

Blackwell's Almanac

A Publication of the Roosevelt Island Historical Society



1840s Lower Fifth Avenue showcased the Italianate style that was part of New York City's new architectural aesthetic. See "Old New York: Part 3—The Go-Go Years (1825–1860)," p. 7. Image: The Historical Atlas of New York City.

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Blackwell's Almanac

Published quarterly in February, May, August and November. Back issues may be viewed at rihs.us. Click on *Blackwell's Almanac* at left.

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Saving America's Cities: Ed Logue and the Creation of Roosevelt Island by Robin Lynn

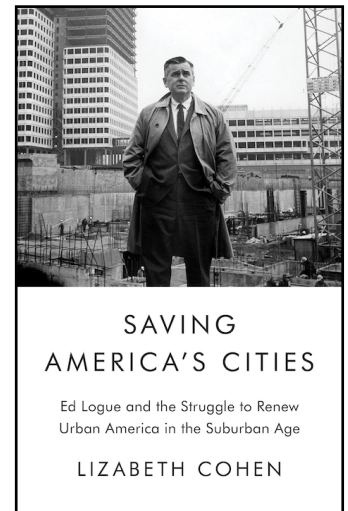
In the early 1980s, I invited Ed Logue to my home on Roosevelt Island. I knew of his role as the former president and chief executive of the NY State Urban Development Corporation (UDC), the agency that Governor Rockefeller formed in 1968 to build subsidized low- and moderate-income housing throughout New York State. I wanted to meet the mastermind behind the audacious plan that created our “new-town-in-town,” allowing me to live in the middle of the East River, raise my three children among appealing open spaces, and benefit from an unlikely form of mass transit—the tram—connecting us to 59th Street.

To my surprise, Logue accepted my luncheon call. “Residents never invite you back,” he said to my husband Larry, and I had. Now, Lizabeth Cohen has published *Saving America's Cities*, *Ed Logue and the Struggle to Renew Urban America in the Suburban Age* (Farrar, Straus & Giroux, 2019).

This fascinating book tracks Logue's work, not just in developing Roosevelt Island in the 1970s (as head of UDC), but redeveloping New Haven in the 1950s, Boston in the 1960s, and the South Bronx from 1978–85. Cohen, the current Howard Mumford Jones Professor of American Studies in the History Department at Harvard University, brings Logue's backers and foes to life, while focusing on his vision to revitalize post-war cities. She spends considerable time documenting the rise and demise of UDC, which had transformed Welfare Island into Roosevelt Island.

Cohen's meticulously researched and accessible volume, which won the Bancroft Prize for history in 2020, delves into the complex world of city planning through the lens, as she states in her introduction, of “who's in charge, who should have a say, who benefits, and who pays the bill.” Logue, Cohen writes, was enormously proud of his work on Roosevelt Island. He aimed to create what he called a “socially engineered community,” which embodied his goals for successful post-war urban living: a mixed-income, mixed-race, handicapped accessible community, with buildings designed by progressive architects working to build housing for all and using innovative building technology.

Logue couldn't come over to the island often enough while our community was being built. Cohen quotes a *New York Times* reporter's description of him as, at least once a week, “plunging in his bear-like way around the site—old corduroys, green Shetland sweater, shirttail hanging out and no hard-hat covering his stack of grey hair; slow-speaking, fast-thinking, an interesting mixture of charm and combativeness.” Cohen helped put Logue's comments to me—those that I remember, lo, these



Ed Logue portrayed on the cover of Dr. Cohen's book.

many years later—into context. But I wanted more. And although I could not invite Elizabeth Cohen over to schmooze about her book, I could contact her for the Roosevelt Island Historical Society.

Robin: Thank you for letting me email questions to you. For those who don't know Edward J. Logue, could you please introduce our island's planner and tell us why he is important.

Professor Cohen: Ed Logue may not be a familiar name to most people today. But in his own time, he was well known as a leader in the effort to revitalize American cities which were under severe

threat from the explosion of suburbs in the 1950s and 1960s. And it was not just residents who were fleeing. So too were business headquarters, manufacturing plants, and retail stores, which meant that many jobs and urban attractions were relocating to more decentralized metropolitan areas.

In New Haven, Boston, and New York, Logue took advantage of federal funding for what was then called "urban renewal." Many of the efforts undertaken to save cities ultimately proved terribly damaging to their survival: for example, when working-class neighborhoods were torn down to make way for new highways or housing that would retain and attract middle-class residents. I have no interest in whitewashing the worst abuses of

urban renewal. But I argue in the book that we are mistaken if we assume that urban renewal meant the same thing everywhere, from its establishment in 1949 until the mid-1970s, when the federal government under President Nixon withdrew funding for housing and cities. Instead, I suggest, someone like Logue made mistakes, but he also learned on the job. And over time, he

experimented with new, less damaging strategies for saving cities, which he deeply valued and felt were in grave trouble. The UDC's three New Towns, of which Roosevelt Island was one, were a way of doing things better.

Not all urban renewers were like Logue, of course. I show how, for example, his

goals were much more progressive than those of Robert Moses. Roosevelt Island was so precious to Logue because it embodied his hope that city neighborhoods could be made more diverse in income, race, age, and accessibility, with affordable housing and good schools available to all, who were living side-by-side. To his mind, financial support from the federal government was key to achieving this rather utopian goal of a more socially and economically integrated America.

Robin: Every morning as he shaved, Logue would look out his window onto Welfare Island, and that was how, he said to me, he became curious about the place. (From Cohen's research I learned that his apartment was at 1 East End Avenue). With all the affordable housing projects he had



Governor Nelson Rockefeller signing the bill into law creating the New York State Urban Development Corporation on April 10, 1968. Credit: New York State Archives.

under construction across the state (eventually, 115), and the pressure he was under to quickly complete them, why was he so intent on building an entire new town? What lessons did Logue learn from his work redeveloping New Haven in the 1950s, and Boston in the 1960s, that determined his approach to developing Roosevelt Island?

Cohen: The New Town strategy arose out of Logue's growing recognition that demolition-style urban renewal was not the answer. His earliest efforts in New Haven had suffered from this clearance approach. He sought alternatives in Boston. But the real breakthrough came in New York State. As he told colleagues in 1970, "We cannot...put all the emphasis on rebuilding, tearing down and rehabilitating in the inner city."

So, instead, he sought available land where new housing could be constructed. "I don't have to condemn it. I don't have to relocate families. I don't have to demolish any buildings," he explained. He also broke with the modernist orthodoxy of separating functions, and sought to combine living, working, schooling, shopping, and recreating in one planned community.

Robin: I remember that Logue said he hired many different architects to develop Roosevelt Island so that no one firm could dominate his project. Logue, you make clear, liked to be in control. What were Logue's criteria for selecting architects? Why was he

a champion of modern architecture? Why did he equate "social engineering" with the modern movement in architecture?

Cohen: Logue wanted as much as possible to ensure that his projects avoided the cookie-cutter look—an alienating experience of public housing. That goal included seeking alternatives to high-rise "tower-in-the-park" buildings. The UDC's Marcus Garvey Park Village project in Brooklyn, for example, innovated what was called "low-rise, high density housing," achieving the same number of units by designing the structures differently.

Interestingly, just when UDC was collapsing in 1975, it was in the midst of sponsoring an architectural competition for a new, more promising prototype for high-rise-style subsidized housing on Roosevelt Island. In selecting architects, Logue wanted to attract a mix of up-and-coming and established architects. He hoped to encourage them to make housing design more of a priority. But he was also wary of letting architects do too much of their own thing and, in that way, was a demanding client. He said, "If you leave architects alone, they will make a statement." So he established mechanisms like UDC's famous "live-ins," where architects and staff alike had to stay over in projects nearing completion to learn what worked and what didn't.



Cover photo of a promotional brochure published in 1974 by the Roosevelt Island Development Corporation, a subsidiary of the New York State Urban Development Corporation.

Robin: When I moved to the island in 1980, I was only vaguely familiar with UDC and Logue's social goals. I was more taken with the physical presence of Roosevelt Island's river walks, open spaces, plazas, green areas, playgrounds and communal rooms, which provided a space for joint activities to take place and a community to form.

What is the role of open space in "social engineering?" Is there anything you can add about Logue's attitude regarding how open space advances social engineering?



The iconic tram (the original); service opened on May 17, 1976. Credit: Judith Berdy, RIHS Archive.

Cohen: That's an interesting question. Logue liked sports and relished playing tennis and football, for example. So creating recreational facilities mattered to him in planning a community like Roosevelt Island. But even more importantly, he saw the river walks, open spaces, playgrounds, community centers, and the like as a way to advance the social mixing he advocated. Given that the buildings themselves were specified as market-rate or subsidized, there would be little social mixing there. And the most expensive units benefited from the spectacular skyline of Manhattan, while the others looked at industrial Queens. Those

walkways and the mini-schools, he hoped, would be scattered throughout the many buildings (that ambition got scaled back) and would be the public spaces he expected could bring people together. They would allow everyone to share the best views and a common social experience.

Robin: One of the goals of UDC was to build quickly, to fast-track construction. One of Logue's goals for UDC was to find ways to use innovative building technology to make that happen. Can you point out innovative technological means used in constructing the island's buildings?

Cohen: From the start, UDC was committed to promoting innovation in building methods to make housing construction more efficient and affordable. Pre-assembly of building materials off-site cut down on the unit cost of objects, which also translated into savings in on-site labor expense. An example was the pre-assembled and presumed technologically-advanced electrical wiring panels developed by NASA.

Sometimes these efforts went awry, such as when UDC was convinced by Con Edison to install electrical heating with bulk metering on Roosevelt Island at a big savings per unit, only to find itself footing a huge bill when the energy crisis hit in 1973–74. But Logue was proud of other technological innovations on the island, such as the free electric minibuses that transported residents, the vacuum sanitation system that whisked trash under the streets to a central refuse disposal site for compacting, and, of course, the tramway. It became a necessity once it was clear that the subway would not be finished on time. And it soon became the icon of Roosevelt Island.

Robin: To build quickly, UDC was also allowed to use such tools as eminent domain to acquire land and to overrule local zoning and building codes. I'm not a big fan. I realize that my duplex apartment in Rivercross has no egress from its bottom floor where we sleep. I'm not sure I would have moved into that apartment if I had been savvy enough to realize this at the time.

Why was he given permission to override local laws and was this his undoing when he tried to build affordable housing in Westchester?

Cohen: Logue understood that zoning and antiquated building codes were often used, particularly in suburbs, to keep out affordable housing. (And they still are today.) He had battled the problem in New Haven and Boston, but there he had no jurisdiction over areas outside the city limits. Moreover, he felt strongly that the economic and social needs of underserved urban populations were not only the responsibility of cities. An entire metropolitan area, where many workers who profited from cities lived, needed to be involved.

When Logue was offered the statewide position heading UDC, he thought he would finally have the authority to promote metropolitan-level solutions to housing, schooling, transportation access, and the like. So he pushed for the power to override local zoning and building codes if necessary. But when Logue proposed what he called a “Fair Share Housing Plan” to build 100 units of affordable housing in nine Westchester towns, he was met with violent opposition—ultimately leading to the demise of UDC. It was a dramatic story that I tell in great detail in the book.

Robin: The island was never built out as Logue had planned. In 1975, a little less than half of the 5,000 proposed units were complete when UDC went bankrupt and construction stopped. What happened?

Cohen: The UDC had plans to keep building up Roosevelt Island. As I mentioned above, it had even sponsored an architectural competition to develop a new prototype for subsidized housing in 1974–75. But everything stopped when UDC disastrously defaulted on notes and loans and Logue and many of his team were forced to resign.

There were multiple reasons for UDC’s default on \$104.5 million in maturing short-term notes and \$30 million in bank loans in

February 1975. This collapse took place, of course, at a time when New York State and New York City were close to bankruptcy, so UDC’s troubles must be put in that context as well. In fact, it was a very complicated convergence of factors, all of which are explained in Chapter 8 of my book.



View north along Main Street of Rivercross apartment building under construction. From Roosevelt Island Development Corporation promotional brochure, 1974.

Robin: Nevertheless, the truth is that none of us would be living here if Logue hadn’t conceived a plan that this “island that nobody knows”— as Welfare Island was called in 1969—could be a desirable housing haven for all. Yet there’s no place here that bears Ed Logue’s name. He should be remembered; your book fills a void, but what about recognizing him on Roosevelt Island?

Let’s ask the *Blackwell’s Almanac* readers how we can commemorate Edward J. Logue. Please send suggestions to Judith Berdy, President, Roosevelt Island Historical Society, at rooseveltislandhistory@gmail.com.

Editor’s note: Dr. Cohen’s book, *Saving America’s Cities, Ed Logue and the Struggle to Renew Urban America in the Suburban Age* (Farrar, Straus & Giroux, 2019), is available on Amazon and barnesandnoble.com. You can hear Cohen speak on the topic on Tuesday, May 18 at 7:00 pm on Zoom. Watch for the registration link in your email as the date approaches.

Old New York: Part 3—The Go-Go Years (1825–1860)

In the mid-nineteenth century, New York City's population literally exploded, from a manageable 123,000 in 1820 to a burgeoning 813,000 in 1860. City streets ultimately reached all the way up to 155th Street. Old buildings disappeared practically overnight to be replaced by larger, more extravagant structures. A more activist city government committed to projects that were astonishing in their scale. And sheer demand coupled with human innovation prompted unprecedented forms of transport and transportation. Indeed, the hectic pace of change (something we 21st-century residents know a bit about) left even younger generations of New Yorkers wondering what had happened to the city in which they had grown up.

A Different Look

A ruinous fire in 1835 and then another in 1845 hastened the city's transformation. The old residences on Bowling Green, Lower Broadway and Greenwich Street were razed and replaced with warehouses, stores and offices, while housing marched uptown. In 1828, about half the city's wealthiest families lived in New York's southernmost sectors. Yet just a quarter remained downtown after 1835.

The new fashionable addresses were Lower Fifth Avenue, Union Square and Gramercy Place, with buildings that reflected the new architectural manias. Much of the Dutch influence had been destroyed in the successive conflagrations. And the simple republican tastes of earlier years had given way to opulent displays of wealth. Now Italianate (see p. 1) and Greek Revival styles (including Corinthian columns) adorned residential exteriors, while lavish reception rooms, statuettes, clocks and candelabras prevailed inside.

Another change was the growth of rental properties. Single-family dwellings had been the norm. But increasing population density and the legions of workmen/craftsmen who

no longer could be lodged in the workshops where they toiled created a market for apartments. Many older homes were converted into individual tenant and sub-tenant spaces. Often these were packed to near bursting with immigrants needing cheap accommodations. In addition, houses were put up specifically for multi-tenant use. By 1860, only ten percent of families occupied an entire, private home.



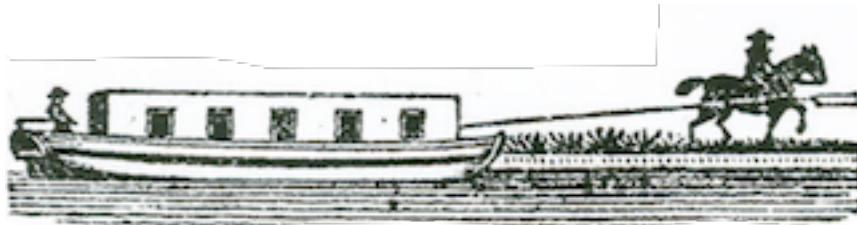
Croton water crossed the Harlem River in two iron pipes atop the High Bridge. Credit: The Historical Atlas of New York City.

Health Measures

For all its success, 1830s New York City was not a healthful place to live. Yellow fever and cholera were recurrent facts of life. In poorer neighborhoods such as Five Points, overcrowding, little ventilation, lack of sanitary facilities, and streets carpeted in filth were major contributing factors. But a contaminated water table was the deadliest element in the mix. An absence of sewers plus industrial waste run-off polluted the city's wells and made its water unpotable. Affluent families could have barrels of fresh water delivered to their homes. The poor had no such resource. They added whiskey to well water to make it palatable; yet this did nothing to stem its infectious effects and

resultant mortality: in 1830, there was one death for every 39 inhabitants.

The solution was the extraordinary engineering feat of the Croton Water System. Begun in 1837 and opened in 1842, it redirected water from the Croton River, in what is now Westchester. An aqueduct, tunnels and pipes carried water over the High Bridge that spans the Harlem river at 173rd Street, down the west side of Manhattan to the fortress-like Receiving Reservoir in Central Park south of 86th Street, and finally to the Distributing Reservoir, located where the New York Public Library is now at Fifth Avenue between 40th and 42nd Streets.



"We've hauled some barges in our day, filled with lumber, coal and hay, And we know every inch of the way from Albany to Buffalo." Erie Canal image: The History Center of the Niagara County Historical Society.

The system, capable of bringing 90 million gallons of water per day to the city, immediately improved personal hygiene. Baths and running water were installed in the homes of the affluent, while public bathing facilities were built for the rest of the population.

Another epic improvement to the city was the construction of Central Park. Its potential for increasing property values in the northern part of the city no doubt helped its cause. Nevertheless, the park's primary purpose was to provide a civilizing and healthful environment—one where rich and poor could connect and enjoy the salutary effects of greenery and fresh air.

In a city notorious for its corruption, designers and supervisors Frederick Law Olmstead and Calvert Vaux rejected all bribes and blandishments. Under their scrupulously honest direction, workers deployed some 5 million cubic yards of earth, topsoil, and stone, constructed 36 bridges and arches, built 11 overpasses, and planted 500,000 trees and shrubs. The completed park

transformed what had been a rocky and swampy tract of land into an almost magical paradise. It partially opened to the public in 1858 and by the mid-1860s was attracting almost 8 million visits a year.

Transport and Travel

Canals: As the 19th century progressed, vast movements of people found their way into the Ohio and Mississippi valleys. The result was that the bulk of farm produce was being grown farther and farther away from New

York. If New York was not going to lose its dominance as a port city to New Orleans, or Philadelphia, or Baltimore, something had to be done.

That something was the Erie Canal. Soon-to-be-governor of New York De Witt Clinton had championed the project for years. It was finally approved and begun in 1817 and opened in 1825 to the greatest fanfare North America had ever seen. A boat procession traveled the canal from Lake Erie and Buffalo to Albany, and then down the Hudson River to New York City to a gun salute and cheering crowds.

Within a year, this critical waterway, reaching into the Midwest, was carrying 221,000 barrels of flour, 562,000 bushels of wheat, 435,000 gallons of whiskey, and 1,000 passengers. Transporting a ton of goods from Lake Erie to New York plunged from a cost of \$100 (by wagon) to under \$9, and from a time requirement of three weeks to eight days.

Throughout the 1830s, the canal's success inspired the construction of other canals in Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Pennsylvania, Delaware and various parts of New York State—all of which brought more and more foodstuffs, coal, and sundry materials to Manhattan. By mid-century, the Erie Canal was earning some \$200 million a year and

New York had, for decades, completely eclipsed any other port in the country.

Steam and Sail: When Robert Fulton launched his steamboat invention on the East River in 1813, he was granted a monopoly by the State Legislature. At his death two years later, rival boat lines began a furious effort to break that charter. Finally, in 1824, the Supreme Court disallowed the monopoly, stating that only Congress had the power to constrain interstate commerce.

In very short order, steamboats jammed the East River, Hudson River and Long Island Sound, while steamer traffic on the interior waterways of the country guaranteed a continued flow of goods to New York. What steamboats could not provide, however, was ocean navigation and access to foreign markets for Mississippi cotton and Ohio wheat. That fell to a creative innovation in sailing.

Until 1818, ships sailed only in decent weather and when their cargo holds were full. That year the Black Ball Line announced that it would regularize its crossings to Liverpool, hewing to a specific date and time each month. The effect was immediate: knowing they could now depend on punctual deliveries, recipient British establishments could tighten their own commitments, and British manufacturers signed on in droves to transport their goods in the opposite direction. Other shipping lines followed suit and, by the late 1830s, there were 52 vessels offering an average of three regular sailings a

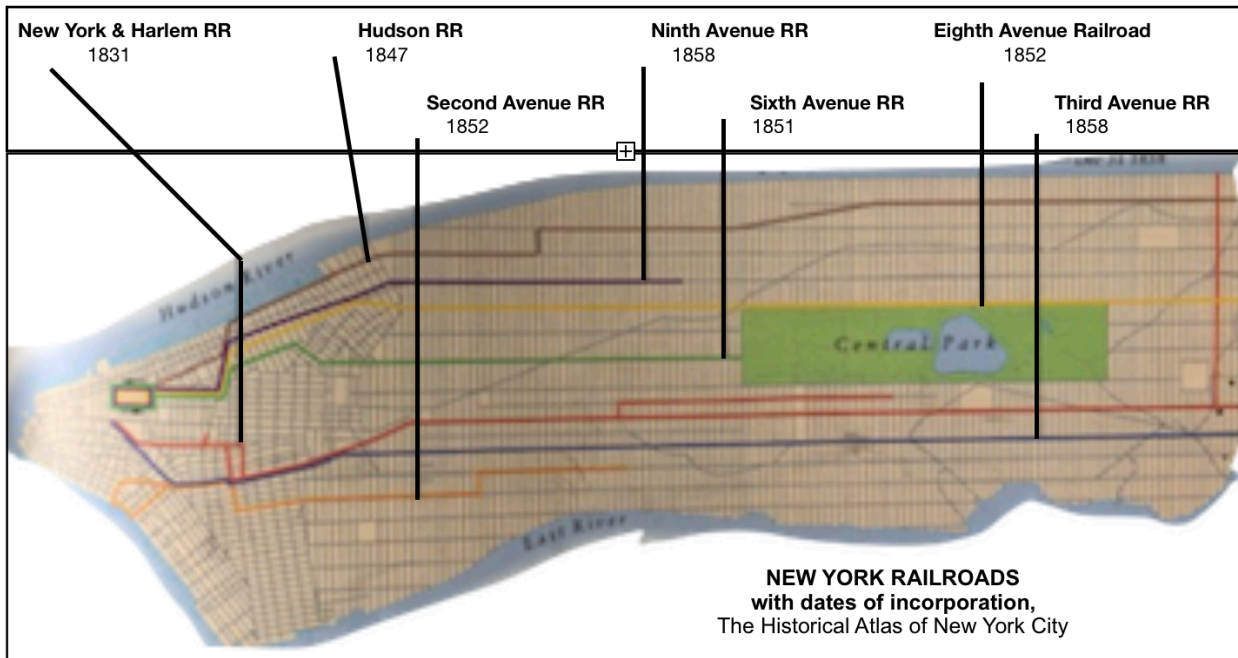
week from New York to Liverpool and Le Havre and back. All sorts of goods found their way, via the Erie Canal, to America's heartland. At the same time, human passengers, too, streamed across the Atlantic—not just the wealthy, but flocks of immigrants, swelling to some 60,000 individuals in 1837.

Eventually, New York's thriving ocean commerce opened other markets, including the Caribbean, Central and South America... and far-away China—regaling New York's upper crust with teas, furniture, silks, and blue porcelain ware. Dozens of new wharves were built on both the East River and the Hudson to accommodate the city's soaring import/export business, to the point where the bulkheads of New York's rivers resembled a dense forest of masts. Imagine, on a single day, 921 sailing ships vying for space along the East River, and another 320 lined up along the Hudson.

Railroads: Having lost much of their port business to New York because of the efficiency and reach of the Erie Canal, other coastal cities were desperate. So desperate, Baltimore daringly emulated the fledgling technology recently developed in England and built the steam-driven Baltimore & Ohio (B&O) Railroad. Now (1830) New York State felt threatened. By 1832 a number of rail lines crisscrossed the State as feeders to the Canal. Simultaneously, the city decided that its public transportation needed to be improved and issued a license for its first street railroad.



The very earliest railroad cars were designed like stage coaches. Credit: railroad.lindahall.org



The New York and Harlem line, completed in 1837, ran on track from City Hall to the Harlem River along Fourth Avenue (now Park Avenue), with a branch “rail road” following 125th Street to the Hudson. Somewhat at odds with our modern expectations: the rails were mostly bolted, not to wooden ties, but to granite blocks; some cars were designed with upholstered seats along the length of each wall, although others looked more like stage coaches with horizontal seating; and they were originally pulled by horses. Even after the switch to steam engines, complaints of noise, sparks and smoke prompted an ordinance mandating the use of horses below 27th Street.

Over the next 20 years, six more rail lines were granted charters, their locations more or less anticipating the subway and elevated

lines of the early 20th century. But it wasn’t just transportation that they reshaped. Of course, a new era in iron production for track and engines and boilers was launched. Yet even more fundamental to the city’s success—railroad financing galvanized New York’s capital markets. Rail securities sparked an investment mania, and, more than ever, the city became the financial pacemaker of the nation...one more stimulus to its continuing metamorphosis.

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 Burrows, Edwin G. and Wallace, Mike. (1999) *Gotham: A History of New York City to 1898*. New York.
centralparknyc.org
 Homberger, Eric. (1994) *The Historical Atlas of New York City*. New York.

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RI Inspires the Visual Arts: The Blue Dragon

On the morning of April 26, 2016, Roosevelt Island received a precious addition to its artworks. Before a crowd of residents waiting at the entrance to Southpoint Park, Swedish sculptors Ulla and Gustav Kraitz unveiled their gift: a beautiful, lustrous, undulating piece titled the Blue Dragon.

Through a translator, Gustav explained that, "This is a sculpture that asks to be touched and is an invitation to all children to please come up and touch it..." whereupon the kids in the crowd rushed to pat and scramble onto the dragon. And it has been attracting grown-ups and little ones ever since.

It's a good bet that most of the people in the crowd knew little about the Kraitzes' history or their past work.

Gustav and Ulla are husband and wife artists who have been



collaborating for over 50 years. Gustav was born and grew up in Hungary, while Ulla is a native Swede.

They both studied at prestigious art academies in their respective countries. Taken prisoner during World War II, Gustav wasn't released until 1949, when he resumed his studies. War again interrupted his life when the Soviets invaded Hungary in 1956 and he fled to Sweden.

Ulla continued her studies in Spain, and shortly after returning to Stockholm, met Gustav in 1960. Before their collaboration began, Ulla forged a celebrated career of her own; for three years, she designed the artwork for the Nobel Prize diploma, as well as the statuette for the Birgit Nilsson Prize for classical music.

Today the couple is known for whimsical sculptures in lively colors and a distinctive glossy finish achieved by their own special glazing technique. Their works have been



Three of the Kraitzes other glazed stoneware works: Magic Stone, ca 2010, Horse, ca 1960, Apple, ca 2018. Photo credit: artnet.com, hostlerburrows.com.

commissioned and exhibited internationally and include the United Nations' Hope Monument, dedicated to humanitarian Raoul Wallenberg.

The Blue Dragon is a perfect example of the pair's fanciful creativity and glazing technique. Though it follows a long line of

such sculptures, there's no doubt it has garnered a brand new audience for the Kraitzes—exuberant, climbing kids.

Sources:

<http://rooseveltislander.blogspot.com/2016/04/roosevelt-island-blue-dragon-childrens.html>
hostlerburrows.com

RIHS Calendar

Monday, May 3, on Zoom, 1 pm

Roosevelt Island: A Vibrant Sustainable Community

Part of Jane's Walk, this TED talk features speakers Theodore Liebman, architect, Perkins Eastman, and Judith Berdy, president of the RIHS. It will review the history of the island and its change from the infamous Welfare Island to today's vibrant Roosevelt Island community. Topics will include: the 1969 Johnson Plan and its execution; architecture; restoration of landmarks; sustainability features on the island; the tram and subway; the new Cornell Tech University; and Four Freedoms Park, created as a memorial to Franklin Delano Roosevelt and designed by Louis I. Kahn. FREE. Register at mas.org.

Tuesday, May 18, on Zoom, 7 pm

"Saving America's Cities"

In this RIHS- and NYPL-sponsored talk, author and Harvard History Professor Lizabeth Cohen provides an eye-opening look at her award-winning book's subtitle: Ed Logue and the Struggle to Renew Urban America in the Suburban Age. Tracing Logue's career from the development of Roosevelt Island in the '70s, to the redevelopment of New Haven in the '50s, Boston in the '60s and the South Bronx from 1978–85, she focuses on Logue's vision to revitalize post-war cities, the rise of the Urban Development Corporation, and the world of city planning. FREE. Watch your email for registration link.

Tuesday, May 18, 11 am to 3 pm

Health Fair and Senior Awareness Day

Takes place at the Chapel Plaza. Sponsored by the Carter Burden Senior Network. Watch for details.

Saturday, June 12

Roosevelt Island Day

Our community day returns. Save the date and watch for details.

Saturday, July 17

FDR Hope Memorial Dedication

View the unveiling and dedication of the sculpture by Meredith Bergmann depicting FDR in a wheelchair greeting a little girl. The artwork will reside in Southpoint Park.