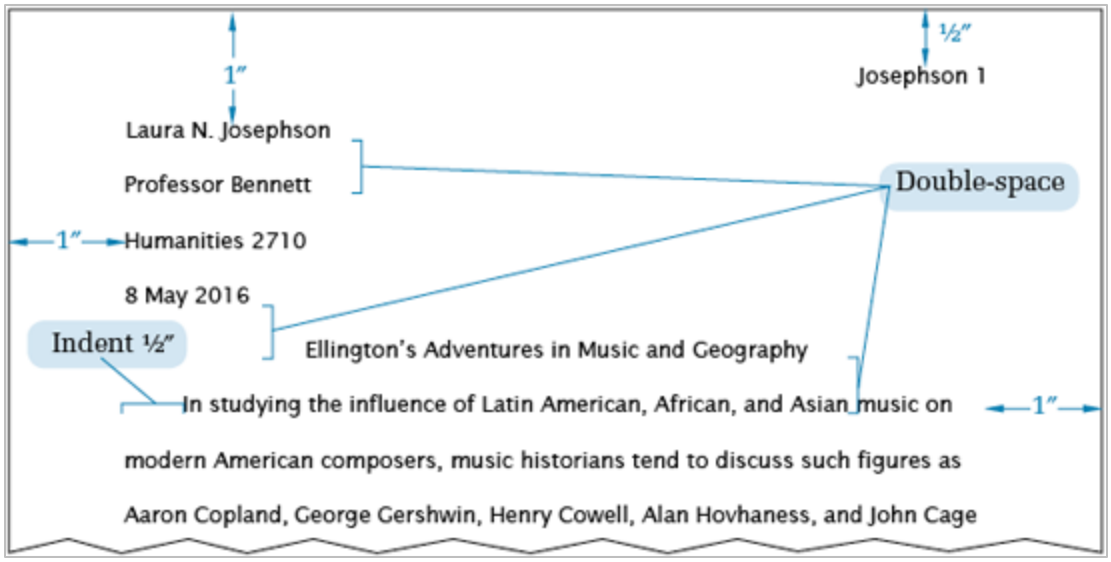
MLA, as laid out by the Modern Language Association, is the required style within the liberal arts and humanities fields. The following MLA Formatting and Documentation Guidelines have been adapted from the *MLA Style Center* (https://style.mla.org) and reflect the changes made for the eighth edition.

I. Formatting the Research Paper

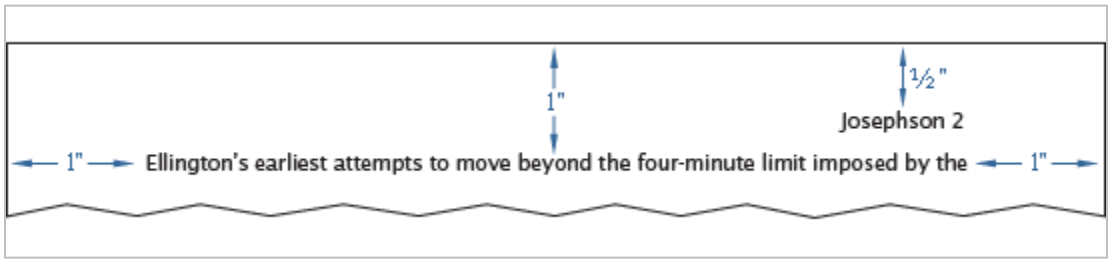
Note: Your instructor may have specific requirements for the format of your paper. Be sure to double-check that you have fulfilled these requirements before submitting your work.

1. *Margins*:
   Except for the Running head, leave margins of one inch at the top, bottom, left, and right of each page.
2. *Text Formatting*:
   Do not justify the lines of text at the right margin. Use double-spacing throughout, including in quotations, any footnotes or endnotes, and in the list of works cited. Finally, leave only one space after a period or other concluding punctuation mark.
   a. *Short quotations*: punctuation marks such as periods, commas, and semicolons should appear after the parenthetical citation.
      Example: According to Foulkes's study, dreams may express "profound aspects of personality" (184).
   b. *Long quotations*: when longer than four lines of text, place quotations in a free-standing block of text and omit quotation marks. Begin the quotation on a new line, with the entire quotation indented one-half inch, and maintain double-spacing. Your citation should appear after the closing punctuation mark.
   c. *Adding or omitting words in quotations*: if you add words, place brackets [ ] around them to indicate that they are not part of the original text. If you omit words, indicate the deleted words by using ellipsis marks …
      Example: J. H. Brunvand states, "some individuals [who retell urban legends] make a point of learning every rumor or tale" (78).
3. *Heading and Title*:
   You do not need to include a separate title page in MLA (unless your instructor requires one). Instead, beginning one inch from the top of the first page and flush with the left margin, type your name, your instructor's name, the course number, and the date on separate lines, double-spaced.

   On a new line, center the title. It is neither bolded nor underlined. Italicize only the words that you would italicize in the text (i.e. The Attitude toward Violence in *A Clockwork Orange*).



4. *Running head with page numbers*:
   Number all pages in the upper right-hand corner, half an inch from the top and flush with the right margin. Include your last name, followed by a space, before the page number.



5. *Section headings*: may improve your paper's readability.
   Level 1 Heading: bold, flush, left
   Level 2 Heading: italics, flush left
   Level 3 Heading: centered, bold
   Level 4 Heading: centered, italics

6. *Tables and Illustrations*:
   Place tables and illustrations as close to the parts of the text to which they relate as possible. A table is usually labeled *Table*, given an Arabic numeral, and titled. Type both the label and title flush left on separate lines above the table.

   Any other type of illustrative material (i.e. a photograph, graph, or chart) should be labeled *Figure* (usually abbreviated *Fig.*), assigned an Arabic numeral, and given a caption, as in: "Fig. 1. Mary Cassatt, *Mother and Child*, Wichita Museum." If the caption provides complete information about the source and the source is not cited in the text, no entry for the source in the works cited list is necessary.

II. Documentation

Whenever you use the words or ideas of others, you need to give the author/s credit, and provide your readers with the exact information they need to access each of your sources. This is known as *documenting your sources*, and is accomplished in two ways: by creating a Works Cited page, and by citing your sources within the body of your paper.

A. Creating In-text Citations

The in-text citation is a brief reference within your text that indicates the source you consulted. It should properly attribute any ideas, paraphrases, or direct quotations to your source, and should direct readers to the entry in the list of works cited. It should not, however, interrupt the flow of your argument.

Example of a general citation (2 ways):

(1) Imperialism is "the practice, the theory, and the attitudes of a dominating metropolitan center ruling a distant territory" (**Said 9**).

(2) According to **Edward W. Said**, imperialism is defined by "the practice, the theory, and the attitudes of a dominating metropolitan center ruling a distant territory" (**9**).

<u>Guidelines</u>:

1. Any source information you provide in-text must correspond to the source information in the works cited. In other words, whatever signal word you provide to your readers in the text must be the first thing that appears in the corresponding works cited entry.
2. Author-page style:

Wordsworth stated that Romantic poetry was marked by a "spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings" (263).

or

Romantic poetry is characterized by the "spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings" (Wordsworth 263).

Both citations tell readers that the information in the sentence can be located on page 263 of a work by Wordsworth.

3. Print sources with known author: provide a <u>signal word or phrase</u> and a page number.

Human beings have been described by Kenneth Burke as "symbol-using animals" (3).

or

Human beings have been described as "symbol-using animals" (Burke 3).

4. Print sources by a corporate author: use the name of the corporation followed by the page number. Use abbreviations where appropriate (i.e. nat'l for national).
5. Print sources with no known author: use a shortened title of the work (full title appears in the Works Cited). Place the title in quotation marks if it is a short one or italicize if long (i.e. books or entire Web sites) and provide the page number.

We see so many global warming hotspots in North America likely because this region has "more readily accessible climatic data and more comprehensive programs to monitor and study environmental change . . ." ("Impact of Global Warming" 6).

6. Authors with the same last name: provide both authors' first initials in your citation.

Although some medical ethicists claim that cloning will lead to designer children (R. Miller 12), others note that the advantages for medical research outweigh this consideration (A. Miller 46).

7. A work by multiple authors: list the authors' last names as they appear in the source.

Best and Marcus argue that one should read a text for what it says on its surface, rather than looking for some hidden meaning (9).

or

The authors claim that surface reading looks at what is "evident, perceptible, apprehensible in texts" (Best and Marcus 9).

8. A work with three or more authors: list only the first author's last name, followed by the phrase "et al."

According to Franck et al, "Current agricultural policies in the U.S. are contributing to the poor health of Americans" (327).

9. Multiple works by the same author: include a shortened title for the particular work you are quoting. Put short titles of books in italics and short titles of articles in quotation marks.
10. Non-print or Internet sources: include in the text the first item that appears in the works cited entry. You do not need to include paragraph or page numbers. Unless you must list the Web site name in order to get the reader to the appropriate entry, do not include URLs in-text. Only provide partial URLs when the name of the site includes a domain name (i.e. *Forbes.com*).
11. Multiple citations: separate the citations by a semicolon.

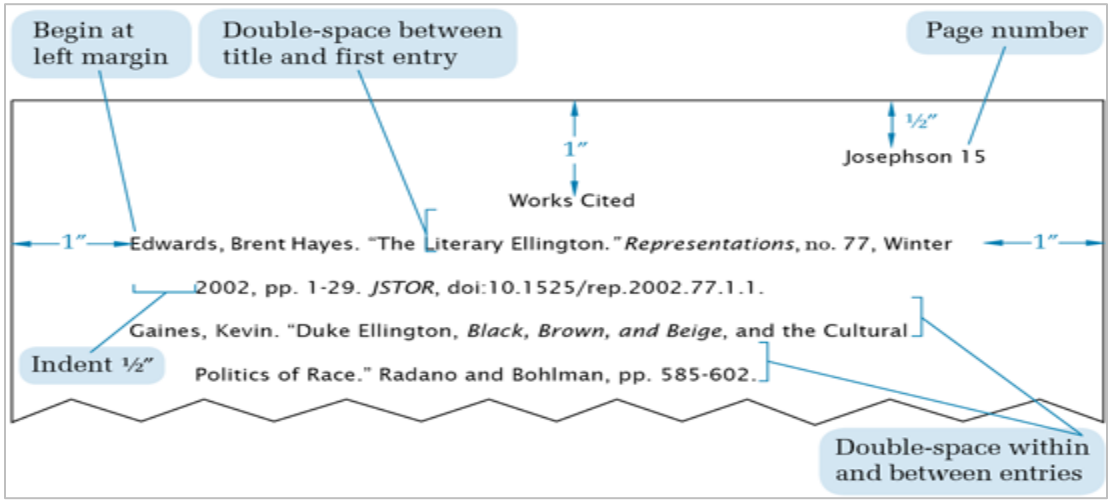
. . . as has been discussed elsewhere (Burke 3; Dewey 21).

B. The Works Cited page

All entries in the Works Cited page must correspond to the works cited in your main text.

<u>Guidelines</u>:

1. Begin your Works Cited on a separate page at the end of your research paper. It should contain the same margins and header as the rest of your paper.
2. Label the page Works Cited, and center the words.
3. Sources are listed alphabetically by the author's last name (or editor's name).
4. Do not list titles (Dr., Sir, etc.) or degrees.
5. Double-space all entries, but do not skip spaces between entries.
6. Begin each entry flush left; if an entry runs more than one line in length, indent the subsequent lines one-half inch.
7. Use a DOI (digital object identifier) in your citation if you can; otherwise, use a URL.
8. All works cited entries end with a period.
9. Capitalize each word in the titles of articles and books, but do not capitalize *the*, *an*, prepositions, or conjunctions, unless one is the first word of the title or subtitle.



Type of Citation	**Example**	**Note:**
Book with One Author	Gleick, James. *Chaos: Making a New Science*. Penguin, 1987.	
Book with more than one Author	Gillespie, Paula, and Neal Lerner. *The Allyn and Bacon Guide to Peer Tutoring*. Allyn and Bacon, 2000.	The second author appears in first name, last name format.
Source with Three + Authors	Wysocki, Anne Frances, et al. *Writing New Media*. Utah State UP, 2004.	List only the first author followed by the phrase et al. Note the period after "al."
Same Author, Multiple Sources	Palmer, William J. *Dickens and the New Historicism*. St. Martin's, 1997. ---. *The Films of the Eighties*. Southern Illinois UP, 1993.	List all works alphabetically by title. For each subsequent entry, use ---.
Corporate Author or Organization	American Allergy Association. *Allergies in Children*. Random House, 1998.	When author and publisher are the same, skip the author, and list the title first. Follow only with the publisher.
No Named Author	*Encyclopedia of Indiana*. Somerset, 1993.	List by title of source. Incorporate these items alphabetically. For the in-text citation, provide the name of the work in the signal phrase and the page number in parenthesis.
Book with a Subsequent Edition	Crowley, Sharon, and Debra Hawhee. *Ancient Rhetorics for Contemporary Students*. 3rd ed., Pearson, 2004.	
Work Prepared by Editor	Bronte, Charlotte. *Jane Eyre*. Edited by Margaret Smith, Oxford UP, 1998.	Note the use of commas.
A Work (including Poem) in an Anthology or Collection	Harris, Muriel. "Talk to Me: Engaging Reluctant Writers." *A Tutor's Guide: Helping Others One to One*, edited by Ben Rafoth, Heinemann, 2000, pp. 24-34.	Note the inclusion of page numbers. If page numbers are not available, use par. or pars. to denote paragraph numbers.

Type of Citation	**Example**	**Note:**
Article in a Reference Book	"Ideology." *The American Heritage Dictionary*. 3rd ed., 1997.	
A Multivolume Work	Quintilian. *Institutio Oratoria*. Translated by H. E. Butler, vol. 2, Loeb-Harvard UP, 1980.	Note the position of the volume number.
An Introduction, Preface, Afterword	Farrell, Thomas B. Introduction. *Norms of Rhetorical Culture*, by Farrell, Yale UP, 1993, pp. 1-13.	"Farrell" is also the name of the author of the Introduction. Sometimes these sections are written by guest authors. If so, write that author's full name after "by."
Article in a Magazine	Buchman, Dana. "A Special Education." *Good Housekeeping*, Mar. 2006, pp. 143-48.	Remember to abbreviate the month.
Article in a Newspaper	Krugman, Andrew. "Fear of Eating." *New York Times*, 21 May 2007, p. A1.	Note the different pagination style in a newspaper.
A Review	Seitz, Matt Zoller. "Life in the Sprawling Suburbs, If You Can Really Call It Living." Review of *Radiant City*, directed by Gary Burns and Jim Brown, *New York Times*, 30 May 2007, p. E1.	
Anonymous Articles	"Business: Global Warming's Boom Town; Tourism in Greenland." *The Economist*, 26 May 2007, p. 82.	
An Article in a Scholarly Journal	Bagchi, Alaknanda. "Conflicting Nationalisms: The Voice of the Subaltern in Mahasweta Devi's *Bashai Tuda*." *Tulsa Studies in Women's Literature*, vol. 15, no. 1, 1996, pp. 41-50.	Note the abbreviation "vol." No. refers to the issue.

Type of Citation	**Example**	**Note:**
An Article in a Web Magazine	Bernstein, Mark. "10 Tips on Writing the Living Web." *A List Apart: For People Who Make Websites*, 16 Aug. 2002, alistapart.com/article/ writeliving. Accessed 4 May 2009.	Note the exclusion of http://
Article in an Online-only Scholarly Journal	Dolby, Nadine. "Research in Youth Culture and Policy: Current Conditions and Future Directions." *Social Work and Society: The International Online-Only Journal*, vol. 6, no. 2, 2008, www.socwork.net/sws/article /view/ 60/362 Accessed 20 May 2009.	MLA requires a page range for articles appearing in scholarly journals. If the journal appears exclusively in online format, indicate the URL.
Article in an Online Scholarly Journal also Appearing in Print	Wheelis, Mark. "Investigating Disease Outbreaks Under a Protocol to the Biological and Toxin Weapons Convention." *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, vol. 6, no. 6, 2000, pp. 595-600, wwwnc.cdc.gov/eid/article /6/6/00-0607_article. Accessed 8 Feb. 2009.	Note the page range.
An Article from an Online Database (with DOI)	Alonso, Alvaro, and Julio A. Camargo. "Toxicity of Nitrite to Three Species of Freshwater Invertebrates." *Environmental Toxicology*, vol. 2, no. 1, 3 Feb. 2006, pp. 90-94. *Wiley Online Library*, doi.: 10.1002/tox.20155.	If the doi is not provided, use the URL instead.
Email and Email Interviews	Kunka, Andrew. "Re: Modernist Literature." Received by John Watts, 15 Nov. 2000.	
An E-Book	*MLA Handbook*. 8th ed., e-book, Modern Language Association of America, 2016.	
An Entire Web Site	*The Purdue OWL Family of Sites*. The Writing Lab and OWL at Purdue and Purdue U, 2008, owl.english.purdue.edu/owl. Accessed 23 Apr. 2008.	

A Note on Plagiarism:

Appropriate documentation protects you from being accused of plagiarism and the penalties that may result. The verb "plagiarize" is defined by *Webster's Dictionary* as "to steal the words, ideas, etc. of another and use them as one's own." Passing off someone else's work as your own is a form of cheating, and cheating has consequences. Often, your own style of writing will differ noticeably from the style of the writer whose words you have copied. For information on the consequences of plagiarism, please refer to Johnson & Wales University Student Handbook.

Works Cited:

MLA Handbook. 8th ed., e-book, Modern Language Association of America, 2016.

"Plagiarize." Merriam-Webster. *Merriam-Webster*, www.merriamwebster.com/dictionary/plagiarizing?show=0&t=13596475. Accessed 26 Apr. 2017.

The Purdue OWL Family of Sites. The Writing Lab and OWL at Purdue and Purdue U, 2008, owl.english.purdue.edu/owl. Accessed 5 May 2017.

Elizabeth L. Angeli
Professor Patricia Sullivan
English 624
12 February 2016

Toward a Recovery of Nineteenth Century Farming Handbooks

While researching texts written about nineteenth century farming, I found a few authors who published books about the literature of nineteenth century farming, particularly agricultural journals, newspapers, pamphlets, and brochures. These authors often placed the farming literature they were studying into an historical context by discussing the important events in agriculture of the year in which the literature was published (see Demaree, for example). However, while these authors discuss journals, newspapers, pamphlets, and brochures, I could not find much discussion about another important source of farming knowledge: farming handbooks. My goal in this paper is to bring this source into the agricultural literature discussion by connecting three agricultural handbooks from the nineteenth century with nineteenth century agricultural history.

To achieve this goal, I have organized my paper into four main sections, two of which have sub-sections. In the first section, I provide an account of three important events in nineteenth century agricultural history: population and technological changes, the distribution of scientific new knowledge, and farming's influence on education. In the second section, I discuss three nineteenth century farming handbooks in connection with the important events described in the first section. I end my paper with a third section that offers research questions that could be answered in future versions of this paper and conclude with a fourth section that discusses the importance of expanding this particular project. I also include an appendix after the Works Cited

Commented [KN1]: Page numbers begin on and with page 1. Also include your last name on every page.

Commented [KN2]: Double-spacing throughout.

Commented [KN3]: Your name, the course number, the Professor's name, and the date are double-spaced in 12-point, Times New Roman font. Dates are written in this order: day, month, and year.

Commented [KN4]: Titles are centered, and are not underlined, bolded, or italicized.

Commented [KN5]: The introduction should set the context for the rest of the paper. Tell your readers why you are writing, and why your topic is important.

Commented [KN6]: The thesis statement, appearing as the last sentence in the introduction. This sentence guides or controls your paper.

Commented [KN7]: Note that the writer organizes her paper into four sections, and alerts readers to this fact.

Commented [KN8]: Use personal pronouns only at your instructor's discretion.

that contains images of the three handbooks I examined. Before I can begin the examination of the three handbooks, however, I need to provide the historical context in which the books were written, and it is to this that I now turn.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

The nineteenth century saw many changes to daily American life with an increase in population, improved methods of transportation, developments in technology, and the rise in the importance of science. These events impacted all aspects of nineteenth century American life, most significantly those involved in slavery and the Civil War, but a large part of American life was affected, a part that is quite often taken for granted: the life of the American farmer.

Population and Technological Changes. One of the biggest changes, as seen in nineteenth century America's census reports, is the dramatic increase in population. The 1820 census reported that over 10 million people were living in America; of those 10 million, over 2 million were engaged in agriculture. Ten years prior to that, the 1810 census reported that over 7 million people were living in the states; there was no category for people engaged in agriculture. In this ten-year time span, then, agriculture experienced significant improvements and changes that enhanced its importance in American life.

One of these improvements was the development of canals and steamboats, which allowed farmers to "sell what has previously been unsalable [sic]" and resulted in a "substantial increase in [a farmer's] ability to earn income" (Danhof 5). This improvement allowed the relations between the rural and urban populations to strengthen, resulting in an increase in trade. The urban population (defined as having over 2,500 inhabitants) in the northern states increased rapidly after 1820. This increase accompanied the decrease in rural populations, as farmers who

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Commented [KN11]: Use another style to differentiate the C-level headers. The paragraph continues directly after the header.

Commented [KN12]: If there is a grammatical, mechanical, or spelling error in the text you are citing, type the quote as it appears. Follow the quote with [sic].

"preferred trade, transportation, or 'tinkering'" to the tasks of tending to crops and animals found great opportunities in the city (Danhof 7). Trade and transportation thus began to influence farming life significantly. Before 1820, the rural community accounted for eighty percent of consumption of farmers' goods (Hurt 127). With the improvements in transportation, twenty-five percent of farmers' products were sold for commercial gain, and by 1825, farming "became a business rather than a way of life" (128). This business required farmers to specialize their production and caused most farmers to give "less attention to the production of surplus commodities like wheat, tobacco, pork, or beef" (128). The increase in specialization encouraged some farmers to turn to technology to increase their production and capitalize on commercial markets (172).

The technology farmers used around 1820 was developed from three main sources: Europe, coastal Indian tribes in America, and domestic modifications made from the first two sources' technologies. Through time, technology improved, and while some farmers clung to their time-tested technologies, others were eager to find alternatives to these technologies. These farmers often turned to current developments in Great Britain and received word of their technological improvements through firsthand knowledge by talking with immigrants and travelers. Farmers also began planning and conducting experiments, and although they lacked a truly scientific approach, these farmers engaged in experiments to both obtain results and learn from those results. Agricultural organizations were then formed to "encourage… experimentation, hear reports, observe results, and exchange critical comments" (Danhof 53). Thus, new knowledge was transmitted orally from farmer to farmer, immigrant to farmer, and traveler to farmer, which could result in the miscommunication of this new scientific knowledge.

Commented [KN13]: In-text citations occur after the quote but before the period. The author/s appear before the page number with no comma separating them.

Commented [KN14]: If you delete words from the original quote, insert an ellipsis (…).

Commented [KN15]: Transitions connect paragraphs and unify writing.

Therefore, developments were made for knowledge to be transmitted and recorded in a more permanent, credible way: by print.

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The Distribution of New Knowledge. Before 1820 and prior to the new knowledge farmers were creating, farmers who wanted to print information about agriculture had their choice of agricultural almanacs and even local newspapers from which to receive information (Danhof 54). After 1820, however, agricultural writing took more forms than almanacs and newspapers. From 1820 to 1870, agricultural periodicals were responsible for spreading new knowledge among farmers. In his published dissertation *The American Agricultural Press 1819-1860*, Albert Lowther Demaree presents a "description of the general content of [agricultural journals]" (xi). These journals began in 1819 and were written for farmers, with topics devoted to "farming, stock raising, [and] horticulture" (12). The suggested "birthdate" of American agricultural journalism is April 2, 1819 when John S. Skinner published his periodical *American Farmer* in Baltimore. Demaree writes that Skinner's periodical was the "first continuous, successful agricultural periodical in the United States" and "served as a model for hundreds of journals that succeeded it" (19). In the midst of the development of the journal, farmers began writing handbooks. Not much has been written on the handbooks' history, aside from the fact that C.M. Saxton and Co. in New York was the major handbook publisher. Despite the lack of information about handbooks, and as can be seen in my discussion below, these handbooks played a significant role in distributing knowledge among farmers and in educating young farmers, as I now discuss.

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Farming's Influence on Education. One result of the newly circulating print information was the "need for acquiring scientific information upon which could be based a rational technology" that could "be substituted for the current diverse, empirical practices" (Danhof 69). In his 1825 book

Nature and Reason Harmonized in the Practice of Husbandry, John Lorain begins his first chapter by stating that "[v]ery erroneous theories have been propagated" resulting in faulty farming methods (1). His words here create a framework for the rest of his book, as he offers his readers narratives of his own trials and errors and even dismisses foreign, time-tested techniques farmers had held on to: "The knowledge we have of that very ancient and numerous nation the Chinese, as well as the very located habits and costumes of this very singular people, is in itself insufficient to teach us…" (75). His book captures the call and need for scientific experiments to develop new knowledge meant to be used in/on/with American soil, which reflects some farmers' thinking of the day.

By the 1860s, the need for this knowledge was strong enough to affect education. John Nicholson anticipated this effect in 1820 in the "Experiments" section of his book *The Farmer's Assistant; Being a Digest of All That Relates to Agriculture and the Conducting of Rural Affairs; Alphabetically Arranged and Adapted for the United States*:

> Perhaps it would be well, if some institution were devised, and supported at the expense of the State, which would be so organized as would tend most effectually to produce a due degree of emulation among Farmers, by rewards and honorary distinctions conferred by those who, by their successful experimental efforts and improvements, should render themselves duly entitled to them. (92)

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Part of Nicholson's hope was realized in 1837 when Michigan established their state university, specifying that "agriculture was to be an integral part of the curriculum" (Danhof 71). Not much was accomplished, however, much to the dissatisfaction of farmers, and in 1855, the state authorized a new college to be "devoted to agriculture and to be independent of the university" (Danhof 71). The government became more involved in the creation of agricultural universities

in 1862 when President Lincoln passed the Morrill Land Grant College Act, which begins with this phrase: "AN ACT Donating Public Lands to the several States and Territories which may provide Colleges for the Benefit of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts [sic]." The first agricultural colleges formed under the act suffered from a lack of trained teachers and "an insufficient base of knowledge," and critics claimed that the new colleges did not meet the needs of farmers (Hurt 193).

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Congress addressed these problems when the then newly formed United States Department of Agriculture (USDA). The USDA and Morrill Act worked together to form "…State experiment stations and extension services…[that] added [to]…localized research and education…" (Baker et al. 415). The USDA added to the scientific and educational areas of the agricultural field in other ways by including research as one of the organization's "foundation stone" (367) and by including these seven objectives:

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> (1) [C]ollecting, arranging, and publishing statistical and other useful agricultural information; (2) introducing valuable plants and animals; (3) answering inquiries of farmers regarding agriculture; (4) testing agricultural implements; (5) conducting chemical analyses of soils, grains, fruits, plants, vegetables, and manures; (6) establishing a professorship of botany and entomology; and (7) establishing an agricultural library and museum. (Baker et al. 14).

These objectives were a response to farmers' needs at the time, mainly to the need for experiments, printed distribution of new farming knowledge, and education. Isaac Newton, the first Commissioner of Agriculture, ensured these objectives would be realized by stressing research and education with the ultimate goal of helping farmers improve their operations (Hurt 190).

Before the USDA assisted in the circulation of knowledge, however, farmers wrote about their own farming methods. This brings me to my next section, in which I examine three handbooks written by farmers and connect my observations of the texts with the discussion of agricultural history I have presented above.

Note: Sections of this paper have been deleted in consideration of the length.

CONCLUSION

From examining Drown's, Allen's, and Crozier and Henderson's handbooks in light of nineteenth century agricultural history, I can say that science and education seem to have had a strong influence on how and why these handbooks were written. The authors' ethos is created by how they align themselves as farmers with science and education, either by supporting or criticizing them. Regardless of their stance, the authors needed to create an ethos to gain an audience, and they did this by including tables of information, illustrations of animals and buildings, reasons for educational reform, and pieces of advice to young farmers in their texts. It would be interesting to see if other farming handbooks of the same century also convey a similar ethos concerning science and education in agriculture. Recovering more handbooks in this way could lead to a better, more complete understanding of farming education, science's role in farming and education, and perhaps even an understanding of the rhetoric of farming handbooks in the nineteenth century.

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Works Cited

Baker, Gladys L., *et al. Century of Service: The First 100 Years of the United States Department of Agriculture*. [Federal Government], 1996.

Demaree, Albert Lowther. *The American Agricultural Press 1819-1860*. Columbia UP: 1941.

Hurt, R. Douglas. *American Agriculture: A Brief History*. Iowa State UP, 1994.

Lorain, John. *Nature and Reason Harmonized in the Practice of Husbandry*. Carey, 1825.

"Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862." *Prairie View A&M*, 2003. www.pvamu.edu/library/about-the-library/history-of-the-library-at-prairie-view/1890-land-grant-history/. Accessed 6 December 2008.

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Commented [KN24]: If a source has three or more authors, only the first one shown in the source is cited. This name is then followed by *et al.*

Commented [KN25]: If a print source does not list a publisher, but you can infer who the publisher is, place that name in brackets.

Commented [KN26]: MLA now requires only the publisher, and not the city or state of publication.

Commented [KN27]: List the title of the source in quotation marks, and the title of the journal/source in italics, followed by a comma and the date of publication.

Commented [KN28]: MLA now requires URLs (when possible) when citing online sources. Include the date of access whenever possible, as online works can be changed or removed at any time.