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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     |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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     |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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=3935171) **- 02-150 Atomic Dawn I**  [**02-150 Atomic Dawn I**](https://webmail.vbschools.com/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://feedblitz.com/r.asp?l=52321361%26f=426333%26u=23385198%26c=3935171)   Lead: The road to Hiroshima began in earnest not on Tinian, or in Los Alamos, or Chicago, or Princeton, but in prewar Nazi Berlin.  Intro: A Moment In Time with Dan Roberts.  Content: By the mid-1930s, scientists had determined that the nucleus of the atom was not a single unit of matter but was made up of protons and neutrons. Neutrons, because they have no electrical charge, were being used to explore the nature of the atomic nucleus. The Italian physicist Enrico Fermi began bombarding various elements with neutrons in 1934 and had concluded that relatively moderate changes could be made in the nucleus of one substance if hit with streams of neutrons from another.  Similar experiments along the same lines had revealed a strange development. When uranium was subjected to a stream of neutrons, the results indicated the presence of another much lighter element. This discovery, at the time largely unnoticed, marked the beginning of the age of nuclear fission.  At the Kaiser Wilhelm Institute for Chemistry in Dahlem, a suburb of Berlin, Otto Hahn, one of the world's most respected scientists, and his associate Fritz Strassmann, had been trying to determine the nature of this mysterious element. On December 17, 1938, at about 10:30 in the evening, the Hahn team began hitting uranium with neutrons. Uranium has an atomic weight of 92. If Fermi was right, the process should chip off a neutron or two and produce a substance only slightly smaller, something with the weight of 88 or 90. But that night, once again, they came up with this mysterious substance which they confirmed to be barium, a much lighter element with the atomic weight of 56.  Hahn checked these findings with Lise Meitner, a colleague in Stockholm, Sweden, and she suggested that perhaps the neutrons had split the uranium atoms. This was in violation of accepted principles of physics at the time, and Meitner and Hahn were reluctant to embrace such a conclusion. But subsequent tests confirmed the theory. Along with the transformation came an extraordinary release of energy. For the scientists, it took only a short leap of imagination to realize the potential for creating a weapon of terrible power.  Next time: A controlled and self-sustaining nuclear reaction.  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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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=3937481) **- 02-153 Atomic Dawn IV**   Lead: On July 16, 1945, in the high desert of New Mexico near the small village of Los Alamos, the first atomic bomb was exploded. The thing worked. Harry Truman had to decide what to do with it.  Intro: A Moment In Time with Dan Roberts.  Content: Just after taking office on the day of the death of Franklin Roosevelt, President Harry Truman was approached by Secretary of War Henry Stimson. The latter spoke briefly of a new weapon nearing completion, a new explosive of almost unbelievable power. Truman did not know what he was talking about. Roosevelt had kept his vice president in the dark about a subject that was to provoke one of the earliest and most important decisions of Truman's presidency--whether to use the atomic bomb on Japan or not. As the days passed and more information was made available, Truman slowly realized that within months he would have to determine how this new weapon would be used. Scientists had solved most of the problems with the device, and he had only a few weeks to make up his mind.  Winston Churchill later wrote of a conversation he had during this period in which Truman was tormented by "the terrible responsibilities that rested upon him in regard to the unlimited effusions of American blood."  Truman was also very much aware of Japanese determination to defend their homeland to the last. Though there was a peace faction in the Tokyo government that wished to end the war under certain conditions, they were in the minority. Most of the Japanese leadership was committed to a fiery response to any invasion of the Japanese home islands. They proved it at Okinawa. Since the Allied landings on April 1, 1945, the Japanese had fought with such savagery, including kamikaze attacks, that they had inflicted nearly 50,000 casualties.  Truman's advisors estimated that as many as one million U.S. casualties would result from an invasion of Japan. This prospect was enough to compel the president to act. When the Japanese rejected the Allied ultimatum issued from Potsdam, Germany on July 26, 1946, Truman gave his okay to use the bombs. Within the month, the cities of Nagasaki and Hiroshima had been incinerated.  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. 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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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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=3938480) **- 01-147 The Haymarket Affair I**   Lead: In early May 1886 in the Haymarket area of Chicago, a bloody confrontation occurred between police and workers. There followed the first "Red Scare" in American social history.  Intro: A Moment In Time with Dan Roberts.  Content: The so-called Haymarket Affair began on May 3 when Chicago police attacked a crowd of strikers at the McCormick Reaper Works, killing and wounding several men. The next night anarchists held a protest rally near Haymarket Square in the commercial area of the city. Just as the meeting was breaking up because of an approaching storm, a squad of police arrived and ordered the crowd to disperse. The speaker, Samuel Fielden, protested but was getting down from the wagon to comply when someone threw a bomb into the police ranks. The officers lost control and starting firing in all directions, killing and wounding civilians as well as policemen.  Chicago that spring had been in the grip of wide-scale labor protest focusing on demands for an eight-hour work day, and labor associations from across the political spectrum were organizing these protests. Some of the most effective work was done by the anarchists--a group of libertarian socialists who in part took their philosophical inspiration from Mikail Bakunin, an opponent of Karl Marx’s insistence on a centralized and disciplined Communist party. They wanted a society based on voluntary cooperation of free individuals with neither government nor private property. Within their ranks, however, there were many who spoke the rhetoric of violence and more than a few who were quite willing to use it.  The police were provoked by almost constant confrontation with labor agitators that spring. They were led by Inspector John Bonfield and excited by inflammatory rhetoric and some of the more extreme propaganda of the anarchists. Bonfield had been fretting under the moderate policy of Mayor Carter H. Harrison who believed that the Constitution demanded that police should control and channel protest rather than suppress it. The inspector disagreed, and that night he did something about it. When the smoke cleared, sixty-seven policemen lay wounded, many of them by shots from their own ranks; later eight died. A significant number of civilians were also among the casualties.  Next time: The Haymarket Anarchists on Trial.  The producer of A Moment In Time is Steve Clark. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts.  Resources  Avrich, Paul. The Haymarket Tragedy. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1984.  David, Henry. The History of the Haymarket Affair: A Study in the American Social-Revolutionary and Labor Movements. New York: Russell and Russell Publishing Company, 1958.  Roediger, Dave and Franklin Rosemont, Editors. Haymarket Scrapbook. Chicago: C.H. Kerr Publishing Company, 1986.  Schindler, Burton. "The Haymarket Bomb," American History Illustrated 1986 21(4):20-27.  Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr.  spc111610css121710   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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=3939649) **- 01-147 The Haymarket Affair I**   Lead: In early May 1886 in the Haymarket area of Chicago, a bloody confrontation occurred between police and workers. There followed the first "Red Scare" in American social history.  Intro: A Moment In Time with Dan Roberts.  Content: The so-called Haymarket Affair began on May 3 when Chicago police attacked a crowd of strikers at the McCormick Reaper Works, killing and wounding several men. The next night anarchists held a protest rally near Haymarket Square in the commercial area of the city. Just as the meeting was breaking up because of an approaching storm, a squad of police arrived and ordered the crowd to disperse. 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The History of the Haymarket Affair: A Study in the American Social-Revolutionary and Labor Movements. New York: Russell and Russell Publishing Company, 1958.  Roediger, Dave and Franklin Rosemont, Editors. Haymarket Scrapbook. Chicago: C.H. Kerr Publishing Company, 1986.  Schindler, Burton. "The Haymarket Bomb," American History Illustrated 1986 21(4):20-27.  Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr.  spc111610css121710   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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=3939699) **- 01-148 The Haymarket Affair II**  Lead: In early May 1886 in the Haymarket area of Chicago, a bloody confrontation occurred between police and workers. There followed the first "Red Scare" in American social history.  Intro: A Moment In Time with Dan Roberts.  Content: The violence occurred at the end of an initially peaceful rally called by the anarchist movement to protest the attack by police on strikers at the McCormick Reaper factory the previous day. Several of their number had been killed or wounded and union members were quite angry. As the meeting was breaking up, the police arrived in strength. Someone tossed a bomb into the police ranks, and the police started firing--killing civilians and their own men as well.  Chicago and the rest of the country erupted in a frenzy of panic. Whipped up by fear of anarchist insurrection, newspapers and public officials called for immediate suppression of radical sedition. Soon the angry voices crowded out civilized discussion, and often those who called for moderation or defended the right of peaceful protest were denounced. Rumors circulated that anarchists were plotting to blow up public buildings and bridges; for months the country was in the grip of hysteria.  In Chicago the police, excited by calls for revenge and perhaps not a little eager to distract attention away from their own lack of discipline on that fatal evening, were busy--not pursuing the one who threw the bomb but arresting anarchists, radicals, and even ordinary labor leaders who had nothing to do with the rally.  They never caught the bomber, but eventually eight Chicago anarchists were brought to trial. In proceedings that have been almost universally condemned as a travesty of justice, they were all convicted of murder. After appeal, four were hanged, one committed suicide, and three were sentenced to long jail terms. Six years later. Governor John Peter Altgeld reviewed the case and pardoned the survivors. He vigorously criticized the judge and found that the evidence did not show that any of the eight anarchists had been involved in the bombing.  The Haymarket Affair became the focus for much turmoil in American society at the time. It provoked bitter reaction against radicalism, the huge influx of so-called "foreign immigrants," and the influence of labor unions. It divided the nation and helped define loyalties at a critical juncture in the social history of the United States.  The producer of A Moment In Time is Steve Clark. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts.  Resources  Avrich, Paul. The Haymarket Tragedy. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1984.  David, Henry. The History of the Haymarket Affair: A Study in the American Social-Revolutionary and Labor Movements. New York: Russell and Russell Publishing Company, 1958.  Roediger, Dave and Franklin Rosemont, Editors. Haymarket Scrapbook. Chicago: C.H. Kerr Publishing Company, 1986.  Schindler, Burton. "The Haymarket Bomb," American History Illustrated 1986 21(4):20-27.  Copyright 202010 by Daniel M. 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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   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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=3940664) **- 02-185 George and Sally I**   Lead: It could have been a fatal scandal. Before his marriage, George Washington fell head over heels in love with a married woman.  Intro.: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts.  Content: For many Americans, George Washington is an icon frozen in the distant past--revered, untouchable and, therefore, not a little unreal. Yet, as a national leader, he was somewhat embarrassed by the adoration heaped on him.  George Washington was no icon, however. He was a real human being with faults and failures, with temptations and struggles, with triumphs and disappointments. As a young man, he took up the profession of land surveyor and in the 1750s was hired by Thomas Lord Fairfax, the sixth Baron Fairfax of Cameron, the only English peer to take up residency in America. Washington helped survey Fairfax' estates in the northern reaches of the Shenandoah Valley, over five million acres. In the course of this work, the young Washington grew close to the Fairfax family, particularly to George William and his beautiful and vivacious wife, Sally Cary Fairfax.  Washington in his teens and early twenties was a ruggedly handsome man, blue-gray eyes, reddish brown hair, nearly two hundred pounds on a six-foot frame. He was quite the romantic and cut a swath through Virginia society, courting numerous young ladies, falling for some, and having to endure not a few refusals to his offer of marriage. Betsy Fauntleroy turned him down twice, as did the New York heiress, Mary Philipse. Woodrow Wilson said of Washington at this period, "He had the blood of a lover beyond his fellows." One of those who turned him down was Mary Cary, the sister of Sally Fairfax. Sometime before 1755 his attraction to Mary--and many others--was transferred to her older sister, the wife of George William Fairfax who had become one of Washington's best friends.  Next time: Affection from Afar.  At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts.  Resources  Barrett, Wayne. "George and Betsy and Polly and Patsy and  Sally...and Sally...and Sally," Smithsonian 4 (8, November,  1973), 90-99.  Boller, Paul F., Jr. Presidential Wives. New York: Oxford  University Press, 1988.  Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr.  spc111610121910   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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=3941967) **- 02-186 George and Sally II**   Lead: In the mid-1750s, the young and dashing militia officer, George Washington, fell in love with the wife of one of his best friends.  Intro.: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts.  Content: Sally Cary Fairfax came from one of the oldest families in Virginia. She was articulate and cultured, a handsome woman with a sparkling personality who lived with her husband George William Fairfax at Belvoir--the Fairfax estate not far from Mount Vernon, the home Washington had inherited from his half-brother. Their correspondence began in the spring of 1755 and, over a three-year span, letters found their way to and from Washington who was posted to various military forts on the frontier. Their notes, often sent through third parties, were discreet but little was left to the imagination. She had captured his heart and was herself taken by this young man. Once, when her husband was in England and George was alone and convalescing from a protracted illness at Mount Vernon, he wrote her a long and intricate letter, filled with caveats and, on the surface, innocent statements. Perhaps innocent...but the stated purpose of the letter was just to borrow a recipe for jelly. In a letter sent to Belvoir from Fort Cumberland shortly before his marriage to Martha Custis, he wrote, "You have drawn me, my dear madam, into an honest confession of a simple fact...The world has no business to know the object of my love, declared in this manner to you..."  Such affection, declared from afar, could go nowhere. She was a married woman and he a man who valued his honorable reputation. In March 1758 he met and sought the hand of Martha Dandridge Custis, a freshly widowed mother of two, one of the wealthiest women in Virginia. Blocked from pursuing his heart's inclination, he made an excellent choice. Perhaps reflecting on how life had forced a change of direction, he later wrote, "Love is a mighty pretty thing but it is too dainty a food to live on alone, a partner should have good sense, a good disposition, a good reputation, and financial means." Martha had those in great abundance.  In 1773 George William and Sally left Belvoir for England, never to return. The Fairfaxes were loyalists and were dispossessed of a good measure of their Virginia property upon the American victory. George loved his wife and was loyal to her until the end; however, he continued to have a lifelong sentimental affection for Sally Fairfax. Just before his death, he resumed their correspondence after a twenty-five year break. In one letter he confessed that, though he had a busy life, all those events had failed to eradicate from his mind "the recollection of those happy moments, the happiest in my life, which I have enjoyed in your company."  At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts.  Resources  Barrett, Wayne. "George and Betsy and Polly and Patsy and Sally...and Sally...and Sally," Smithsonian 4 (8, November, 1973), 90-99.  Boller, Paul F., Jr. Presidential Wives. New York: Oxford University Press, 1988.  Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. 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Historians actually know few details about his life, but it seems that he was much admired for his kindness, piety and charity. These characteristics became legendary and the legends began to grow and spread--St. Nicholas tossing bags of gold through windows to needy children, St. Nicholas intervening to save children and sailors from death, St. Nicholas saving three sisters from being sold into slavery or perhaps prostitution by their father (by providing a dowry for each so the sisters could find suitable husbands). As the legends spread and grew, Nicholas eventually became the protector of many groups of people in need . . . and even the performer of miracles.  December 6, the anniversary of St. Nicholas’ death, became his feast day, and many Europeans marked the date by giving presents or treats to children. After the Protestant Reformation, Catholic traditions--including the veneration of St. Nicholas--did not survive in many parts of Europe, particularly with Puritans and Protestant reformers in England. The legend of St. Nicholas, though, blended with Christmas celebrations and with local customs in Germany, Ireland, Scandinavia, and particularly in Holland where the feast day continued to be celebrated. In 1624 Saint Nicholas came to America with the Dutch colony founded on the mouth of the Hudson River in what is present-day New York.  Next Time: St. Nicholas Grows Tall and Gains Weight.  At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts.  Resources  Burrows, Edwin G. and Mike Wallace. Gotham: A History of New York City to 1898.  New York: Oxford University Press, 2000.  Devine, Robert A., et al. America Past and Present. New York: Longman, Inc., 1998.  Federer, William J. There Really is a Santa Claus: The History of St. Nicholas and Christmas Holiday. 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Content: Although the myth of Santa Claus has roots in a real person--Nicholas, an early Catholic bishop from the ancient city of Myra in southwest Asia Minor--our modern-day Santa Claus is actually a blend of religious and secular customs and traditions from various parts of the western world.  Immigrants settling in America from the early 1600s brought various Christmas traditions: the Germans brought decorated trees; the Irish brought the Gaelic custom of lighted window candles and a door wreath of holly; and the Scandinavians brought their tradition of a gift-giving gnome who lived in the attic and puckishly left goodies and gifts in shoes.  The Dutch, though, brought their beloved St. Nicholas as “Sinter Klaas” and the custom of celebrating his feast day on December 6. On the eve of this day, children were visited by the robe-wearing saint who would leave gifts or treats. English-speaking children became enchanted with this Dutch tradition and transformed Sinter Klaas into “Santa Claus.”  During the nineteenth century two American writers and one notable artist refined the image of Santa Claus, giving him the characteristics we know today. In 1809 Washington Irving published Knickerbocker’s History of New York, and in it he described Saint Nicholas as a jolly man riding over treetops in a wagon filled with presents. In 1823 Clement Clarke Moore published his poem “A Visit from St. Nicholas,” commonly known as “’Twas the Night Before Christmas.” It further elaborated on details of the annual visit by St. Nicholas. Moore’s elfish Saint Nicholas wears a red suit, has twinkling eyes, a red nose and a little round belly. He has a sleigh and eight tiny reindeer and enters the house through the chimney while carrying a bundle of toys on his back. His visit takes place on December 24.  Finishing touches on Santa Claus were created most notably by cartoonist Thomas Nast. From 1863-1886, Nast did a series of Christmas illustrations for "Harpers Weekly." Nast depicted Santa with a red suit and white beard, and he became more life-size and plump. He had a workshop and home at the North Pole where he kept the infamous list which he checked more than once.  In the twentieth century, details such as Mrs. Claus and the geographically perceptive red-nosed reindeer named Rudolph were added, and the whole enterprise became part of a giant commercialized imperative compelling parents and children into a breathless and quite profitable anticipation of the arrival of Santa Claus.  Research by Ann Johnson, at the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts.  Resources  Burrows, Edwin G. and Mike Wallace. Gotham: A History of New York City to 1898.  New York: Oxford University Press, 2000.  Devine, Robert A., et al. America Past and Present. New York: Longman, Inc., 1998.  Federer, William J. There Really is a Santa Claus: The History of St. Nicholas and Christmas Holiday. St. Louis: Amerisearch, Inc. 2002.  Seal, Jeremy. Nicholas: The Epic Journey from Saint to Santa Claus. New York: Bloomsbury, 2005.  St. Nicholas Center. 10 September 2009 < http://www.stnicholascenter.org/Brix?pageID=38>.  Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. Roberts, Jr.  spc111610css122210   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | [**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=3944102) **- 07-097 London and the Monarchy**   Lead: In its long history, the magnificent metropolis of London has increasingly dominated national social, political, and economic life. England's monarchs have not ignored such importance.  Intro: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts.  Content: Mary Tudor was irritated. The city had once again failed to respond to one of her royal decrees. In what is probably an urban legend, she is said to have stormed off, threatening to move the seat of government to Oxford. Perhaps she hoped to wound the city's invincible pride and find in the west country a more receptive and pleasing environment in which to conduct the nation's business. One irreverent city politician, when told of the queen's threat, wondered out loud if she also intended to divert the Thames. Mary, like those monarchs who came before and after, knew she could not ignore the giant city in which she lived. Those who tried usually came to regret it.  Essayist Penelope Corfield points out that this respect was nowhere more obvious than in the royal homes. They are uniformly dreary and unimpressive. The British expect their rulers to be available, attentive to duty, live in comparative simplicity, be a focus for patriotic loyalty, provide the occasional pageant for national entertainment, and be sensitive to public opinion.  The most recent example of royal response to Londoner sensibilities was its better-late-than-never acknowledgment of the death of Princess Diana Spencer. By their presence, the huge London crowds demanded royal leadership in the public grieving. They got it. London--with its huge economy, enormous population and independent spirit--hovers around the monarchy as the representative of the people, acting as a giant urban enforcer of royal behavior.  The producer of A Moment in Time is Steve Clark. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts.  Resources  Colley, Linda. Britons: Forging the Nation, 1707-1737. New Haven: Yale University, 1992.  Corfield, Penelope. "London and the Modern Monarchy," History Today 49 (2, February 1999): 6-16.  Roberts, Dan. The Puritan Political Organization of Civil War London: The Legacy of Lord High Mayor Isaac Pennington. Charlottesville: University of Virginia, Unpublished Dissertation, 1997.  Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. 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The most avid interest then and now continues to be the Chamber of Horrors, the waxed collection of notorious murderers caught in the act of taking their victims.  Curtius was a supporter of the revolution and was among the leaders of the National Guard who led the July 14 attack on the ancient prison and fort in the heart of Paris, the Bastille. He recalled the story--and hyped his own participation--in his gallery where people came to see the death heads of the Bastille defenders and, later, those of Maximilien Robespierre and the king and queen.  Philippe Curtius died in 1794 and Marie inherited the business, but a pitiful marriage and mounting debt caused her to flee France for Britain in 1802 with her young son. She intended the trip to be a temporary tour, but she never returned. Tussaud combined a highly-competent creative skill with an almost infallible sense of marketing. She knew that people wanted to witness the bizarre in an upscale environment, and so she placed her “galleries” in fashionable London neighborhoods and resort towns such as Bath and Brighton. These wax figures were the closest most people came to seeing the real thing. How these wax works have survived and continue to prosper in the face of the media explosion is an ongoing wonder to those who study marketing.  At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts.  Resources  Church, Roy and Andrew Godley. The Emergence of Modern Marketing. London and Portland, Oregon: F. Cass, 2003.  Leslie, Anita and Pamela Chapman. Madame Tussaud: Waxworker Extraordinary. London: Hutchison Publishing Company, Ltd., 1978.  Pilbeam, Pam. “Madame Tussaud and Her Waxworks,” History Today 52 (12, December 2002): 6-7.  Pilbeam, Pamela. Madame Tussaud and the History of Waxworks. New York and London: Mambelton and London, 2003.  http://www.madame-tussauds.com/  Copyright 2010 by Daniel M. 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They could deny enemy shipping access to the Mediterranean and perhaps force out of the war Turkey and the Ottoman Empire who, along with Germany and Austria-Hungary, constituted the major nations in the central power alliance. After Turkish forces began significant advance into southern Russia, the frantic czarist government appealed to the Allies to help create a diversion.  The idea of forcing the strait at Gallipoli was promoted by Winston Churchill, British First Lord of Admiralty. Besides opening the Black Sea for navigation, Churchill and British military leaders hoped that a campaign in the east would also force Germany to shift some of its forces away from the bloody western front and relieve also the Russian army that was being decimated in northern Europe.  To open the Dardanelles, in February and March 1915, British and French naval vessels were sent into the area, but the fleet was forced to withdraw after floating mines damaged several ships.  Next time: Anzac  Research assistance by Ann Johnson, Ron Welch and Heidi Yates. The producer of A Moment In Time is Steve Clark. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts.  Resources  Bennet, Matthew R., Peter Doyle. "Military Geography: The Influence of Terrain in the Outcome of the Gallipoli Campaign." The Geographical Journal V.165 II (1999): 12-13.  Hamilton, Sir Ian. Gallipoli Diary Vol. I. New York: George H. Doran Company, 1920.  Hamilton, Sir Ian. Gallipoli Diary Vol. II. New York: George H. Doran Company, 1920.  "Gallipoli Campaign," Microsoft Encarta Online Encyclopedia 2000 http://encarta.msn.com Copyright 1997-2000 Microsoft Corporation.  Kraines, Oscar. "Gallipoli, 1915-1916: Churchill's Road to Jerusalem - Failure and Vindication." Midstream V47II (2001): 12-22.  Moorehead, Alan. Gallipoli. New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1956.  Thomson, Alistair. Anzac Memories Living with the Legend. Oxford, Auckland, New York: Oxford University Press, 1994.  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The Allies wanted to take the strait and the Turkish capital Constantinople so as to control navigation between the Mediterranean and Black Seas, to open a sea route to Russia that was being pressed by Turkish forces advancing in the Caucasus region, and perhaps to divert German forces who were beating up the French and British on the western front and Russia in the east.  After British and French ships failed to open the Dardanelles in early 1915, the Allies determined that an amphibious invasion of the Gallipoli peninsula that formed the western shore of the strait was the only way to gain a strategic toehold in this region; therefore, on April 25, 1915, at 3:30 in the morning, seventy-five thousand Allied troops landed at various points along the peninsula.  Of this initial thrust, sixteen thousand were fresh volunteers from the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps, or Anzac. Most of them were going into battle for the first time. They were physically very impressive and were there as part of an enormous wave of patriotic fervor that had swept across the two southwestern Pacific nations at the beginning of the Great War. Anzac troops were there to prove their nations had come of age and to show their loyalty to Britain and the Allied cause. They were put ashore on the beach ten miles north of the tip of the peninsula and were there met by well-entrenched Turkish soldiers who fired furiously at the Anzac units, inflicting immediate and horrific casualties. Anzac soldiers suffered a terrible trial by combat at Gallipoli.  Next time: Gallipoli in fact and in memory.  The producer of A Moment In Time is Steve Clark. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts.  Resources  Bennett, Matthew R., Peter Doyle. "Military Geography: The Influence of Terrain in the Outcome of the Gallipoli Campaign." The Geographical Journal V.165 II (1999):12-13.  Hamilton, Sir Ian. Gallipoli Diary Volume I. New York: George H. 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Roberts, Jr.  spc111610css122610   |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | | [**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=3946538) **- 08-017 Gallipoli III**   Lead: At Gallipoli during World War I, forces of the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps, Anzac, endured a bitter and disheartening trial by fire.  Intro: A Moment In Time with Dan Roberts.  Content: In early 1915, an attempt by French and British naval units to force themselves through the strategic Dardanelles Strait in European Turkey failed. Forming the western shore of the strait is the peninsula Gallipoli, which extends fifty miles southwest into the Aegean Sea. This ill-fated naval expedition telegraphed the Allies' intent and, in the month after the withdrawal of the ships, the Turks reinforced their positions, hauled in heavy artillery and increased their defensive troops on the Gallipoli peninsula by a factor of six.  When the Allied soldiers arrived on the beaches of Gallipoli in April 1915, the Turks were waiting on the steep cliffs. The eight-month campaign was a complete failure. The Allies had little knowledge of the terrain, poor coordination in their attacks, tepid support from the navy and an absolutely inept commander, British General Sir Ian Hamilton, who commanded the campaign from the comfort of a ship sitting offshore. There was a lack of supplies and fresh water and disease was rampant. The result was enormous casualties, nearly a half-million on both sides. Despite heroic and mostly futile efforts, particularly those of the Anzac troops, Allied forces were never able to penetrate very far inland. Finally, after a brilliant and secret evacuation, the Allies just gave up.  Anzac troops suffered horrendous casualties, sixty-five thousand Australians alone. Each April 25, on the anniversary of the first landing when so many were killed on the beach, Australians commemorate Anzac Day. In an interview with Professor George Parsons of Macquarie University in Sydney, he said:  "[Gallipoli] could have been handled as an absolute disaster. We lost heavy. This is madness. Why are we here and so on? In fact, it was handled in a different way. It was handled almost as though, ‘We've come of age as a nation here on the shores of the Dardanelles.’ We've done what people have to do. We're a nation now. We've stood together. So Gallipoli turned into Anzac Day, which is, I think, the great Australian Day."  The producer of A Moment In Time is Steve Clark. At the University of Richmond, this is Dan Roberts.  Resources  Bennett, Matthew R., Peter Doyle. "Military Geography: The Influence of Terrain in the Outcome of the Gallipoli Campaign." The Geographical Journal V.165 II (1999):12-13.  Hamilton, Sir Ian. Gallipoli Diary Volume I. New York: George H. Doran Company, 1920.  Hamilton, Sir Ian. Gallipoli Diary Volume II. New York: George H. Doran Company, 1920.  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Copyright 2010 by Daniel M Roberts, Jr.  spc111610css122610   |  |  | | --- | --- | | [**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=3946948) **- 14-080 Red Scare I**   Lead: Immediately after World War I, the United States endured a period of sharp hostility toward immigrants, blacks, and Bolsheviks. Called the Red Scare, it was not the first time it had happened, nor would it be the last time.  Intro.: A Moment in Time with Dan Roberts.  Content: In May 1919, at a celebration for the wartime success of the victory loan program in Washington D.C., for one reason or another a man failed to rise for the playing of "The Star-Spangled Banner." When the anthem was over, a sailor boiling with rage over the spectator’s alleged unpatriotism, fired three shots into his back to the cheers of the onlooking crowd. Such incidents were not rare in the eighteen months following World War I.  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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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. The Divided Left: American Radicalism. 1900 1975. New York: Hill and Wang, 1978.  Coben, Stanley. "A Study in Nativism: The American Red Scare of 1919-20," Political Science Quarterly. 79 (1, March, 1964): 52-75.  Colburn, David R. “Governor Alfred E. Smith and the Red Scare, 1919-1920,” Political Science Quarterly, 88 (September, 1973): 423-444  Diggins, John P. The American Left In the Twentieth Century. New York, Chicago. San Francisco, Atlanta: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1973.  Heale, M.I. American Anticommunism: Combating the Enemy Within: 1830-1970.  Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1990.  Jaffe, Julian F. 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