MY VISIT TO KIEV

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2016
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State emblem is the trident which dates back to Kievan Rus', when it was the coat of arms of the Rurik dynasty. A trident was the symbol of the sea god in Greek mythology.
Ukraine and her neighbours in 2014

Ukraine today after annexation of Crimea by Russia in 2014
HISTORY

Introduction
Ukraine and Russia share much of their history. Kiev is the cradle of the Rus' civilization [Ruthenian in Latin] owing to the once powerful Kievan Rus' state, a predecessor of both Russian and Ukrainian nations. Also the Ukrainian and Russian languages have the same origin. Russia became independent in 1480. Few years earlier Constantinople had fallen to the Ottomans (1453) and few years later America was discovered (1492). Ukraine became independent in 2014. Table 1 summarizes the evolution of Russian and Ukrainian statehood.

Sarmatia
The present Ukraine was part of Sarmatia (Figure 1) where the inhabitants were Iranian people flourishing from about the 5th century BC to the 4th century AD and spoke Scythian, an Indo-European language. They must have been influenced by the Greek colonies along the shores of the Black Sea. In the 4th century, many Sarmatians joined the Goths and other Germanic tribes like the Vandals in the settlement of the Western Roman Empire. Pliny the Elder (23–79 AD) wrote that they ranged from the Vistula River (in present-day Poland) to the Danube.

Table 1 Evolution of Russian and Ukrainian statehood

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The Museum of Historical Treasures of Ukraine in Kiev has a collection of Scythian gold which dates to 4th century BC found in the burial graves of Scythian kings (Figure 2). The Hermitage in Saint Petersburg has also a gold collection of Scythian kings.

**Vikings**

A group of Vikings known to the Greek as Varangians settled in Novgorod in 862 under the leadership of Rurik (?–879) (Figure 3). Rurik ruled from 862 to 879. His son Igor (ca. 878–945) was too young when he died so Oleg (Figure 4) who was a
relative of Rurik succeeded him and ruled from 879 to 914. Oleg went south and conquered Kiev in 882 and established the state of Kievan Rus' and made Kiev his capital (Figure 5). At that time Kiev was paying tribute to the Khazars (Figure 6) that flourished in the region between the Byzantine Empire and the Persian Empire. Although these peoples seem to have ploughed the earth and cultivated the land almost all were nomads occupied with hunting, fishing, and warring. They were considered barbarians by the Greek and Romans.

Figure 3- Rurik (??-879)  
Figure 4- Oleg (??-912)  

Figure 5- Kievan Russ after Oleg’s expansion
Prince Igor (875-945) (Figure 7) succeeded Oleg in Kiev and reigned from 914 to 945. His wife was Olga (ca. 890-969) (Figure 8) was Regent from 945-964, and his son was Sviatoslav (942-972) (Figure 9) who succeeded him and ruled from 945 to 972.

**Slavic alphabet**

The brothers Cyril (826-869) and Methodius (815-885) (Figure 10) were Byzantine Christian theologians who influenced the cultural development of all Slavs. They created the Cyrillic alphabet about 863 and their students translated later the Bible and other texts into the Slavic languages.
Ruthenia

Ruthenia (Figure 11) was the eastern part of Czechoslovakia when that country was created after World War I. The people living there were called Ruthens by the Romans from which the word Russ and later Russia comes. Ruthenian language can be seen as a predecessor of modern Ukrainian and Belarusian.
The Byzantine influence dominated the Kievan culture for centuries. Sviatoslav son of Saint Olga [see later] subsequently destroyed the Khazar khaganate. Slavic people started settling on the banks of the Don and the Dnieper and the Sarmatians were eventually assimilated while the Varangians were assimilated by East Slavs by the late 11th century.

**Trade routes**

Engaging in trade, piracy, and mercenary activities, Varangians controlled the Volga trade route connecting the Baltic to the Caspian Sea, and the Dnieper trade route leading to the Black Sea and Constantinople (Figure 12). Kiev on the Dnieper and not Moscow was the capital of a Russian state. The Varangians sailed their ships down a hazardous system of water ways to the Black Sea and Byzantium. These routes connected Medieval Europe with wealthy and developed Arab Caliphates and the Byzantine Empire. They traded mainly in slaves, furs, horses, honey, waxes, amber, and agricultural products which were exchanged for wine, textiles, vases, and other manufactured products.
The Slavs were described by Arabs as *Saqaliba* which is a corruption of Greek word *Sklavinoi* meaning *Slavs* from which the English word *slave* is also derived. Slave trade was common during the war or peace periods. Slavic language was lingua franca in the Eastern Europe at that time. The slave trade was so important that hundred of thousands were sold every year to the Ottoman rulers to form the Inkeshary army and to Egyptian rulers to form an army that became known as Mamluks that governed Egypt for about three hundred years.
Christianity

In the 10th to 11th centuries Kievan Rus' became one of the largest and most prosperous states in Europe. The reigns of the Grand Prince of Kiev Vladimir the Great (960-1015) from 980 to 1015 (Figure 13) son of Svyatoslav and his son Yaroslav the Wise (978–1054) constitute the Golden Age of Kiev, which saw the acceptance of Orthodox Christianity from Byzantium to repel the Moslems. Christianity brought fundamental changes in the life of these peoples like marriage which does not exist before. By 980 Vladimir had consolidated the Kievan realm from modern-day Ukraine to the Baltic Sea and had solidified the frontiers against incursions of Bulgarian, Baltic, and Eastern nomads.

Figure 13 - Vladimir the Great (980–1015)

Mongol invasion

In the 11th and 12th centuries, constant incursions by nomadic Turkic tribes such as the Kipchaks caused a massive migration of Slavic populations to the safer, heavily forested regions of the north. Constant fighting between members of the Rurik Dynasty caused Kiev's dominance to weaken. Ultimately Kievan
Rus' disintegrated, with the Mongol invasion of 1237–40 that resulted in the destruction of Kiev, the death of about half the population of Rus', and the breaking up of the Russian state. Moscovy became under the Mongol and the Ruthenian lands were taken over by the Duchy of Lithuania as it helped Ruthenians drive out the Mongol invaders. The invading Mongol elite became known as Tatars, forming the state of the Golden Horde, which pillaged the Russian principalities.

Volga route played a major role in the trade of the Golden Horde and later between the Grand Duchy of Moscow and the Tatar khanates. It lost its importance by the 11th century due to the decline of silver output in the Abbasid caliphate. Thus the trade route which ran down the Dnieper to the Black Sea and the Byzantine Empire gained more importance. Trade finally declined at the Volga after the fall of the Khanates of Kazan in 1552 and Astrakhan in 1556, when it came under Russian control.

**Muscovy**

Muscovy stayed under Mongol control for over a hundred years. It absorbed much Mongol vocabulary thus separating modern Russian from modern Belarusian and Ukrainian. The Grand Duchy of Moscow was a late medieval Rus' principality. It was a small timber fort in the forest of Central Rus'. The first ruler Daniel I (d. 1303), was the youngest son of Alexander Nevsky of Vladimir-Suzdal. His son Yuriy controlled the entire basin of the Moskva River and expanded westward. He then forged an alliance with the overlord of the Rus' principalities, Uzbeg Khan of the Golden Horde, and married the khan's sister. His successor, Ivan I (r. 1325–40), cooperated with the Mongols and collected taxes from other Rus' principalities on their behalf. Moscow annexed Novgorod in 1478. Ivan III (1440-1505) [Ivan the Great] (Figure 14) campaigned against the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, and by 1503 he adopted the title of tsar. By his marriage to the niece of the last Byzantine
emperor, he established Muscovy as the successor state of the Roman Empire.

Figure 14 - Ivan III (1440-1505) [Ivan the Great]

As Eastern Europe gradually freed itself from the Tatar yoke in the 14th century, two separate states emerged: the Grand Duchy of Moscow (Muscovy), which eventually evolved into the Tsardom of Russia and subsequently the Russian Empire, and the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, which covered roughly the territories of modern Belarus, Ukraine, Lithuania, and western Russia, and later united with Poland to form the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth. Ruthenian was gradually replaced by Polish as a language of literature, religious polemic, and official documents.

Union with Russia

After the Mongol invasion, the Ukrainian came under the domination of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, followed by the Polish - Lithuanian Commonwealth (Figure 15). In 1327, the Orthodox Metropolitan transferred his residence from Kiev to Vladimir and then to Moscow. The militant Cossack Bogdan Khmelnystky (ca. 1595-1657) (Figure 16) refused Polonization, and often clashed with the government, controlled by the Polish nobility dominantly Catholic. Unrest among the Cossacks caused them to rebel against the Commonwealth and seek union with
Russia, with which they shared much of the culture, language and religion. In 1654 the Treaty of Pereyaslav legitimized Russian claims to the capital of Kievan Rus' and strengthened the tsar's influence in the region. From the mid-17th century Ukraine was gradually absorbed into the Russian Empire.

Figure 15 - Kiev under Lithuania about 1400

Figure 16 - Bogdan Khmelnytsky (ca.1595-1657)
Battle of Poltava
The Battle of Poltava (Figure 17) took place on Ukrainian soil on 27 June 1709 in which Peter the Great (1672-1725) (Figure 18) defeated the Swedes. Since Ukraine was allied with Sweden at that time, this resulted in the weakening of Ukraine. It marked the decline of Sweden and the rise of Russia. In 1713 Saint Petersburg became the capital of Russia.
Partition of Poland

Khmelnystsky not only shaped the future of Ukraine but weakened Poland - Lithuania. This was exploited by Austria, Prussia, and Russia in partitioning of Poland in (1772–1795) (Figure 19). Others criticize him for his alliance with the Crimean Tatars, which permitted the latter to take a large number of Ukrainian peasants as slaves. He is also accused of eradicating Jews from the Ukraine because between 1648–1656 his rebels murdered tens of thousands of Jews. But the union with Russia was dictated by necessity and an attempt to survive in those difficult times.

Figure 19 - Acquisition of Crimea in 1783 by Catherine the Great and the division of Ukraine
Division of Ukraine

After the Partitions of Poland and annexation of Crimean Khanate by Russia in 1783, Ukraine was divided between the Tsardom of Russia and Habsburg Austria. Galicia fell to the Austrian Empire, and the rest of Ukraine to the Russian Empire. In 1804 there was systematic Russification and the Ukrainian language was banned from schools. Figure 19 shows the frontiers of Western Russia in 1762 at Catherine’s accession and in 1796 at her death (Figure 20).

Crimea was later lost to the Ottomans in the War 1854-1856. The War led to the realisation by the Tsar Alexander II (1818-1881) (Figure 21) of the technological inferiority or Russia in military practices as well as weapons. The war was a factor in the Russian abolition of serfdom in 1861 before his assassination.
Revolutions in Russia

After the Decembrist Revolution in 1825 and the revolution in 1905, the Russian Revolution in 1917 during World War I brought down the Tsardom. With the beginning of the Revolution, many atrocities occurred during the civil war as the Red, White, Polish, Ukrainian, and allied armies marched throughout the country.

The territory that made up the modern country of Ukraine was part of the Russian Empire while the southwestern region was administered by Austro-Hungarian Empire. Some Ukrainians fought with the Imperial Russian while others fought for the Austro-Hungarian.

The Bolsheviks Red Army established control in late 1919 and the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic was created. The 1919 Treaty of Versailles, Galicia was left to Poland while the remaining central and eastern Ukrainian provinces were left to the Soviet Union (Figure 22). In the late 1920s Stalin promoted Russian nationalism throughout the Soviet Union. This led to denying the existence of Ukrainian culture and instead depicting it as a local variation of Russian culture.

Figure 22 - Ukraine in 1919
From the start, Kharkov served as the republic's capital. However, in 1934, the seat of government was subsequently moved to Kiev.

**Dnieper power plant**

A hydroelectric power station constructed in 1927-1932 on the Dnieper River near Dniepropetrovsk (Figures 23, 24) was the largest Soviet power plant at the time and one of the largest in the world.

*Figure 23 - Hydroelectric power plant build on the Dnieper 1927-1932*
Figure 24 - Dnieper hydroelectric power plant constructed in 1927-1932

Famine in Ukraine

The Soviet leadership confidently expected that the replacement of individual peasant farms by collective ones would immediately increase the food supply for the urban population. Planners regarded collectivization as the solution to the crisis of agricultural distribution that had developed from 1927. The Soviet famine of 1932–33 affected the major grain-producing areas of the Soviet Union including Ukraine, leading to severe food shortage throughout the USSR and millions of deaths in those areas. It was the result of the implementation of forced collectivization. The disinformation by a well known American journalist led Franklin Roosevelt officially recognizing the Soviet Union in 1933. Nikita Khrushchev was appointed the head of the Ukrainian Communist Party in 1938.
World War II

Ukraine was occupied by Nazi Germany from 1941 to 1944 during World War II. The Dnieper dam and plant were dynamited by retreating Red Army troops in 1941 (Figure 25). It is claimed that about a hundred thousand people died from the flooding that took place. Both the dam and the plant were rebuilt between 1944 and 1949.

![Figure 25 - Dynamiting of the dam by the retreating Red Army in 1941](image)

Ethnic Germans in the territories situated beyond the Volga River were deported. The Kremlin accused the Crimean Tatars with collaboration with the Nazi. In Spring-Summer of 1944, the Soviet authorities moved almost all Crimean Tatars (around 180 thousand) from Crimea to the Central Asia. Later, the Crimean Armenians and Greeks were also deported.

During the military occupation by Nazi Germany the reasons for collaboration included Ukrainian political aspirations for regaining independence and widespread resentment against the Russians over the genocide by famine engineered in Soviet Ukraine a few years earlier. However, the deportation of
hundreds of thousands of Ukrainians as slave labourers, soon led to a change in the attitude of some collaborators. The Ukrainian Insurgent Army fought for independence against both Germany and the Soviet Union.

In 1945-1947 more than 80 thousand Ukrainians from Western Ukraine were deported by the Soviets to the Donbas and Siberia, accused in nationalism and aiding the Ukrainian Insurgent Army. Another 500 thousand were deported from Western Ukrainian territories were transferred to Poland.

**Atrocities during World War II**  
Between 1941 and 1945, approximately 3 million Ukrainian and other non-Jewish victims were killed as part of Nazi extermination policies, along with between 850,000 - 900,000 Jews (Figure 26). Over 2,300,000 Ukrainians were deported to Germany for slave labour.

*Figure 26 - German atrocities in Ukraine during World War II*

**Babi Yar**  
The most notorious of these massacres took place 29–30 September 1941, wherein 33,771 Jews were killed by the Nazi. Victims of other massacres at the site included Soviet prisoners of war, communists, Ukrainian nationalists, and Roma. It is
estimated that between 100,000 and 150,000 people were killed. Babi Yar can be reached in Kiev at Dorohozhychi underground metro station (Figures 27-29).

Figure 27- Monument at Babi Yar
Figure 28 - Monument at Babi Yar

Figure 29 - Monument at Babi Yar
After World War II
By the time the Red Army returned to Ukraine, a significant number of the population welcomed its soldiers as liberators. After the war the borders of Poland were changed: to the west Poland acquired a part of Germany while on the east she lost a part to the Soviet Union. Lwow the capital of Galicia which belonged to Poland became part of the Soviet Union, i.e., part of Ukraine (Figure 30,31). Lwow is written differently according to the language: Lvov, Lviv, Lvuf, Lemberg. Originally it is Leon, Levan, Levon, Lion, Löwe. Later, Galicia became anti-Soviets and was always in revolution.

Figure 30- The shifting of borders. Lwow became part of Ukraine
Galicia consisted mainly of Poles and Ruthenians as well as Jews, Germans, Armenians, Czechs, Slovaks, Hungarians, Roma and others. The Poles lived mainly in the west and the Ukrainians predominant in the eastern region (Ruthenia). In Lwow, Poles made up a majority of the population. The Poles were Roman Catholic, the Ruthenians belonged to the Catholic Church. Galicia was the center of the branch of Orthodox Judaism known as Hasidism. In July and August 1943 between 76,000 and 106,000 were murdered by Nazi Germany.

In 1945 Ukrainian SSR became one of founding members of the United Nations together with the Soviet Union and the Byelorussian SSR. This was part of a deal with the United States to ensure a degree of balance in the General Assembly, which, the USSR thought was unbalanced in favour of the Western Bloc. After Stalin's death, Khrushchev (Figure 32) as head of the Communist Party of Soviet Union transferred Crimea
in 1954 to commemorate 300 years when Bogdan Khmelnytsky sought union with Russia but he sent military people and other government employees to retire there.

Figure 32- Commemorating the transfer of Crimea to Ukraine

Chernobyl disaster
The Chernobyl disaster was a catastrophic nuclear accident that occurred on 26 April 1986 in No.4 light water graphite moderated reactor at the Chernobyl Nuclear Power Plant near Pripyat, in what was then part of the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic of the Soviet Union (Figure 33). An uncontrolled reaction conditions generated a destructive steam explosion and a subsequent open-air graphite fire which produced plumes of radioactive material into the atmosphere.

Language problem
Ukraine became independent when the Soviet Union dissolved in 1991 (Figure 34). This started a period of transition to a market economy, in which Ukraine suffered a recession.
The Russian and Ukrainian had a common language called Ruthenian spoken by East Slavs in the past. In the 13th century, eastern parts of Rus' including Moscow came under Tatar yoke whereas the south-western areas including Kiev were incorporated into the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. During the 13th century, when German settlers were invited to Ukraine by the
princes of Galicia-Vollhynia, German words began to appear in the language spoken in Ukraine.

For the following four centuries, the language of the two regions evolved in relative isolation from each other. Russian absorbed some Tatar words while Ukrainian absorbed some Lithuanian and Polish. Currently Ukrainian is the only official language of Ukraine. According to one Russian poll, Russian is more spoken in daily communications in Ukraine than Ukrainian. By the mid-17th century, the linguistic divergence between the Ukrainian and Russian languages was so acute that there was a need for translators.

Recently, an Orthodox priest in Ukraine affiliated with the Moscow Orthodox Patriarchate was accused of separatism when he wanted to restore an independent Ruthenian state. The Ruthenians were about 1.5 million, maintain a distinct language and culture. Incidentally, the metal ruthenium discovered in a platinum ore in the Ural in 1844 takes its name from this place as the origin of the Russians.

**Revolution**

After the breakup of the Soviet Union, Ukraine endured years of corruption, mismanagement, lack of economic growth, and currency devaluation. Successive governments sought a closer relationship with the European Union. President Yanukovych announced his intention to sign the agreement, but ultimately refused to do so at the last minute which sparked a wave of protests. During these protests Yanukovych signed a treaty and multibillion-dollar loan with Russia. The Ukrainian security forces cracked down on the protesters further inflaming the situation. As tensions rose, Yanukovych fled to Russia. Russia refused to recognize the new interim government who signed the EU association agreement. The revolution was followed by pro-Russian unrest in some south-eastern regions and the annexation of Crimea in March 2014.
Role of clergy
The Church was the principal force of opposition against the regime within the borders of the USSR. Since 1991 the Ukrainian Orthodox Church has had to be divided into two groups because of the refusal of the Patriarch of Moscow Alexis II to recognize the Ukrainian Church. However, numerous voices from both Churches have manifested their desire towards reunification. Churches are enabling Ukrainians to rediscover themselves as members of the same nation.

Ukrainian Diaspora
Due to the many revolutions, oppressions, wars, etc., Ukrainians have immigrated in other countries mainly in America. In Canada, for example, there are about 1.5 millions ethnic Ukrainians. They reside mainly in Alberta and Saskatchewan.

Donetsk
In the 1990s Donesk in the east of Ukraine was the center of gang wars for control over industrial enterprises. It was the seat of the Industrial Revolution in Imperial Russia in 1869. A steel plant was constructed after the discovery of iron ore and coal in this region (Figure 35). A Russian metallurgical company was founded by the Welshman John Hughes (1815–1889) (Figure 36). The plant was called Yuzovka.

Figure 35 - Donetsk in Ukraine
Hughes invented iron cladding of wooden warships for the British Admiralty. In 1869 the company received an order from Imperial Russia for the plating of a naval fortress being built at Kronstadt on the Baltic Sea. Hughes sailed to the Ukraine with eight shiploads of equipment and around a hundred specialist ironworkers and miners, mostly from south Wales, to build a metallurgical plant and rail producing factory.

Many of the men who accompanied John Hughes settled with their families in the town named after him, Hughesovka, since renamed Donetsk. Over the years, although a Russian workforce was trained by the company, skilled workers from the United Kingdom continued to be employed, and many technical engineering and managerial positions were filled by British and especially Welsh emigrants. The first pig-iron was cast there in 1872. The works had eight furnaces and was capable of a full production cycle. By the end of the 19th century, the works was the largest in the Russian Empire.

At the outbreak of World War I in 1914 the works were expanded further to produce artillery shells. During the Russian Revolution the Hughes brothers and almost all of their foreign employees left Russia, and the works were taken over by the Bolsheviks in 1919. Donetsk was later incorporated into the Ukrainian SSR. During Soviet times, the city’s steel industry was expanded and in 1924
the city was re-named Stalino but after Stalin’s death in 1953 regained its earlier name.

The town of Hughesovka, known since 1961 as Donetsk, remains one of the largest metallurgical centres in the former Soviet Union. The slag piles are a characteristic view of the city (Figures 37,38).

![Figure 37 - Slag piles in Donetsk](image1)

![Figure 38 - Slag piles in Donetsk](image2)
In Donetsk the Ukrainian ethnicity is 56.9% of the population, while the Russian ethnicity is 38.2%. The native language of 74.9% of the population is Russian, compared with 24.1% Ukrainian. About 58.7% of people of Ukrainian ethnicity considered Russian to be their native language. In 1989 there were no Ukrainian language schools in Donetsk.

KIEV

Kiev was visited in October 2016 after the Nano Science conference in Tbilisi. Stay at Khreschatyk Hotel in city Center (Figures 39,40). The visit was in company of Lina Sartinska and brother Mikhail Sartinsk and his daughter Anna Malitska (Figure 41,42).

Figure 39- Khreschatyk Hotel

Figure 40- Khreschatyk Hotel
Figure 41- In restaurant with Anna, her father Mikhail, and aunt Lina Sartiska

Figure 42 - Our Ukrainian friend Lina in hotel
**Dnieper River**

Kiev (Figures 43,44) was situated on the right bank of the Dnieper River now covers both banks of the river whose width reaches some several hundred metres. Additionally, several tributaries fall into the Dnieper inside or just north or south of the city. There are eight bridges (Figures 45,48) spanning across the river and a few dozen bridges across the canals and Dnieper tributaries.

**Golden Gates**

The Golden Gates of Kiev (Figures 49,51) was the main gate in the 11th-century fortifications of Kiev, the capital of Kievan Rus'. It was named in imitation of the Golden Gate of Constantinople. The structure was dismantled in the Middle Ages, leaving few parts of its existence. It was completely rebuilt by the Soviet authorities in 1982.

**Founding of the city**

Kiev was founded by three brothers, Kyi, Shchek and Khoryv, and their sister Lybid (Figure 52-54). Kiev is named after Kyi, the eldest brother. The city is thought to have existed as early as the 6th century, initially as a Slavic settlement. Gradually acquiring eminence as the center of the East Slavic civilization, and as the center Kievan Rus’ in the 10th–12th centuries.
Figure 43 - Kiev map
Maidan

Maidan, an Arabic word for square, is the main square in Kiev and it was formerly called October Revolution Square and included a 8.9 m high statue of Lenin. Since independence in 1991 it was called Independence Square. Lenin statue was broken during the revolution and the square now contains many historical monuments including pictures of those who lost their lives during the uprising (Figure 51).
Figure 46 - Kiev bridge

Figure 47 - Kiev bridge
Figure 48- Panorama of Kiev
Figure 49- Golden Gates of Kiev

Figure 50- Golden Gates of Kiev, detail
Figure 51- Pictures of martyrs in Maidan during the revolution of 2014
Figure 52 - The founders of Kiev. The three brothers Kyi, Schek, Horiv and their sister Lybid in Maidan

Figure 53 - The founders of Kiev monument built in a scenic park on the banks of Dnieper
Cossacks

Cossacks (Figures 55,56) are a group of East Slavic-speaking people who became known as members of democratic, self-governing, semi-military communities, located in Ukraine and in Russia. They inhabited areas and islands in the lower Dnieper, Don, Terek, and Ural river basins and played an important role in the historical and cultural development of both Russia and Ukraine.
Independence Square
The name Independence Square was given in 1991 after independence. It is also known as Maidan an Arabic word meaning square. In Soviet time it was October Revolution Square with Lenin statue.
Figure 57- Cossack in Maidan

Figure 58- Independence Square
Figure 59- Independence Square
Figure 60- Independence Square

Figure 61- Independence Square details
Figure 62- Independence Square details

Figure 63- Independence Square showing Archangel Mikhail the patron of Kiev defeats Satan
Figure 64 - Archangel Mikhail in Independence Square

Figure 65 - Archangel Mikhail in Independence Square
Churches

There are many beautiful churches in Kiev (Figures 66-94). Lavra is a monastery consisting of a cluster of caves for hermits, with a church at the center. The term in Greek initially meant a narrow lane in a city. The monastery was supported generously by the princes and boyars of Kiev. Also, many of the educated men of the area became monks at the monastery as it became the largest religious and cultural center of Kievan Rus'. It was destroyed many times and rebuilt.

Figure 66 - Lavra Church originally founded 1051 now the residence of the Metropolitan
Figure 68- Larva complex

Figure 69- Mother of God Assumption church
Figure 72- St. Mikhail church

Figure 73- St. Mikhail church
Figure 74- St. Mikhail church

Figure 75- St. Mikhail church
Figure 76- St. Mikhail church

Figure 77- St. Andrew Church
Figure 78 - St. Andrew Church

Figure 79 - St. Andrew Church

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Figure 80- St. Andrew Church
Figure 82 - St. Pantelemon

Figure 83 - St. Vladimir church
Figure 84 - Trinity Church
Figure 85- Trinity Church
Figure 86 - Holy Dormition church

Figure 87 - Holy Dormition church detail
Figure 88 - Church of the Nativity

Figure 89 - All Saints church
Figure 90- Inside a church

Figure 91- Inside a church
Buildings
There are many nice buildings in Kiev (Figures 95-108).

Figure 94 - Inside a church

Figure 95 - A street in Kiev
Figure 96- A street in Kiev

Figure 97- City Council
Figure 98- Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Maidan

Figure 99- Cabinet of Ministers
Figure 100 - Building in Kiev

Figure 101 - Building in Kiev

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Figure 102 - Building in Kiev

Figure 103 - Building in Kiev
Figure 106 - Marinsky Palace

Figure 107 - Building in Kiev
Monuments
There are plenty of historic and modern monuments in Kiev (Figures 109-126).

Figure 109 - A statue for Bogdan Khmelnytsky (ca. 1595-1657) erected in 1888. The inscription reads "To Bohdan Khmelnitsky from one and indivisible Russia."
Olga
The Bulgarian Princess Olga (890-969) (Figures 111,113) was the widow of Igor, son of Rurik prince of Kiev who was assassinated in 945 by his subjects while attempting to extort tribute. Because Igor’s son Svyatoslav (?-972) (Figures 115,116)
was still a minor, Olga became regent of the grand principality of Kiev from 945 to 964. Olga became the first of the princely Kievans to adopt Orthodox Christianity. She was baptized in 957 at Constantinople. Her efforts to bring Christianity to Russia were resisted by her son but continued by her grandson, the grand prince St. Vladimir (956-1015) (Figures 117,118).

Figure 111 - Monument to Olga in front of St. Michael cathedral. On the right are Cyril and Methodius, and on the left is the Apostle Andrew, who is pointing to the Holy Kiev Hills.
Figure 112 - Monument to Olga

Figure 113 - Monument to Olga, details
Figure 114 - Near Olga’s monument

Figure 115 - Svyatoslav (?-972)
Figure 116 - Svyatoslav (?-972)

Figure 117 - Monument to Vladimir the Great (980–1015)
**Friendship of Nations Arch**

The arch (Figures 119, 126) is dedicated to the unification of Russia and Ukraine within the Soviet Union. It is 50 m diameter and was opened in 1982 to commemorate the celebration of the 1,500th Anniversary of the Kiev city. In 2016 the Ukrainian government announced plans to dismantle the arch as part of its de-communization policy. In its place is planned a memorial dedicated to veterans of the Russian-Ukrainian war.
Figure 119 - Friendship of Nations Arch

Figure 120 - Friendship of Nations Arch
Figure 121 - World War I monument

Figure 122 - World War I monument

Figure 123 - World War I monument
Figure 124 - World War I monument

Figure 125 - World War I monument
Museums

Ukraine National Museum
(Figures 127-139)
Figure 128 - Ukraine National Museum

Figure 129 - Ukraine National Museum
Figure 130 - Ukraine National Museum

Figure 131 - Ukraine National Museum
Kiev History Museum
(Figures 135-141)
Figure 134 - Kiev History Museum

Figure 135 - Display: Babi Yar, Kiev History Museum
Figure 136 - Display, “Art in the service of politics”

Figure 137 - Display, “Art in the service of politics”
Figure 138 - Display, “Art in the service of politics”
Funicular

The Funicular (Figure 140-143) connects the historic and commercial upper town and the old lower town through the hill overseeing the Dnieper river. The Funicular was constructed during 1902-1905 and since that it was renovated three times.
Figure 143 - The funicular
Globus
The shopping center Globus is facing Hotel Khreschatyk in City Center (Figure 144).

Figure 144 - In the shopping center Globus
Selected paper money
The currency of Ukraine since independence is the hryvnia, [pronounced gryvnya]. There are 100 kopecks in a hryvnia. It is named after a measure of weight used in medieval Kievan Rus' and some bills show historical figures (Figures 145-149).

Figure 145 - Founders of Kiev on a 200 kopecks

Figure 146 - St Vladimir (980–1015) Prince of Novgorod and Grand Prince of Kiev, Ruler of Kievan Rus'in from 980 to 1015
Figure 147 - Yaroslav the Wise (ca. 978–1054), Prince of Novgorod and Grand Prince of Kiev, ruler of Kievan Rus' from 1019 to 1054

Figure 148 - Bogdan Khmelnytsky (1595-1657) Hetman of Ukraine. Hetman of Ukraine was the second in rank in the army after the ruling prince

Figure 149- Ivan Mazepa (1639 – 1709) Hetman of Ukraine. Hetman of Ukraine was the second in rank in the army after the ruling prince
Stop Corruption
In Kiev Airport there was the poster “Stop Corruption” (Figure 150).

Figure 150- “Stop Corruption” [photo by Nadia Habashi]

The author acknowledges the help of Lina L. Sartinska, Institute for Problems of Materials Science in Kiev, for reviewing the manuscript and Ahmed Deniz Bas, Laval University for his help in the digital work.

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