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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3928148) **- 08-039 Grigori Potemkin II** **[08-039 Grigori Potemkin II](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=52042345%26f=426333%26u=23385198%26c=3928148" \o "external link" \t "_blank)** Lead: In 1787 Russian Field Marshall Grigori Potemkin organized a tour of southern Russia for Catherine the Great. It was among the most lavish royal tours in Russian history. Intro: A Moment In Time with Dan Roberts. Content: Grigori Potemkin was an ambitious young military officer when he took part in the palace coup that deposed Peter III, the estranged husband of Catherine the Great. As a reward for his skill and loyalty, Catherine made Potemkin a member of her court. He became infatuated with her. When the first war with Turkey broke out in 1768, Potemkin returned to the military and served in the cavalry, rising to the rank of major general. For his distinguished service at the end of the war, Catherine made Potemkin a count and the two began a two-year affair. She said of him, "He is one of the greatest, most bizarre, and most entertaining eccentrics of this iron age." Even after the end of their romantic liaison, Potemkin remained one of Catherine's most powerful, capable and influential advisors. When she annexed the Crimea, thus expanding Russia's borders on the Black Sea, Potemkin served as governor of the new province and developed its infrastructure. Anxious to demonstrate his expertise, Potemkin organized a visit by the empress to the Crimea in 1787. The tour, a most lavish and costly event, was planned over four years and covered a distance of a thousand miles. All along the way, Catherine gazed out on seemingly happy peasants lining the shores of the Dnieper River. Critics accused Potemkin of creating fake villages, shams, between which fake peasants were transported back and forth to impress the empress. Thus, the term "Potemkin village" entered the cultural discourse. It came to mean a political façade used to cover unseemly conditions. The producer of A Moment In Time is Steve Clark. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources "Catherine the Great." Microsoft Encarta Online Encyclopedia 2001 http://encarta.msn.com (20 March 2002). Cronin, Vincent. Catherine, Empress of all the Russians. New York: William Morrow and Co., Inc., 1978. De Madriaga, Isabel. Catherine the Great, A Short History. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1990. Durant, Mary. "Catherine's Boat Ride." Horizons. Vol. 8, no. 4 (1966): 98-104. "Potemkin, Grigori Aleksandrovich." The Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia, Sixth Edition, 2001, Columbia University Press, www.bartleby.com Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css112610

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3928598) **- 14-020 Sarah Bernhardt** [**14-020 Sarah Bernhardt**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=52070656%26f=426333%26u=23385198%26c=3928598) Lead: On March 23, 1923, thousands of mourners lined the streets of Paris for the funeral procession of one of the leading actresses of the 19th century, “The Devine Sarah Bernhardt.” Intro.: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts. Content: She was born in Paris in 1844 as Henriette-Rosine Bernard. Her Dutch mother was a courtesan, a highly paid prostitute; her father was unknown. A sickly child, the girl was educated in a convent until one of her mother’s lovers, the Duc de Morny--Emperor Napoleon III’s half brother--arranged for the sixteen-year-old Sarah to attend the Paris Conservatoire, the government-sponsored school of theatre. Two years later Sarah was accepted as a student at the Comédie-Francaise, the prestigious French national theatre company. She and the Comédie parted company in 1863 after Sarah slapped a leading actress who was rude to Sarah’s younger sister. In such circumstances it is not surprising that Sarah should follow her mother into world’s oldest profession while she worked on her acting career. She had a series of liaisons with famous and powerful men, including Henri, Prince of Ligne--the father of her only child, Maurice. In 1866, Sarah’s life took a dramatic turn when she signed a contract with a left-bank theater, Théatre l’Odéon. Over the next six years Sarah worked hard to perfect her craft. This paid off as these skills catapulted her into international stardom. She approached classical and serious roles with extraordinary emotional and physical realism. She considered the voice the key to dramatic performance and critics responded by calling hers "voix d’or" or "golden voice," or "sonorous as pure crystal," or "a caress that strokes you like fingers, so pure, so tender, so harmonious." In 1872, following her acclaimed performance as Queen Marie in Victor Hugo’s play "Ruy Blas," a star was born. In constant demand for classical and romantic roles in Europe and the United States, she did nine American tours and even appeared several times in the new medium of motion pictures. At age seventy, Sarah’s leg was amputated, but she continued to act until her death in 1923 at the age of 78. Research assistance by Ann Johnson, at the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Bernhardt, Sarah. My Double Life: The Memoirs of Sarah Bernhardt. Albany: State University of New York Press, 1999. Gold, Arthur. Devine Sarah: A Life of Sarah Bernhardt. New York: Knopf, 1991. Harris, Joseph A. “The Devine Sarah.” Smithsonian August 2001: 69-75. http://www.sarahbernhardt.com Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3929914) **- 07-082 Saint Patrick I** [**07-082 Saint Patrick I**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=52095855%26f=426333%26u=23385198%26c=3929914) Lead: In the waning years of the Roman Empire, a young boy from Britain was kidnapped and enslaved in Ireland--an event that would change the course of religious history. Intro: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts. Content: One of the world's most successful Christian missionaries was born about 389, probably in southwestern Britain. His name was Patrick and his father was a prominent landowner and community leader. He was brought up in a Christian environment, but not one noted for its piety. It was a time of great stress and historical transition. The Roman Empire, which for centuries had provided political, commercial and military cohesion for western Europe, was disintegrating. When Patrick was about sixteen he was captured by raiders or pirates from Ireland and sold into slavery in the northwestern part of the island. There, near modern Kilalla in the north of County Mayo, for six years he worked as a shepherd in the herds of an Irish chieftain. It was during this time that he began developing and drawing upon unusually deep spiritual resources. Looking back, he would write that prayer became a regular basis of comfort in his captivity. In the sixth year of his enslavement, Patrick received what he later described as divine instruction by which a voice directed him to escape--and do so by ship. He selected the right moment, slipped away, and traveled two hundred miles on foot to the coast of the Irish Sea, where he secured passage on a ship that evidence indicates was sailing to Gaul, the Roman name for what became France. Other sources suggest that Patrick immediately returned to his home in Britain and received a rather primitive and conservative education based on the Latin Bible, leading to the priesthood. Next Time: The former slave returns to Ireland. The Producer of A Moment in Time is Steve Clark. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Cahill, Thomas. How the Irish Saved Civilization: The Untold Story of Ireland's Heroic Role from the Fall of Rome to the Rise of Medieval Europe. New York: Doubleday, 1996. Cagney, Mary. "Patrick the Saint." Christian History, 60.XVII, No. 4 (1998): 10-18. "Catholic Online Saints," http://saints.catholic.org/faq.html McSorley, Anita McGurn. "The St. Patrick You Never Knew." St. Anthony Messenger Magazine, March 1997. "Patrick, Saint." Microsoft Encarta Online Encyclopedia 2001, http://encarta.msn.com (14 Sept. 2001). Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css120310

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3930284) **- 07-083 Saint Patrick II** [**07-083 Saint Patrick II**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=52123579%26f=426333%26u=23385198%26c=3930284) Lead: Sometime after the year 431, a priest named Patrick returned to his roots and became one of the most successful missionaries in religious history. Intro: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts. Content: The priest known to us today as Saint Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland, spent six years there as a boy after Irish raiders kidnapped him in Britain and sold him into slavery. He escaped from Ireland and eventually returned to his home, where he received a rather primitive monastic education and became a priest. Sometime later Patrick received his call--through voices in a dream, he said--to return to Ireland as a missionary. There he spent the rest of his life, probably a period of thirty years. Concentrating on northwest Ireland where Christianity was unknown, Patrick gained the respect of several tribal leaders and converted many to Christianity. He had strong diplomatic skills. Recognizing the entrenched cultic power of the native Celtic religion, he artfully avoided direct confrontation. It is believed Patrick and those closely associated with him founded approximately three hundred churches and baptized over 120,000 people. Patrick died about 461, but his mission organization was well established and eventually converted all Ireland to Christianity. The factual information about Patrick comes from two primary sources--both documents probably written by him in later life--"Confession," a justification of his mission in Ireland, and "Letter to Coroticus," a criticism of a British raid on Ireland. Yet, most of what people think they know of Patrick is legend, such as his banishing snakes from the island. His mission to Ireland was intensely religious, yet he is most widely remembered as an excuse for revelry and entertainment on St. Patrick's Day each year on March 17. The Producer of A Moment in Time is Steve Clark. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Cahill, Thomas. How the Irish Saved Civilization: The Untold Story of Ireland's Heroic Role from the Fall of Rome to the Rise of Medieval Europe. New York: Doubleday, 1996. Cagney, Mary. "Patrick the Saint." Christian History, 60.XVII, No. 4 (1998): 10-18. "Catholic Online Saints," http://saints.catholic.org/faq.html McSorley, Anita McGurn. "The St. Patrick You Never Knew." St. Anthony Messenger Magazine, March 1997. "Patrick, Saint." Microsoft Encarta Online Encyclopedia 2001, http://encarta.msn.com (14 Sept. 2001). Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css120410

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3930672) **- 14-021 Gerardus Mercator – Mapmaker Extraordinare I** [**14-021 Gerardus Mercator – Mapmaker Extraordinare I**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=52146021%26f=426333%26u=23385198%26c=3930672) Lead: Despite the discoveries of explorers such as Christopher Columbus, a true understanding of the shape of the natural world did not immediately emerge. Resistance came from a variety of forces. Intro.: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts. Content: As Europe emerged from the medieval period and began the great era of exploration, two great forces served to impede the enormous task facing those who wished to understand, describe, and investigate the world beyond the waters immediately adjacent to the European coast. The first impediment to understanding the natural world was the continued dependence upon the writings of second-century Alexandrian astronomer and mathematician, Claudius Ptolemaeus, who in turn was influenced by the geographical speculations of Greek philosopher, Aristotle. In his seminal work, Guide to Geography, that dominated thinking about the world for more than 1500 years, Ptolemy actually projected a world much larger than that of his contemporaries; but his maps were filled with guesswork and his world was still much too small. Despite the findings of explorers such as Christopher Columbus and Ferdinand Magellan, deep into the 1500s, thinkers still depended upon the wrong-headed ideas of Ptolemy. The second great force holding back a true understanding of the world was the church. The clerical bureaucracy was convinced that the earth was the center of the universe and that new ideas--those about cultures beyond the confines of Europe and suggestions that the natural world was different from that described in the Bible and church writings--were a threat to their hegemony. Helping to overcome Ptolemy’s influence and the church’s resistance to learning and progress were geographers and scientists such as Gerardus Mercator. Mercator was born Gerhard Kremer in Rupelmode, now a part of Belgium, in 1512. He originally studied for the priesthood, attaining a master’s degree in philosophy and humanities from the University of Louvain in 1532, but genuine doubts about his own faith and a growing fascination with geography compelled him in a different direction. Next time: A new kind of map. Research assistance by Dawn Palmer, at the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Bagrow, Leo. History of Cartography. Rev and Enlarged by R.A. Skelton. London: C.A. Watts, 1964. Brown, Lloyd Arnold. The Story of Maps. Boston: Little, Brown, 1949. Maritime Museum. Gerard Mercator’s Map of the World. Rotterdam, Holland: Gravenhage, 1961. Osley, A.D. Mercator: A Monograph of the Lettering of Maps. New York: Watson-Guptill, 1969. Penrose, Boies. Travel and Discovery in the Renaissance. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1967. Raisz, Erwin. General Cartography. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938. Richardson, W.A.R. “Mercator’s Southern Continent: Its Origins, Influence, and Gradual Demise,” Terrae Incognitae 25 (1993): 67-98. Skelton, R.A. Decorative Printed Maps of the 15th to 18th Centuries. London: Spring Books, 1952. Wilford, John Noble. The Mapmakers. New York: Knopf Publishers, 1981. http://www.bookrags.com/biography/gerhardus-mercator/ Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css120510

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3931560) **- 14-097 Race for the Pole: Robert Scott & Roald Amundsen I** [**14-097 Race for the Pole: Robert Scott & Roald Amundsen I**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=52209657%26f=426333%26u=23385198%26c=3931560) Lead: For more than four centuries prior to 1900, curiosity, necessity, ambition, and economic aspiration had driven the age of discovery. Few places on the globe eluded the explorers. The last great prize was the frozen, barren, and arid continent of Antarctica. Intro.: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts. Content: Antarctica is the southernmost continent, the coldest, windiest place on earth with an average interior temperature of -58F°. Ninety-eight percent of the continent, which is twice the size of Australia, is covered by ice sheets formed over millions of years with a thickness of over a mile to about three miles. The ice contains 70% of the world’s fresh water and represents 90% of the world’s ice. Although waters surrounding Antarctica are teeming with life--penguins, whales, seals, fish--the heart of the continent is a barren desert, one of the driest places on earth. A day in Antarctica is six months long, from September 21 to March 22. Summer begins in September, winter in March; it is mostly dark in winter and mostly light in summer. Discovered in 1820, designated a continent in the 1840s, by the end of the nineteenth century the waters of Antarctica were regularly visited by commercial whalers and sealers. In 1895, the Sixth Geographical Congress, meeting in London, challenged the scientific community to send expeditions to Antarctica and many of the wealthier nations responded. Britain, France, Norway, Germany, Japan, Sweden and Belgium all mounted expeditions, ostensibly for scientific knowledge but also for land claims. The most coveted prize of all, of course, was to be the first to reach the South Pole, the most remote location on earth. This exploratory quest captured the imagination of people everywhere. Explorers, citizens, and governments invested hope and large sums to support these expeditions. Perhaps the most confident country--then at the height of its imperial ambitions--was Great Britain. Britons were certain that the prize would be theirs. Such was not to be. Next time: The race to the pole. Research assistance by Ann Johnson, at the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Flynn, Sian. “The Race to the South Pole.” BBC. 15 Sept. 2008 . Huntford, Roland. The Last Place on Earth. New York: Random House, 1999. Thomson, David. Scott, Shackleton and Amundsen: Ambition and Tragedy in the Antarctic. New York: Avalon, 2002. “Cool Antarctica.”. The Antarctic Connection . Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css120510

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3932023) **- 14-098 Race for the Pole: Robert Scott & Roald Amundsen II** [**14-098 Race for the Pole: Robert Scott & Roald Amundsen II**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=52231913%26f=426333%26u=23385198%26c=3932023) Lead: By the turn of the twentieth century, most of the globe had been explored. One great prize remained--the South Pole. In the end the race came down to an intense competition between two determined men. Intro.: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts. Content: Barren Antarctica is the coldest and iciest place on earth. The terrain is so hostile to human habitation and the distance to the pole so great (roughly 800 miles from the sea) that early expeditions fell short of their goal. In 1902, Arctic explorer and British Naval officer, Robert Falcon Scott led the Discovery Expedition, named for his ship, to Antarctica and came within 400 miles of the pole. Accompanying Scott on this trip were British zoologist Edward Wilson and a young Arctic explorer, Ernest Shackleton. In 1909 Shackleton led his own expedition and came within 111 miles of the pole. Scott joined the Royal Navy in 1880. He was a popular public figure, a best-selling author, and was raising money for his second expedition when he heard that his rival Shackleton had failed in his attempt to reach the pole. In June 1910 his second expedition, conveyed on HMS Terra Nova, sailed from London. Although the expedition would concentrate on scientific studies and exploration, its primary goal was to bring home the honor and glory for Great Britain by being the first to reach the South Pole. In Melbourne, Australia, during the Terra Nova voyage, Scott received a telegram from Norwegian explorer Roald Amundsen informing him that he, too, was en route to the South Pole. Amundsen’s original intent was to be the first to reach the North Pole; however, when he heard that American Robert Peary had accomplished this feat, Amundsen altered his plans and went for the South Pole instead. In January 1911 Scott established his base at McMurdo Sound, an inlet of the western Ross Sea. Amundsen’s base was 400 miles to the east in an inlet on the edge of the Ross Ice Shelf--and sixty miles closer to the pole. Scott, farther away, would follow a known route already pioneered by Shackleton; Amundsen would be crossing unknown territory. Both parties prepared extensively for almost one year, each establishing supply depots to the south with fuel, supplies and food for the long return back from the pole. Next Time: Triumph and tragedy. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Flynn, Sian. “The Race to the South Pole.” BBC. 15 Sept. 2008 . Huntford, Roland. The Last Place on Earth. New York: Random House, 1999. Thomson, David. Scott, Shackleton and Amundsen: Ambition and Tragedy in the Antarctic. New York: Avalon, 2002. “Cool Antarctica.”. The Antarctic Connection . Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css120510

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3933345) **- 14-099 Race for the Pole: Robert Scott & Roald Amundsen III** [**14-099 Race for the Pole: Robert Scott & Roald Amundsen III**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=52259781%26f=426333%26u=23385198%26c=3933345) Lead: By October 1911--early spring in Antarctica--two expeditions, separated by 400 miles of ice, were ready to begin their assault on the South Pole. One would make it. One would not. Intro.: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts. Content: On October 20, the four-man party led by Norwegian Roald Amundsen, an experienced Arctic explorer, with four sledges pulled by 52 dogs, began its journey. Twelve days later the team led by Robert Falcon Scott, Amundsen's rival, began its trek borne by dogs, Siberian ponies and motorized sledges. Scott knew of his competitor but he was confident that he would bring home the honor to England of being the first to reach the South Pole. Having led a prior scientific expedition to Antarctica and coming within 400 miles of the pole, Scott had a reputation as a careful and meticulous naval officer. He was a popular figure at home, and most anticipated that he would be the victor. Amundsen had arrived in Antarctica early in 1911 and set up a base camp on the Ross Ice Shelf. Over the next several months, before the onset of the bitter Antarctic winter, he established a series of base camps to within 500 miles of the pole. His choice of sled dogs proved to be a fortuitous one, because they could be killed along the way and eaten as food by the other dogs and, in case of an emergency, by humans. Amundsen had encountered good weather for most of the way and only a few natural obstacles. He and his team arrived at the South Pole on December 14, 1911. After three days of exploration in the general vicinity of the pole, they returned to their base camp reaching it at the end of January. Scott encountered trouble from the beginning. His motorized sledges broke down almost immediately. The ponies died or had to be shot before they conveyed the party to the pole. An absence of food required that the dog teams be sent back. That left the remaining members of the party having to carry or drag all of their supplies to the pole and back. After all that--in what must have been the expedition's most bitter moment of disappointment--Scott and his companions arrived at the South Pole on January 17, 1912, only to discover that Amundsen had come and gone. They found a Norwegian flag planted in the ice and a letter from Amundsen to Scott. The Brit wrote in his journal, “Great God! This is an awful place and terrible enough for us to have laboured to it without the reward of priority.” During the 800-mile return trip, all members of Scott's party perished, either from exhaustion, starvation, hypothermia or scurvy. They died in the midst of a blizzard within eleven miles of the closest cache of supplies. The tent with their frozen bodies was found later in the year, with his records and diaries intact, which gave a complete description of the expedition. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Flynn, Sian. “The Race to the South Pole.” BBC. 15 Sept. 2008 Huntford, Roland. The Last Place on Earth. New York: Random House, 1999. Thomson, David. Scott, Shackleton and Amundsen: Ambition and Tragedy in the Antarctic. New York: Avalon, 2002. “Cool Antarctica.”. The Antarctic Connection . Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css120510

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3933781) **- 12-013 Charlie Chaplin** [**12-013 Charlie Chaplin**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=52283937%26f=426333%26u=23385198%26c=3933781) Lead: Few people have left a greater impression on the development of the motion picture business than Charles Spencer Chaplin. He is considered by many to be the greatest comic artist of the screen. Intro.: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts. Content: Charlie Chaplin got started in vaudeville. Born in London before the turn of the twentieth century, Chaplin grew up in an acting family and by the age of twelve he was on his own, performing in music halls all over England. On a tour of North America in 1913, he was signed by Mack Sennett of Keystone Films to work in comic pictures at a significant increase in salary. He never looked back. Within the next few years, his blend of physical comedy, character development, and effective publicity had made him one of the most popular and wealthiest actors in motion picture history. In 1919, Chaplin threw in with Mary Pickford, Douglas Fairbanks, and D.W. Griffith to establish United Artists, one of the most enduring of Hollywood’s studios. His silent films were nearly all box office gold or critical successes, mostly both. In The Tramp, The Vagabond and Shoulder Arms, Chaplin combined comedy and disappointment in love, recurring themes throughout his creative career. He slowly made the transition to sound films, with his most powerful box office success being The Great Dictator in 1940, in which he poked fun at Adolph Hitler and other totalitarians. Chaplin’s success as an actor, director and personality did not find a parallel in his personal life. Several marriages, messy relationships, and legal problems diminished his popularity in the 1940s. His left-wing views were unpopular in the McCarthy era and, as a non-U.S. citizen, he was virtually banished from America from the early 1950s until the 1970s. Fascination with Chaplin’s work revived in the 1960s, and he returned to the United States to receive much-overdue acclaim in 1972. He died in 1977 in Switzerland. Research assistance by John Roach, at the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Chaplin, Charles Spencer. My Autobiography. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1964. McCabe, John. Charlie Chaplin. Garden City, N.J.: Doubleday, 1978. Smith, Julian. Chaplin. Boston: Twayne Publishers, 1984. Wenden, David John. The Birth of the Movies. New York: E.P. Dutton, 1974, 1975. www.charliechaplin.com Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css120910

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3934182) **- 05-105 Crispus Attucks** [**05-105 Crispus Attucks**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=52303232%26f=426333%26u=23385198%26c=3934182) Lead: On March 5, 1770, in Boston, Massachusetts, British soldiers led by Captain Preston fired into an unruly crowd of protesters. One of the first to fall was Crispus Attucks. Intro: A Moment In Time with Dan Roberts. Content: All during the winter and spring of 1770, tension in Boston had been building between citizens and British soldiers sent there to prevent unrest. Many American workers were resentful of the soldiers because, when they were off duty, they would take civilian jobs at cheaper rates. This--plus the general indignation in the city over the presence of the troops--set up one of the first bloody confrontations of the Revolutionary period. Crispus Attucks was, at forty-seven, a six-foot-tall drifter. He was a mulatto, a light-skinned black man, born around 1723, and served as a slave for some years but escaped by going to sea. Attucks was well known around the docks and was a powerful, intimidating physical specimen. In the early evening on the day of the so-called Boston Massacre, a crowd began to harass a squad of Brits as they came to rescue one of their comrades surrounded by a mob at the Customs House on King Street. Crispus Attucks was at the head of the crowd. At the trial six months later, a slave named Andrew testified that a stout mulatto had weighed in and struck one of the soldiers in the heat of the moment. The soldier turned and fired, several more blasted into the crowd, and soon five men lay dead or wounded. Crispus Attucks was among the first to fall. There is little doubt that the crowd provoked the attack. John Adams, defending the soldiers, called the crowd "hooligans, who got what they deserved;" but he would also later say that, "Not the Battle of Lexington nor Bunker Hill, not the surrender of Burgoyne nor Cornwallis were more important events in American history than the battle of King Street on the fifth of March, 1770," and the first to fall at that most singular event was a man of color, Crispus Attucks. The producer of A Moment In Time is Steve Clark. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Bennett, Lerone. Before the Mayflower: A History of Black America. Chicago: Johnson Publishing Company, Inc. Foner, Philip S. History of Black Americans: From Africa to the Emergence of the Cotton Kingdom. Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1975. Franklin, John Hope. From Slavery to Freedom: A History of Negro Americans. New York: Alfred A. Knopf Publishing Company, 1967. Toppin, Edgar A. The Black American in United States History. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1973. Copyright 20010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css120910

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3935605) **- 02-151 Atomic Dawn II** Lead: Scientists had discovered the atom's nucleus, had determined that it was made up of protons and neutrons, and had split it. But it remained to put these discoveries to use. In the early 1940s, a team under Enrico Fermi at the University of Chicago set out to create a sustained nuclear reaction. Intro: A Moment In Time with Dan Roberts. Content: From an early age Enrico Fermi demonstrated a quick grasp of science. Born in Rome, as a child he began to read everything on which he could get his hands. His entrance exam to college was considered prodigious and, within eight years after high school, he had received his doctorate and was the youngest full professor the in the history of the University of Rome. Fermi combined a deep interest in theoretical physics with a practical orientation to experimenting. Having both tendencies was rare. By the mid-1930s, Fermi was applying his skills and intellect to examining the atom's nucleus and came very close to discovering the process of nuclear fission. Awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics for 1938, Fermi used the trip to Stockholm as a way of accomplishing his escape from Mussolini's Fascist Italy. He began his stay in America by teaching at Columbia University. Meanwhile, German radiochemist Otto Hahn and his team had irradiated uranium and produced barium. Transforming one element into another with radiation had already been done, but up until then the substances created were close to the original on the periodic table. The creation of barium, a much lighter element, meant that the uranium nucleus had been split. The further discovery that spectacular amounts of energy had been released in the process had important implications for the creation of an enormous source of power. Fermi set out to tap this fountainhead of energy. To do that, he needed to create a sustained nuclear reaction without blowing up everything in sight. On December 2, 1942, a team lead by Fermi at Chicago did just that. In a transformed squash court under the university's football stands, a carbon rod was withdrawn from a huge pile of carbon logs studded with uranium pellets. Instruments told the story; a sustained and controlled nuclear reaction was in progress. Next time: From theory to bomb. The producer of A Moment In Time is Steve Clark. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Christman, Al. "The Atom Bomb: Making it Happen," American Heritage of Invention and Technology 11 (1, Summer, 1995), 22-35. Cooper, Dan. "The Atom Bomb: Making it Possible, "American Heritage of Invention and Technology 11 (1, Summer, 1995), 10-21. Genion, William, editor. The Affects of the Atomic Bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki by the United States Strategic Bombing Survey. Santa Fe: Genion Publishing, 1973. Groves, Leslie R. Now It Can Be Told. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1962. Maddox, Robert James, " The Biggest Decision: Why We Had to Drop the Atomic Bomb," American Heritage 46 (3, May/June, 1995), 70-77. Stehling, Kurt R. "World Shaking Week in December: When the Work in Quiet Lab in Berlin and a Walk in the Snow in Sweden Opened Up the Pandora's Box of Fission," Smithsonian 4 (9, December, 1973), 88-89. Wyden, Peter. Day One: Before Hiroshima and After. New York: Simon and Schuster Publishing Company, 1984. Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css120910

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3936059) **- 02-152 Atomic Dawn III** Lead: With the first sustained nuclear reaction in December, 1942, the Roosevelt administration decided to harvest the energy of the atom by creating a weapon so powerful that it might possibly bring an end to World War II. Intro: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts. Content: The executive director of the Manhattan Engineer District, the project to build the bomb, was Brigadier General Leslie Groves. He in turn chose J. Robert Oppenheimer, Professor of Physics at the University of California at Berkeley, who assembled the team that solved the theoretical and scientific problems associated with the bomb. Groves also selected a naval ordnance officer, Captain William S. "Deak" Parsons, to tackle the construction and delivery of the weapon. First conceived by Hungarian physicist Leo Szilard, the atomic bomb--if it were to be more that just a very expensive dud--had to bring together a mass of uranium large enough to achieve a sustained reaction and quick enough for it to reach critical mass, that point at which enriched uranium-235 blows up with terrifying force. To reach this goal, Parsons and Oppenheimer took two different paths. The first concentrated on a bomb that would use the very small amount of uranium-235 that could be purified, given the technology of the early 1940s. They devised a bomb, consisting basically of a gun inside the bomb casing, that would fire one shaped charge of uranium into another, achieve critical mass, and blow up. Eventually, the bomb that was dropped on Hiroshima--named Little Boy--used this glorified gun technology. The second path chose plutonium, a refined form of uranium which was relatively more plentiful--but unfortunately would not respond to the gun method of achieving critical mass. Because of the makeup of plutonium, the gun could not get enough of it together quick enough to do much more than blow up a house, certainly not a city. The solution was an implosion bomb. Instead of a long gun, the plutonium bomb--named Fat Boy--was round with explosive charges shaped around a plutonium core about the size of a grapefruit. When the charges went off, they compressed the plutonium into critical mass and it went off. The first atomic bomb test in New Mexico on July 16, 1945 was of this variety, as was the second bomb dropped on Nagasaki a month later. The Manhattan Project was one of the great intellectual and technical achievements of the twentieth century. It cost a billion dollars, involved thousands of manhours but, in the end, achieved its purpose: the end of World War II. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Christman, Al. "The Atom Bomb: Making it Happen," American Heritage of Invention and Technology 11 (1, Summer, 1995), 22-35. Cooper, Dan. "The Atom Bomb: Making it Possible, "American Heritage of Invention and Technology 11 (1, Summer, 1995), 10-21. Genion, William, editor. The Affects of the Atomic Bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki by the United States Strategic Bombing Survey. Santa Fe: Genion Publishing, 1973. Groves, Leslie R. Now It Can be Told. New York: Harper&Row Publishers, 1962. Maddox, Robert James, " The Biggest Decision: Why We Had to Drop the Atomic Bomb," American Heritage 46 (3, May/June, 1995), 70-77. Stehling, Kurt R. "World Shaking Week in December: When the Work in Quiet Lab in Berlin and a Walk in the Snow in Sweden Opened Up the Pandora's Box of Fission," Smithsonian 4 (9, December, 1973), 88-89. Wyden, Peter. Day One: Before Hiroshima and After. New York: Simon and Schuster Publishing Company, 1984. Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css120910

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3938022) **- 02-076 The Great Sphinx of Giza** Lead: In recent years, the Great Sphinx of Giza has shown signs of advanced deterioration. Intro: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts. Content: The Sphinx has fired the imagination of poets, scholars, and tourists for generations. Recently stones have begun falling off this massive statue: masonry veneer from the left hind paw in 1981, and a huge piece of bedrock from the right shoulder in 1988. This has led to speculation that the giant lion-shaped figure is actually much older than had been estimated. Heretofore, archeologists have dated the Sphinx as originating in the Old Kingdom about 2500 years B.C. The recent decay, however, has led some scholars to assert that the monument may date back to 5000 to 7000 years B.C. While this dispute remains unresolved, it has led to heightened interest in the origins of the statue and questions as to what purpose it served in the cultic life of the ancient Egyptian religion. The Sphinx sits within a cluster of burial monuments and temples near Giza, just south of the Nile delta. The three giant pyramids of Pharaohs Khufu, Khafre, and Menkaure dominate the skyline. Each of the giant structures has a long causeway or narrow ceremonial boulevard that runs from a temple beside the pyramid down to another temple close to the river itself. This last is called the Valley Temple and serves as an entrance to each pyramid complex. The Giant Sphinx, which is the largest and only remaining of several similar statues, is close to the Valley Temple and the causeway of Pharaoh Khafre. This suggests that Khafre built it as a giant sentinel to guard the Nile entrance to his pyramid. It is carved directly from the rock. Ancient quarrymen cut a horseshoe-shaped ditch and isolated a huge rectangular block of limestone. From that they began to shape the gigantic lion with its massive limbs stretching out in testimony to the power and wealth of its creator. Topping the statue was a human-shaped head, quite possibly modeled after that of Khafre himself. The actual use to which the Sphinx was put remains a mystery. No Old Kingdom texts refer to it or its temple, but it will continue to fascinate and intrigue scholars and visitors alike as archeologists attempt to halt the damage caused with the passage of time. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Hawass, Zahi and Mark Lehner. "The Sphinx: Who built it, And why?" Archeology, September and October (1994), 30-41. Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css120910

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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3940175) **- 14-083 Virginia Dare** Lead: On August 18, 1587, the first child of English parentage was born in the New World. The fate of tiny Virginia Dare is caught up in one of history’s great mysteries--The Lost Colony. Intro.: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts. Content: Optimistic about successful colonization of the New World, one of English Queen Elizabeth’s favorites, Sir Walter Raleigh, attempted expeditions to Virginia in the 1580s. The first failed but he sent a second in 1587. This group of 117--including men, women and children--departed Plymouth on May 8. Their intended destination was farther north in the Chesapeake region but--for reasons not completely clear, possibly due to hurricane season--the pilot refused to continue and in mid-July dropped them on Roanoke Island just off what would become the Carolina mainland. The governor of the colony was John White, illustrator, mapmaker and explorer. White’s illustrations of the landscape and Native Americans from the first trip are found today in many American history books. Among the colonists were White’s daughter, Elinor White Dare, and her husband, Ananias Dare, White’s assistant. One month after the landing, baby Virginia Dare was born on August 18 and christened on the Sunday following. Ten days later Grandfather White returned to England to bring back needed supplies and new recruits. What happened to little Virginia and her parents remains a mystery. White was unable to communicate with or return to the colony for three years and, once there, found the settlement abandoned. The only clues were the word “CROATOAN” etched on a palisade cross-member and the letters “CRO” carved into a tree. Research assistance by Ann Johnson, at the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Devine, Robert A., et al. America Past and Present. New York: Longman, Inc., 1998. Fort Raleigh National Historic Site. Historic Handbook 16. Dec. 2, 2002. Horn, James. A Land as God Make It: Jamestown and the Birth of America. New York: Basic Books, 2005. National Park Service. “Roanoke Revisited Heritage Education Program.” Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr. spc111610css121910

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Periodically, throughout American history, indeed human history, societies under stress take out their frustrations on minorities or other groups deemed different. These outbursts come from xenophobia or nativism or 100% Americanism, or racism, or other such feelings that are normally quiet but lurk just beneath the surface of community life. There they are, ready to explode and inflict violence or discrimination on those who seem to threaten majority control or so-called traditional values. This is not exclusive to America. Over the decades scholars in many disciplines have identified this phenomenon in many societies, primitive as well as sophisticated. Invariably, these outbreaks of violent nativism or discrimination follow a disruption of normal economic and social life and, by early 1919, America had had its share of shocks. Four million men had gone off to war. Some of them had experienced the horrors of trench warfare, and many others had been exposed to the temptations of European cities that they would never have found in the small religious towns of the midwest and south. Women had broken the bounds of marriage and homelife to go to work in war factories. In recent decades, blacks had migrated north to industrial cities and began to challenge whites for valuable industrial jobs, creating racial antagonism. Reform legislation of the progressive era had increased government intervention in the marketplace. This was intensified by widespread government controls over economic life during the war. In the 1900s European--especially German--scholarship had begun to challenge comfortable assumptions about the truth of the Bible which unleashed the modern fundamentalist movement, what one might call a form of religious nativism. During the war, hostility toward German-Americans reached fever pitch. One patriotic author wrote in 1918 of the two million German-Americans, "They used America, they never loved her. They clung to their language, their old customs, and cared nothing for ours . . . as a class they were clannish beyond all other races coming here." Economically, the U.S. was hurting badly as well. With the unexpected Armistice, the government canceled war contracts, bringing business in certain manufacturing segments to a screeching halt and throwing many workers into the street. Orders for food from American farms for European allies and the troops in the trenches rapidly began to decline, leaving farmers in the lurch. Many of them had purchased new mechanized farm equipment on credit to meet the wartime demand and now watched farm prices collapse. They had much less revenue to meet their obligations and many were facing bankruptcy. Perhaps the greatest anxiety animating the average citizen was the persistent inflation that even draconian wartime wage and price controls had failed to check. Prices for farm commodities may have gone down after the Armistice, but prices for nearly everything were skyrocketing--more than doubling between 1915 and 1920. Finally, after the war, many high government officials falsely identified Germany as the author of the Bolshevik revolution. Therefore, in the popular mind, bitterness against Germans quickly morphed into hostility toward communists and Bolsheviks. In such an environment, it did not take much to produce that outburst of violence and anger that we have come to call the Red Scare. Next time: Strikes, Bombs and Bolshevism. Research assistance for this series by Jamie Olivis, at the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Bell, Daniel. Marxian Socialism In the United States. Princeton: Princeton UP. 1970. Brown, Thomas M., and Curry, Richard O., ed. 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| [**A Moment in Time Daily Transcript**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=49232890%26f=426333%26c=3948274) **- 14-081 Red Scare II** Lead: After World War I, America found itself in the grip of anti-communist hysteria. The so-called Red Scare grew out of economic and social disruption caused by the war and its end. It went away when things got better. Intro.: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts. Content: In June 1919, the home of U.S. Attorney General A. Mitchell Palmer was bombed by an assailant who blew himself up when he tripped on the front steps of the Palmer house. Neither Palmer nor his family were harmed. Bombs also had been mailed to the mayor of Seattle and to the Atlanta home of former U.S. Senator Thomas W. Hardwicke of Georgia. Eighteen similar packages were intercepted. Counting these with the sixteen that had been embargoed because of insufficient postage, the picture began to emerge of a coordinated attempt to kill state and federal officials who were deemed opposed to radical causes. On May 1, rioting broke out in several major American cities in conjunction with the annual workers May Day marches. The day was considered a worldwide day of celebration for labor. During the spring, the economic downturn and thousands of layoffs had sent waves of fear through the working-class population, and thousands of longshoremen, tailors, garment workers, streetcar conductors, and garbage collectors went out on strike. Combine the May Day riots with the bombs and the nationwide strikes, and many Americans were growing concerned that the U.S. was facing social chaos, if not a revolution, led by radicals and Bolsheviks. Newspaper editorials shouted their fear of the coming revolution, some asserted that free speech was a menace that needed to be restricted. They insisted that toleration for differing views was risky business. Despite the fact that communists had very little to do with the bombings and had almost nothing to do with the massive labor strikes, many Americans began to fix blame and look for ways of attacking any evidence of Bolshevism. Using wartime laws designed to go after domestic espionage and sedition, Attorney General Palmer organized a series of raids against political radicals, suspected dissidents, left-wing organizations, and immigrants. Thousands of American citizens with radical views--or others simply caught up in the dragnet--were summarily arrested and spent time in jail. Authorities paid scant attention to civil liberties, often failing to obtain search warrants, and holding many of those arrested incommunicado. Other than illegal immigrants who were almost immediately deported, the vast majority of those arrested in the so-called Palmer Raids had to be released for a lack of evidence of guilt. Schools and colleges became the targets of anti-communist crusaders from the outside or the inside. Yale, the University of Chicago, Vassar and Smith were accused of harboring radicals because they made the works of Karl Marx required reading. In Baltimore a high school teacher was fired after she compared communism to democracy. Even in liberal, emancipated New York City, school board officials conducted a witchhunt for suspected "red" teachers and fired many of the city’s best educators. Yet, by the middle of 1920, the Red Scare was beginning to run out of steam. Slowly people began to realize, with some chagrin, that the talk of revolution had been just talk and the hysteria began to abate. In Europe, Italy, Germany and France were not overrun by communism and Bolshevism seemed bottled up in Russia. In the economy, business began to pick up and unemployment went down. Finally, when the New York Assembly attempted to block socialist party delegates from serving, something snapped in the national attitude. People began to realize that the nation was getting carried away and that to deny legitimately elected officials from taking their seats was foolish and childish. Almost as quickly as it arose, the Red Scare receded. Its emphasis, however, on 100% Americanism and its assault on liberty and freedom would lurk just beneath the surface of American life. During hard times or when the nation felt threatened, the feelings remained, ready to be exploited by clever politicians such as Senator Joseph McCarthy. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts. Resources Bell, Daniel. Marxian Socialism In the United States. Princeton: Princeton UP. 1970. Brown, Thomas M., and Curry, Richard O., ed. Conspiracy- The fear of Subversion in American History. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1972. Cantor. Milton. 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