

Borys Grinchenko Kyiv Metropolitan University
Faculty Of Romance and German Philology
German Philology Department

THE MULTIMODAL GLOSSARY OF WAR
(BASED ON LEXONOMY TOOLKIT)

MA Paper
Anastasiia Marchenko
Group MLAm 1-24-2.0z

*Цим підписом засвідчую, що
подані на захист рукопис та
електронний документ є
ідентичні.*

02.06.2026 АМБ

АНАСТАСІЯ МАРЧЕНКО

Research supervisor
Professor R.K. Makhachashvili

Approved for defense at
the Linguistics and
Translation Department
26, May, 2026, Minutes 5
_____ Andrii KOZACHUK

Kyiv 2026

This paper outlines the theoretical basis, methodology, and process behind compiling a bilingual digital glossary of the English-Ukrainian military slang on the basis of the Lexonomy toolkit developed by ELEXIS. The project relies both on conventional military lexicon and the recent developments of the English military language as shaped by the events of the russo-Ukrainian war, as well as the broader context of ongoing armed conflicts as documented in cyberspace. The final purpose of the study is to design, compile, and present the Multimodal Glossary of War – a structured, open-access digital lexicographic resource that documents, defines, and contextualises contemporary war-related vocabulary in English. The objectives of the research are: to establish the theoretical and historical basis for the study, description, and documentation of the English military lexicon, with a particular attention to the slang and occasionalisms generated by the russo-Ukrainian war; to research the identify the distinguishing features of such vocabulary and its usage in cyberspace; to develop and apply a multimodal schema, including definitions, translation, examples, and pragmatic clues, to each glossary entry; to conduct a corpus analysis of text-based sources, such as published books, documentaries, public media channels, and social media, including their multimodal dimensions, to select glossary entries and analyse them from a lexical perspective; and to test the ability of existing Large Language Models (LLMs) to handle this vocabulary, providing, on demand, accurate translations from Ukrainian to English and vice versa, as well as explanations and context-sensitive entry analyses. The material used for research includes academic texts, journalistic sources, and social media platform data. The methodology for the project combines corpus analysis with experimental testing of Large Language Models to test their understanding of contemporary war-related vocabulary. The study emphasises the multi-purpose application of the glossary and associated research in fields such as AI training, translation and interpretation, language education, journalism, military communication, archival linguistics, crisis lexicography, digital semiotics, sociolinguistic theory, and studies in multimodality.

Keywords: AI training; applied lexicography; cyberspace; digital lexicography; ELEXIS; glossary of military terms; Large Language Models; Lexonomy; militarisms; military lexicon; modern military lexicon; multimodality; online glossary; russo-Ukrainian war; wartime slang.

CONTENTS

| | |
|---|----|
| INTRODUCTION | 4 |
| SECTION 1. PREREQUISITES TO THE STUDY OF THE MODERN MILITARY LEXICON IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE | 6 |
| 1.1. Theoretical and practical purposes of researching the development of the military lexicon in cyberspace and beyond. | 6 |
| 1.2. The relevance and usage of the military lexicon in various professional and social domains. | 10 |
| 1.3. Novelty of the project. | 14 |
| 1.4. Bridging standardised and grassroots vocabulary. | 15 |
| 1.5. Multimodality as a methodological framework. | 18 |
| SECTION 2. DEVELOPMENT AND EXPERIMENTAL TESTING OF THE MULTIMODAL GLOSSARY OF WAR | 20 |
| 2.1. Methodology and term compilation for the Multimodal Glossary of War. Entry schema design. | 20 |
| 2.2. Entry selection criteria. | 22 |
| 2.3. Sourcing and data collection. | 23 |
| SECTION 3. REAL-WORLD APPLICATIONS, USE CASES, AND RELEVANCE FOR LANGUAGE STUDIES | 24 |
| 3.1. Training Large Language Models (LLMs) and Artificial Intelligence systems. | 24 |
| 3.2. Translation and interpreting studies. | 30 |
| 3.3. Journalism and media literacy. | 32 |
| 3.4. Military and humanitarian communication. | 34 |
| 3.5. Language pedagogy. | 35 |
| 3.6. Archival and historical linguistics. | 36 |
| 3.7. Contributions to crisis lexicography. | 37 |
| 3.8. Contributions to digital semiotics and lexicographic practice. | 39 |
| 3.9. Contributions to the study of language as cultural resistance. | 41 |
| 3.10. Contributions to sociolinguistic theory. | 42 |
| CONCLUSIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH | 44 |
| REFERENCES | 47 |

INTRODUCTION

The growing number of armed conflicts in the world, including the russo-Ukrainian war that has been ongoing since 2014, has heavily influenced various spheres of human life, such as politics, economy, culture, and, of course, language as an integral part of each of these domains. Language plays a vital role in political collisions – in particular, vocabulary, which has always been the most dynamic structure within the language system, prone to frequent change. It is exactly the vocabulary that reflects societal shifts, which occur frequently and unpredictably against the backdrop of a military conflict. The vocabulary generated by wartime events mostly meets the definition of neologism: either an entirely new coinage or an existing word repurposed with a new meaning (Hrydzhuk, Horodylovska & Florko, 2025). Language is the medium through which speakers categorise and map human experience, and vocabulary is the layer in which this process is the most legible, especially in the environment of cyberspace. According to Makhachashvili and Semenist (2021), cyberspace is a “logosphere that has its own world-building and meaning-creating means”. Linguistic innovations in cyberspace construct the digital reality in which they are generated. In the context of wartime cyberspace and its lexicon documented in the Multimodal Glossary of War, this means that language units constructing this digital reality actively participate in the way the russo-Ukrainian war is perceived and understood by the speakers of both Ukrainian and English.

Lexical changes in English have been closely tied to the development of modern technology, such as Large Language Models (LLM), commonly known as the models of Artificial Intelligence, or AI, for short. Practical experiments that have been conducted for this research and will be explained in detail further have shown that most LLMs do not have a sufficient lexical arsenal to properly discuss, distinguish, and speculate on the topic of armed conflicts in their modern understanding. Large Language Models like OpenAI, Gemini, and Perplexity, which have been analysed in the course of this research, tend to lack the required vocabulary to address the questions and requests related to war, discern war-related slang, and newly borrowed lexical units from other languages – in particular, Ukrainian, which is one of the two target languages of the project. Therefore, there is a clear need to train the Large Language Models using the emerging vocabulary, which keeps appearing, transforming, and often developing a polysemantic nature. This can be done by integrating a proper, flexible, dynamic, and openly accessible glossary of contemporary military parlance into an LLM’s system, as long as such a glossary exists in the first place.

While there are already compiled and regularly used dictionaries of military lexicon, such as “A Military Dictionary” by William Duane, “The Civil War Dictionary” by Mark Mayo Boatner, or “The Encyclopaedia of Civil War Usage” by Webb Garrison, none of them fully reflect the current state of the war-related layer of the English vocabulary, beaming with new jargon, neologisms, occasionalisms, and slang, most often developed through news outlets and social media. In addition, most of these lexicographic sources were developed retrospectively – long after the

actual events of the military conflicts and relevant term coinages. In Ukraine, scholars like Hrydzhuk et al. (2025) develop wartime glossaries limited to the Ukrainian language only, retrospectively, and without considering the multimodal aspect of lexical development and semantic production. Therefore, the Multimodal Glossary of War solves multiple lexicographic issues at once: it encapsulates several layers of vocabulary at once, including the standard military terminology and recent coinages, provides contextual clues for sensitive and semantically or pragmatically specific units, and documents the language of the war in concurrence with its events.

The **purpose** of this thesis project is to build a well-structured, user-friendly glossary that collects, explains, and illustrates key terms related to war, both to Large Language Models and ordinary humans: academics, students, researchers, journalists, AI developers, and social media users. The **object** of the research is the process of compiling, structuring, and presenting a multimodal digital glossary of contemporary war-related vocabulary in English, with particular reference to the lexical innovations generated by the russo-Ukrainian war. The **subject** of the research is the military layer of the English vocabulary as shaped and documented in the context of the ongoing war in Ukraine.

The **research objectives** are: (1) to establish the theoretical and historical background for the study of military lexicon in English and its transformation in wartime conditions; (2) to identify the distinguishing features of the war-related vocabulary generated by the russo-Ukrainian war in cyberspace and beyond; (3) to develop and apply a multimodal entry schema; (4) to compile a representative selection of glossary entries and subject them to lexical analysis; (5) to test the capacity of existing Large Language Models to handle this vocabulary and to demonstrate the corrective potential of the Multimodal Glossary of War for LLM training.

To achieve these goals, the project will employ a range of practical, research-based **methods**, which include, but are not limited to: a corpus-based analysis of digital sources for entry selection and lexical analysis; a questionnaire-type study conducted among representatives of different professional spheres and domains to estimate the practical demand for the glossary and its range of possible applications; Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) of the sources where the documented terms originate and circulate, including but not limited to social media platforms like X (Twitter), Instagram, and TikTok, news outlets (The Economist, The New York Times, Defense Express, The Kyiv Independent, Reuters, United24 Media, etc.), and public news / war monitor channels on Telegram; experimental testing of Large Language Models (Claude, Perplexity AI, Gemini, ChatGPT, Grok, etc.) to evaluate their ability to correctly interpret and explain contemporary militarisms (before and after supplying the LLMs with the glossary as a primary reference source); and the application of a manually built XML-based entry schema on the Lexonomy platform to properly structure, publish, and make openly accessible the resulting digital lexicographic output of this research.

The **scientific novelty** of the given project is its multimodal approach to digital lexicography, combining in its documentation two registers of military

language at once – institutional terminology and the vernacular layer (neologisms, occasionalisms, jargonisms, slang, etc.), something that no conventional military dictionary has done before. In addition, unlike most existing military dictionaries, which are strictly retrospective, the Multimodal Glossary of War documents the developing vocabulary of the ongoing russo-Ukrainian war as it unfolds.

The work is **structured** in the following way: Section 1 outlines the theoretical basis and prerequisites for the research at hand, highlighting the specific purposes of the project and supporting them with empirical evidence; Section 2 describes the development process of the end product, term compilation, entry selection criteria, entry schema design, and data collection; Section 3 dwells on the real-world applications, use cases, and practical relevance of the Multimodal Glossary of War for research in linguistics and beyond.

The **end product** of this research is a web-based, multimodal, bilingual glossary of militarisms that captures wartime-related lexical units across English and Ukrainian, with particular attention to new coinages, such as neologisms, occasionalisms, jargonisms, and military slang. Among other things, the glossary demonstrates the systematic inability of existing LLMs to handle wartime slang, Ukrainian borrowings, and meme-born terminology, and proposes a structured lexicographic dataset as a practical corrective tool for LLM training and evaluation. While AI training is the key purpose of developing the Multimodal Glossary of War, this research also focuses on its practical functionality and usability for such professional domains as translation and interpretation, journalism and media literacy, military and humanitarian communication, language pedagogy, and archival/historical linguistics. Finally, it also proves useful in its contributions to crisis lexicography, digital semiotics and lexicographic practice, sociolinguistic theory, and the use of language as a means of cultural resistance, which will all be covered, detailed, and illustrated further in this paper.

SECTION 1. PREREQUISITES TO THE STUDY OF THE MODERN MILITARY LEXICON IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

1.1. Theoretical and practical purposes of researching the development of the military lexicon in cyberspace and beyond.

Military vocabulary dominates the news: from printed papers and magazines to web-based outlets and social media channels, war-related discourse takes up a considerable share of daily information flows, gradually permeating non-military contexts. This practical project, however, concentrates primarily on the usage of military lexicon in cyberspace. In their paper on AI-Enhanced Multilingual Lexicography for Digital Communication, Makhachashvili R., Semenist I., and Klochkov V. define *cyberspace* as a “complex, multidimensional sphere of synthesis of reality, human experience and activity mediated by the digital and information technologies, a component of the technosphere of human existence” (Makhachashvili, Semenist & Klochkov, 2025; Makhachashvili & Semenist, 2021). By co-existing and constantly interacting in cyberspace, people daily perceive large

volumes of information describing military events and the unfolding of wars worldwide – primarily, at the time of writing this paper, in the Middle East and Ukraine. English, as the main language of international communication, acts as the rightful mediator of this exposure: there is a considerably higher chance of encountering a piece of war-related news written in English in cyberspace due to its dramatically larger amount.

Nevertheless, I cannot claim with confidence that knowing and being able to operate the English military lexicon freely is a universal need. Therefore, prior to gathering materials for the research and compiling the *Multimodal Glossary of War* as a standalone consultation tool, an online-based questionnaire was conducted among thirty-two participants – primarily, students, linguists, educators, and writers. The scope of respondents was then diluted by experts from the IT (Information Technology) and healthcare domains to demonstrate that the perceived relevance of military vocabulary goes far beyond language and humanities-oriented professions.

The responses to the questionnaire have demonstrated that almost half of the participants (over 40%) prefer to receive relevant information on the ongoing armed conflicts from multiple sources at once, including public news channels on Telegram, especially relevant for the coverage of the War in Ukraine. Such a breakdown allowed us to allocate the research time and resources to retrieving related vocabulary equally from all the aforementioned sources. Public media outlets provided formal, domain-specific terminology that has emerged in the English language as a result of the new inventions and modifications in the global military sector (terms like ICBM, Shahed, etc). Social media and Telegram public channels, on the other hand, contributed to the search for war-related slang and neologisms, predominantly used by the younger generation (words like *bavovna*, *palianytsia*, *to chornobaite*, etc).

(Multiple choice) Where do you usually obtain new information on the ongoing armed conflicts (War in Ukraine, War in Gaza, etc.)?
32 responses

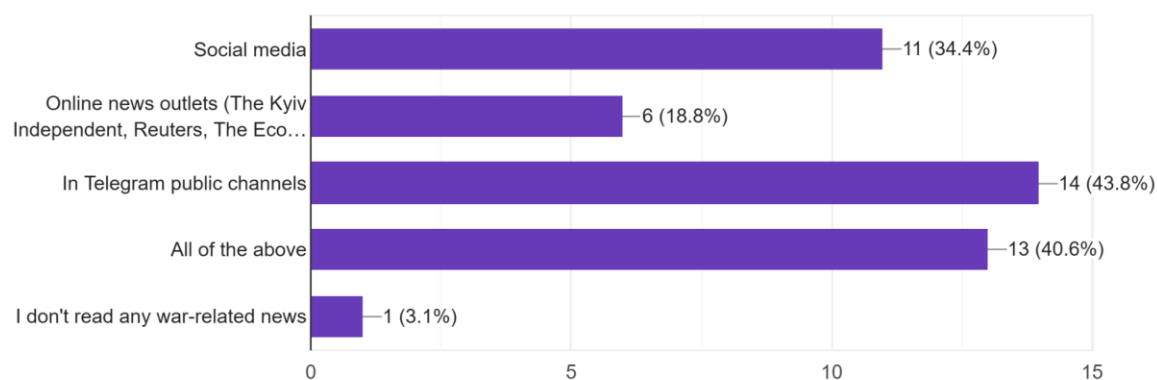


Figure 1.1. The main sources of information about the ongoing armed conflicts in the world

The majority of respondents (65.6%) have assessed the importance of understanding war-related lexicon by ordinary people, not affiliated with armed conflicts directly (e.g., non-journalists, writers, and war researchers) as high.

How would you assess the importance of understanding war-related lexicon by ordinary people, not affiliated with armed conflicts directly (as in, non-journalists, writers, and war researchers)? 1 - not important at all; 5 - very important

32 responses

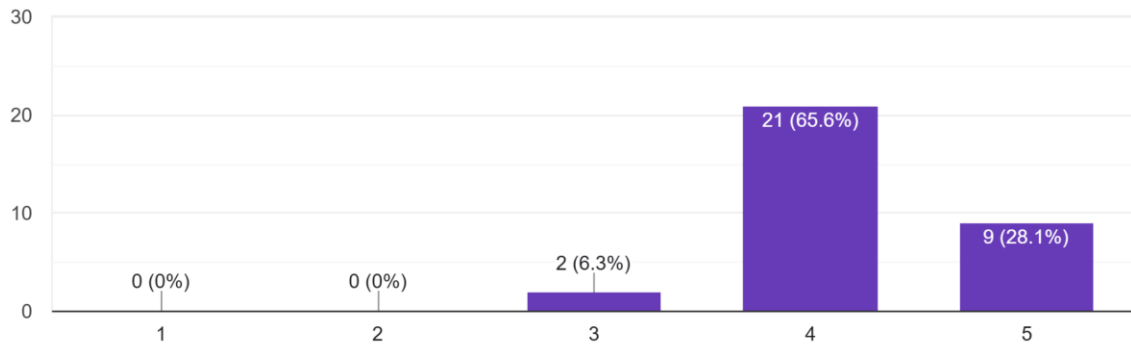


Figure 1.2. The importance of understanding war-related lexicon by those not directly affiliated with armed conflicts

Additionally, more than half of the respondents claimed that knowing and using war-related slang in military discourse is important for discourse communities both in Ukraine and abroad. This statistic further highlighted the need for contemporary, digitalised, and universally accessible lexicographic tools, such as the Multimodal Glossary of War.

How would you assess the importance of knowing and using war-related slang in the military discourse (terms like "ruscism", "bavovna", "moped", ...abroad)? 1 - not important at all; 5 - very important

32 responses

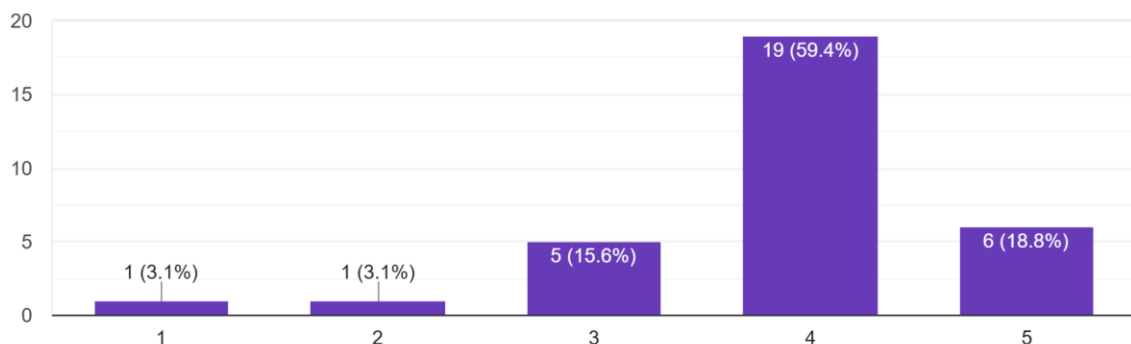


Figure 1.3. The importance of knowing and using war-related slang in military discourse

Another important finding in the survey process was that only 21.9% of the respondents found textbooks effective in teaching students war-related lexicon in English. Instead, the majority (78.1%) preferred military blogs and war-themed

documentaries as the main source of the contemporary military lexicon. Web-based blogs and videoblogs, including social media profiles and channels of real-life soldiers and war reporters, are among the sources used in the compilation process for the Multimodal Glossary of War. The reasoning can be rooted in Ngoc Diem's (2025) observation that while traditional teaching methods rely heavily on text and are singular in the way they deliver information, multimodal methods combine various sensory modes, which enriches the learning environment and makes it more interactive.

Tick all the methods you consider effective in teaching students war-related lexicon in English.

32 responses

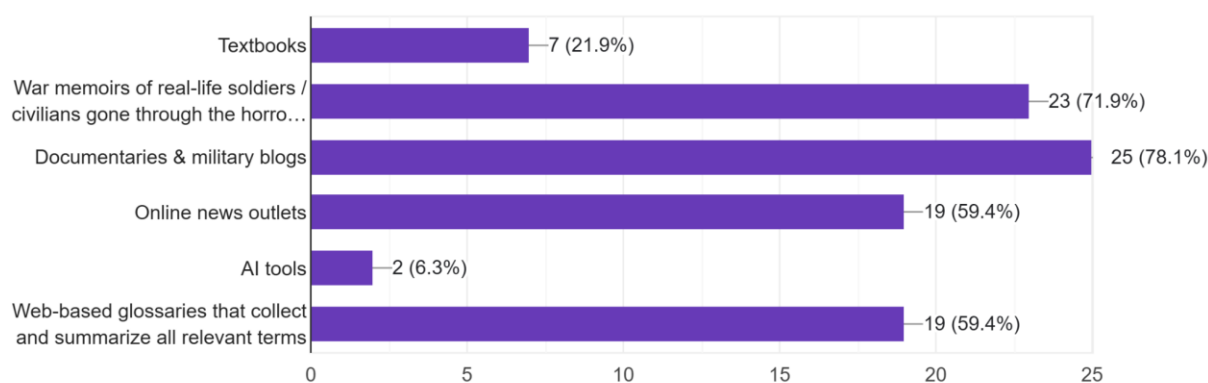


Figure 1.4. Effective methods in teaching students war-related lexicon in English

A high percentage of the respondents (59.4%) also selected web-based glossaries that collect and summarise all relevant terms as an effective method of vocabulary teaching. In fact, the Multimodal Glossary of War extracts and connects lexical elements from all the relevant sources at once, which eliminates the need to consult multiple tools. In addition, textbooks quickly get outdated, as the military parlance transforms on a daily basis, and new slang terms appear faster than linguists can register them and timely update all the corresponding educational and lexicographic sources. New words appear in English on a daily basis (Lehrer, 2006, as cited in Mattiello, 2017), and international lexicographers struggle to keep pace with the regular development of new coinages. Henceforth, the web-based nature of this project is superior in usability, flexibility, and scale to any conventional lexicographic method. Instead of surfing multiple sources at once in the search for the newly emerged war terms, users will be able to consult the Multimodal Glossary of War at any time, getting all the relevant information about a specific entry under one umbrella: definition in three interpretations, pragmatic/contextual clues when needed, an example of the lexeme's use in the context, and a Ukrainian translation.

Finally, 59.4% of the survey respondents claimed that they would use an online tool, such as the Multimodal Glossary of War, for educational and other purposes. The project, then, is devised in accordance with the reflected demand, prioritising relevant, frequently used terms that can be used for text interpretation,

supporting war-related conversations, expressing public opinions, and other relevant purposes.

Suppose there was an open-access online glossary of war-related terms, including contemporary jargon and slang, would you use such a tool for educational or any other purposes?

32 responses

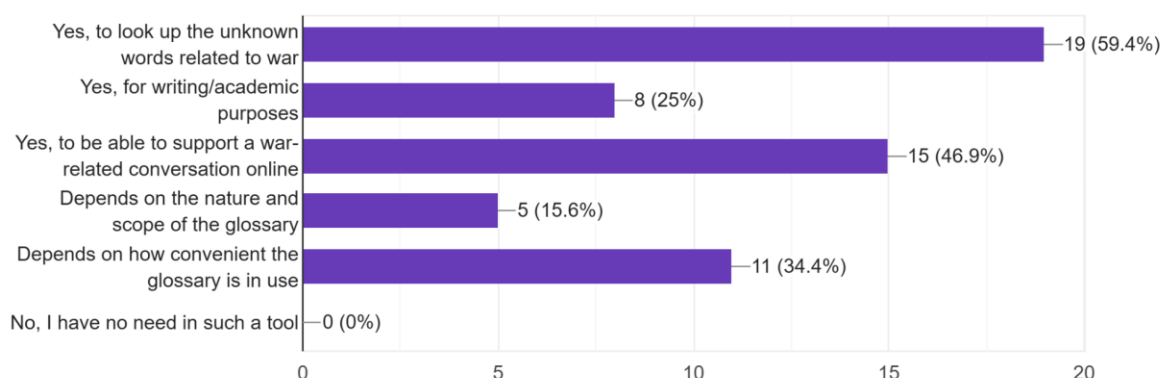


Figure 1.5. The respondents' demand for a digital military glossary

In addition, the glossary at hand is built to serve whoever consults it beyond the educational purpose. Journalists and writers can consult it for accuracy in their terminological choices; translators can seek advice from the context clues to arrive at the correct ideological colouring of a certain term in a certain context; a humanitarian worker, especially one from abroad, can expand their active lexicon for proper mutual understanding within the community they serve; an AI developer can and should utilise it in improving their AI model's handling of Ukrainian-originated military slang. All of these categories of professionals represent the wider intended audience of the project at hand. The demand demonstrated in the survey data is a partial measure of the glossary's broader reach. While it captures the educational and referential use case clearly, the full scope of the project's relevance and application covers every professional, social, and cultural domain where speakers regularly encounter the language of the russo-Ukrainian war.

1.2. The relevance and usage of the military lexicon in various professional and social domains

Language has always closely participated in military conflicts, shaping public thought in a close correlation with the politics and culture of the time. The development of any language is driven primarily by extralingual aspects, that is to say, by the new events and global changes in the objective reality (Hrydzhuk, Horodylovska & Florko, 2025). In the current era of raging global wars, relying heavily on digital communication, the military language is changing and evolving at an unprecedented pace. As Ivko and Diachok (2024) demonstrate, the rapid development of lexical units in military discourse is typical for the communicative environment of warfare, where the need to transmit maximum information in minimum time actively and systematically prompts such form-building and word-building processes as compression, abbreviation, and neologisation.

Historians of language have long recognised that periods of intense social upheaval, such as revolutions, epidemics, and wars, are also periods of peak linguistic creativity. For instance, the First World War generated a rich body of trench slang, and most of these words and expressions are still actively used in today's English, some of them even outside the military context, such as the lexemes like *strategy* or *campaign* (*customer retention strategy*, *marketing campaign*) in what is known as “corporate speak” or “office speak”. Additionally, the Second World War introduced multiple acronyms and military jargon that naturally entered and reshaped civilian language – *AWOL* (Absent Without Leave), *RADAR* (Radio Detection And Ranging), *deadline*, *foxhole*, *blockbuster*, among others. The Cold War, in turn, introduced a vocabulary of deterrence, proxy conflict, and ideological competition that structured political discourse for decades: terms like *fallout*, *brinkmanship*, *Iron Curtain*, *Proxy war*, or *escalation*.

The tradition of military conflicts introducing new vocabulary units to the English language continues to this day, first and foremost, with the largest-scale war in Europe since the beginning of the twenty-first century. The russo-Ukrainian war introduces a new and contemporary stance on the way the language evolves as the conflict unfolds. It has activated many language processes, such as the coinage of new terms, the expansion of the existing words' semantics, the emergence of new connotations, and even an increase in the frequency of borrowing, both in Ukrainian and English (Hrydzhuk, Horodylovska & Floriko, 2025). Ever since the full-scale russian invasion, which began on February 24, 2022, the military vocabulary of both Ukrainian and English has been constantly enriched with either entirely new terms or the well-known ones semantically reshaped to bear the meaning that reflects the newfound reality. As such, the word *moped* (from the English *motor* + *pedal*) is now primarily used to identify the Iranian-designed one-way attack drone, HESA Shahed 136, designated by russia as *Geran-2*, due to the resemblance the drone's engine bears with the buzzing of a scooter or a motorbike. Such instances of linguistic change are provoked by the current reality Ukrainians – and people at war all over the world – live in, and they are rapid, with a new slang term or a semantic shift of an existing lexical unit taking place on a nearly daily basis.

Digital lexicography is at its peak of development and distribution, but so are the imminent changes and new introductions to the military lexicon of the English language – triggered, at a large scale, by the same changes in Ukrainian. Thus, a Ukrainian word like *bavovna* (the semantic shift occurred in the word *cotton* to bear a connotation of *detonation*, *explosion*) has already taken root in the active vocabulary of native English speakers. The examples below demonstrate a use case of the term *bavovna* by Espresso.tv, a Ukrainian media outlet focused on news from russia and Ukraine's war in the region, and the following usage of the term by an X account Wium Lacock, based in Newcastle, South Africa.

Cotton (Bavovna)

This term originates from the prohibition on Russian media using the word "explosion" in reports concerning incidents targeting the Russian army or objects in Russia, Belarus, or territories temporarily controlled by the occupying forces. Instead, they used the word "хлопок" (khlopak), which means both "loud sound" and "cotton". The "cotton" meme first emerged on April 25, 2022, following explosions at a military unit and an oil depot in Bryansk, Russia. When news of the incident was translated from Russian sources using online translators, a confusion of homographs occurred. The translated news erroneously reported that "a powerful cotton was heard before the fire started" leading to the mockery of Russian reports using Ukrainian word "bavovna" (cotton) in meme culture, later becoming synonymous with "explosion".

Figure 1.6. The use of the slang term/occasionalism *bavovna* in a news article by [Espresso.tv](https://www.espresso.tv) (Espresso TV, 2024, February 4)



Figure 1.7. Natural integration and usage of the slang term/occasionalism *bavovna* by an X account Wium Lacock, based in Newcastle, South Africa

These Ukrainian borrowings and instances of their active use are primarily apparent in cyberspace, where the military lexicon is an integral part of the topical discourse – from news articles in online media outlets and their active discussions in the comment sections to memes, in which this slang is being redefined and repurposed multiple times by ordinary speakers of both Ukrainian and English. Most of these memes are directly referencing Ukrainian wartime slang coined throughout the events of the war (Uadim, 2023, June 07), whether in text or in the form of symbolic imagery.



Figure 1.8. Illustrative examples of Ukrainian-language memes referencing wartime slang units and occasionalisms

As per Mattiello (2017), most of such occasionalisms (words that are coined in a particular context and for a particular use-case) tend to originate from the news, TV shows, blogs, social media, and other state-of-the-art genres. This coinage is characterised by randomness and unpredictability, usually not following the same lexical or morphological processes, but parts or combinations thereof. Therefore, the active usage of such wartime terminology in Ukrainian communication presents a direct challenge for writers, journalists, translators, interpreters, and other professionals tasked with correctly rendering the semantic, semiotic, cultural, and pragmatic aspects of the Ukrainian military vocabulary for non-native communities within and outside Ukraine's borders.

The research question at a glance is: how to document and reflect all these rapid changes and semantic transformations in a single, unified source, which would be accessible to both language academics and researchers and ordinary speakers wishing to participate in the military discourse that is now actively filling cyberspace? This is where the Multimodal Glossary of War comes into play as a viable response to this linguistic transformation. It is a lexicographic project that aims to document, define, and contextualise the vocabulary of the global armed conflicts in both its standardised and its vernacular dimensions, making it accessible to the range of audiences who need or wish to understand it.

1.3. Novelty of the project.

The Multimodal Glossary of War is an English-Ukrainian bilingual digital glossary compiled on the basis of Lexonomy developed by ELEXIS, using an XML-based entry schema similar to that previously devised and deployed by Makhachashvili, Semenist, and Klochkov (2025) in their *Cyberspeak* project, a multilingual lexicographic resource that documents the vocabulary of digital communication. The Multimodal Glossary of War extends this methodology and applies it to the conflict-generated layer of vocabulary. The glossary is freely available for use without subscriptions or paywalls, and anyone can send requests for editing the glossary and contributing new entries whenever a new military lexical unit is coined and enters into active use in the English language. It is also the first digital lexicographic project that focuses its scope directly on the vocabulary generated by the russo-Ukrainian war, including its slang and meme-born layers, with the application of linguistic theory and consideration of the multimodal aspect of a glossary compilation. Scholarly literature has already identified the need for lexicographic processing of the unofficial vocabulary of the russo-Ukrainian war: Matsyuk (2022), for example, directly calls for the systematic documentation of Ukrainian military call signs, which is one of the many lexicographic gaps that this project aims to close. The Multimodal Glossary of War presents a new step in the rapid evolution of digital lexicography, documenting even occasionalisms that are generally bypassed and normally don't gain a stable foothold in the language.

One of the most remarkable features of the glossary is the temporal situation in which it's being created. It is the first digital lexicographic project compiled concurrently with the events it documents, which makes it drastically different from the existing military dictionaries, traditionally compiled and published in retrospect. As the russo-Ukrainian war has been ongoing since 2014, the vocabulary units it generates are still in active production. This means that the term being defined in the Multimodal Glossary of War today may change its meaning and acquire new connotations in the future so as to reflect the societal and political changes caused by the war. This is what makes the fluid nature of the glossary particularly significant: no entry is ever finalised, and no term is ever set in stone, and the editable format allows for constant adjustments and new inputs as the lexicon evolves. As per Mattiello's (2017) divide between institutional neologisms and the so-called nonce words (occasionalisms), the latter are defined as coinages designed for a specific event or occasion and not yet firmly established in the lexicon or adopted for wider use. Nearly half of all new words in English are occasionalisms pending recognition in the community (Mattiello, 2017: 213–214). Consequently, many of the units documented in the Multimodal Glossary of War can be considered transitional in nature: the project aims to catch them before they either get institutionalised or disappear from use entirely.

This temporal setting distinguishes the project from the majority of war glossaries and military dictionaries, which document terms that have stabilised in the vocabulary over the passage of time. Historically, the documenting process for military lexicons has been mostly retrospective, with dictionaries being compiled

only after the conflict was already over. For instance, the trench slang of the First World War was collected and published decades after the Armistice. The military vocabulary of the Second World War was codified in official glossaries produced by military institutions, supplemented by later scholarly and popular studies. Even relatively recent conflicts, such as the Gulf War and the wars in Afghanistan and Iraq, were documented lexicographically only after the intensity of the fighting had diminished. At the same time, Lakoff's (1991) real-time analysis of the metaphors deployed to justify the Gulf War showcased that some units of the conflict language acquire ideological significance and urgency exclusively while the conflict is unfolding, with the potential to develop additional connotations or drop out of active usage once the conflict is over. Real-time lexicography of an active war, such as the one conducted in the Multimodal Glossary of War, is, in this sense, historically unusual: while the conflict is ongoing, the glossary presents a constant, active referential source, which is updated hand-in-hand with the innovations in the language; in the post-war period, some units might retain their denotative and connotative meanings and active usage in both spoken and written English, while others will most likely become lexically obsolete.

These days, the same digital platforms that generate new vocabulary also create an unprecedented record of its emergence and spread, and the accessibility of these platforms to researchers makes real-time documentation feasible in a way it has not been before. The significance of real-time documentation is to provide the needed context for the lexical units coined and used by communities under existential pressure – that is, by people who are living through the events and sharing the linguistic community in which the innovations are occurring. The Multimodal Glossary of War is designed to fill the gap created by the existing military dictionaries – NATO Standardisation Office publications, the various national military glossaries, the authoritative reference works produced by military historians – which focus almost exclusively on standardised technical vocabulary. Kramar & Ilchenko (2023) identify three categories of war-related lexemes: 1) lexical neologisms, which appeared at the beginning of the war; 2) semantic neologisms, which existed before the war but acquired new connotations in its process; and 3) re-actualised lexical units, which gained renewed relevance and extra contextual valencies after 2022. The existing corpora of Ukrainian wartime language are primarily analytical and not lexicographic – they study all three categories of lexical units but do not systematically document them for reference and practical use. In this regard, the Multimodal Glossary of War occupies a distinctive niche that none of these alternatives can fill adequately and to the highest extent of effectiveness across different domains and use cases.

1.4. Bridging standardised and grassroots vocabulary.

Another aspect of the project's novelty is in its direction of bringing together two lexical registers that are conventionally treated separately: standardised political and military terminology and informal, emergent slang. These two registers hold different positions in the sociolinguistic dimension of conflict: they have different authors, different contexts of use, and different pragmatic functions, which is why

they are almost never treated within a single lexicographic framework. The Multimodal Glossary of War challenges this convention by combining both layers of the vocabulary within one lexicographic database. One of the main purposes of this direction is the further use of the glossary for LLM (Large Language Model) training, which will be discussed in detail in further chapters. At the same time, whoever consults the glossary for expanding their war-related vocabulary will be able to do so across two vocabulary registers at once: general terminology for formal communication and writing and emerging slang for colloquial discourse, such as, for instance, commenting on war-related news across media and social media outlets.

The standardised register includes terms like *IED (Improvised Explosive Device)*, *HIMARS (High Mobility Artillery Rocket System)*, *MANPAD (Man-Portable Air-Defence System)*, *demilitarisation*, and *non-kinetic operations* – terms drawn from military doctrine, official communications, diplomatic language, and mainstream journalism. These terms are defined and used with relative precision; their meanings are stabilised by institutional processes of standardisation – official military glossaries, style guides, NATO standardisation agreements – and their usage is monitored and controlled by professional norms. Even though these lexemes are institutionally defined and stabilised, this does not make them neutral from the ideological point of view. Even the most technical and precise terms of the military vocabulary can still carry embedded assumptions about such critical aspects as the nature of conflict, the legitimacy of the parties involved, and the filtering mechanisms through which broader audiences understand, justify, and talk about a certain military conflict. That is to say, even terminology carries a heavy ideological weight. The decision to describe a weapons system as it is defined in its NATO designation as opposed to its Ukrainian field nickname, or to use terms like *demilitarisation* or *Special Military Operation (SMO)* in the context of the russo-Ukrainian war without marking them specifically as coined and/or appropriated by the official russian rhetoric cannot be anything else but a political choice. It can also be a mistake stemming from insufficient education on the matter – one of the common issues that the Multimodal Glossary of War addresses and strives to solve. As Lakoff (1991) demonstrates in his analysis of the Gulf War, the language of military doctrine actively builds the conceptual mirrors through which the involved parties (both combatants and civilian audiences) perceive, evaluate, and describe a certain armed conflict. Standardised terminology is not an exception to this rule, even if it originates in institutional and not popular sources.

This is why the Multimodal Glossary of War dedicates special attention to the fine line between standardised and vernacular military vocabulary and its perception and use by broader audiences. Both of these registers belong to the same living language and require deeper contextual documentation instead of just a bare definition. For instance, an entry of *HIMARS* cannot be completed with a technical description of the system alone; it becomes meaningful and relevant to the conflict at hand when it is supplied by the contextual description of its arrival in Ukraine in the summer of 2022, the sudden shift it created on the battlefield, and the cultural resonance it caused in Ukrainian public discourse and across Ukraine supporters

abroad, including the frequent appearance of the proper noun in popular culture, humour, blogs, documentaries, and social media commentary. As a result, every term documented in the glossary presents a unit of language inseparable from its specific historical, political, and communicative context.

Despite their close interaction, the slang register operates somewhat differently from the institutional layer of vocabulary. It is naturally designed to be opaque outside the group (known as group-specific codification, as per Ivko and Diachok, 2024) and requires specific knowledge and shared experience to be understood and used in appropriate contexts. Terms like *герань/Geran* for the Shahed 136 drone, *відправити в Вальгаллу/to send to Valhalla* for killing an enemy combatant, or *паляниця/palianytsia* as a loyalty shibboleth, emerge from the ground up – from soldiers, volunteers, journalists embedded with units, and the broader Ukrainian digital public. They are not defined by authorities but by use, and their meanings are negotiated socially within the specific groups and discourse communities and may vary across cities, regions, and the frontline. Many such nonce formations tend to arise to fill lexical and contextual gaps in the language, not previously covered by any other terms (Mattiello, 2017: p. 25). Besides, military slang has no fixed borders and moves fluidly across the entire thematic field of war, eventually entering wider social circles (Ivko, Diachok, 2024), a phenomenon from which stems the process of terminologisation. The table below summarises the two distinct registers documented in the Multimodal Glossary of War and their primary characteristics.

| FEATURE | STANDARDISED REGISTER | VERNACULAR / SLANG REGISTER |
|---------------------------|--|---|
| Origin | Military doctrine, official communications, diplomatic language, mainstream journalism. | Soldiers, volunteers, journalists embedded with units, and the broader Ukrainian digital public. |
| Defining authority | Institutional: official military glossaries, style guides, NATO standardisation agreements. | Use – meanings are negotiated socially within specific groups and may vary across communities, regions, and the frontline. |
| Stability | High – meanings stabilised by institutional processes and monitored by professional norms. | Low – no fixed borders; moves fluidly across the thematic field of “war” and into wider social circles. |
| Transparency | Defined and used with relative precision. | Opaque outside the in-group (group-specific codification); requires shared experience to be understood and used appropriately. |
| Ideological load | Not neutral – even technical terms carry embedded assumptions; using terms like “demilitarisation” or “Special Military Operation (SMO)” without marking them as russian rhetoric is a political choice. | Explicitly expressive – often a counter-framing or ironic gloss on official vocabulary. |
| Examples | <i>IED, HIMARS, MANPAD, demilitarisation, non-kinetic operations.</i> | <i>Герань/Geran', палиниця/palianytsia, бавовна, орк/orc.</i> |
| Lexical function | Precision and interoperability across professional contexts; fills gaps left by newly introduced weapons systems and tactical concepts. | Fills lexical and contextual gaps not previously covered by any other terms; many nonce formations arise to name new realities. |
| Glossary treatment | Cannot be completed with bare technical description – must include historical, political, and communicative context. | Must capture emotional register, social connotations, and pragmatic force; conventional lexicographic methods apply only in part. |

Table 1.9. Summary of the two lexical registers covered by the Multimodal Glossary of War

These two registers interact in complex ways: official language sometimes borrows from slang as it achieves wider currency, while slang terms are sometimes coined as ironic glosses on official vocabulary. Besides, the two registers often co-exist in the same contexts, where speakers switch between them according to the formality requirements of the situation. The Multimodal Glossary of War performs the practical function by bridging the gap between the two registers. Users of the glossary – translators, journalists, humanitarian workers – regularly encounter both registers in the same texts and conversations, and they need a reference work that can help them navigate both without switching between multiple sources. By providing this in a single, coherent framework, the glossary serves a practical need that no existing resource fully addresses.

1.5. Multimodality as a methodological framework.

Perhaps the most theoretically distinctive aspect of this project's novelty is its deployment of multimodality as an analytical framework. The Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) is defined by Ngoc Diem (2025) as a process that searches to understand and explain the meaning of texts that deploy many modes (verbal, visual, and aural), stemming from Halliday’s consideration of language as one of the semiotic resources (alongside gesture, image, and music) that speakers

use for communication (Ngoc Diem, 2025). Multimodality is not used for the glossary's delivery format, but instead, for its understanding of the vocabulary it documents. The main reason for grounding the compiling process in the Multimodal Discourse Analysis is that the vocabulary of digital communication (slang, memes, viral phrases, etc.) originates in the complex interplay of image, sound, video, and gesture (Ngoc Diem, 2025) that characterises the communication of cyberspace. Ngoc Diem (2025) highlights that online platforms, in particular, tend to combine text, images, video, and hyperlinks, which demands a multimodal approach to analysing how these elements communicate and generate meaning. Understanding what cyberspace-generated terms mean within and beyond the multimodal environments they originate in, why they resonate with the speakers of a particular language, how they spread, and what social work they do requires more than just reading texts. Instead, research must be performed across multiple modes: verbal, visual, aural, and others.

Consider an example from the glossary that illustrates this point with particular clarity. The term *паланиця* (*palianytsia*), a Ukrainian word for a type of traditional bread, has become a shibboleth – a word used to distinguish Ukrainians from Russian infiltrators on the basis of pronunciation. Its meaning in this context is inseparable from a viral video phenomenon in which Ukrainians challenged Russian invaders to pronounce the word, and in which the failure to do so correctly became a marker of Russian identity. To define *паланиця* without reference to this video means to miss the most important context of its current meaning.

CULTURE

Say “Palianytsia”: How Ukraine Turned a Loaf of Bread into a Test to Spot Russian Saboteurs

Aug 15, 2024 19:39 Updated Sep 23, 2025 15:53 ⌚ 6 min read

Figure 1.10. News piece by United 24 Media describing the significance of *palianytsia* as a shibboleth to spot Russian invaders on Ukrainian land (Kosoy, D., 2024, August 15)

The multimodal framework adopted in this project responds to these challenges by including contextual metadata about the origins of the term where applicable: the platforms on which it first appeared, the visual or audiovisual contexts that constructed its meaning, the speech communities that use it and those that avoid it. This metadata does not transform the glossary into a multimedia platform – Lexonomy remains text-based – but it significantly enriches the entries,

making them more culturally informative. When it comes to the emerging military lexicon, the boundary between textual and other modes of perception is blurring; hence the need for a digital lexicographic tool that would cover this multimodality in the most comprehensive manner, accessible to members of cyberspace regardless of their nationality, location, educational, or professional backgrounds. In addition, the methods developed in the creation of the Multimodal Glossary of War – the extended entry schema, the contextual metadata for each entry, and the attention to viral term circulation – offer a template that could be adapted for the documentation of other bodies of digital-native vocabulary.

SECTION 2. DEVELOPMENT AND EXPERIMENTAL TESTING OF THE MULTIMODAL GLOSSARY OF WAR.

2.1. Methodology and term compilation for the Multimodal Glossary of War. Entry schema design.

For this lexicographic project, as for all others, the design of the entry schema matters because it prescribes how the contents of the glossary will be displayed to and perceived by every user. The proper schema design helps the creator or contributor of the glossary capture and organise information in the most accessible and comprehensive way. For the Multimodal Glossary of War, the implemented schema serves the dual purpose of the project, which is to work as a usable and easily accessible reference tool and also encode the multimodal layer of the war vocabulary.

The schema of the glossary includes two primary categories: core lexicographic fields and additional contextual fields. The core fields include headword, part of speech, and definition. The contextual fields are source, translation, and example. This schema helps the glossary entries meet the minimum requirements for useful reference for different purposes.

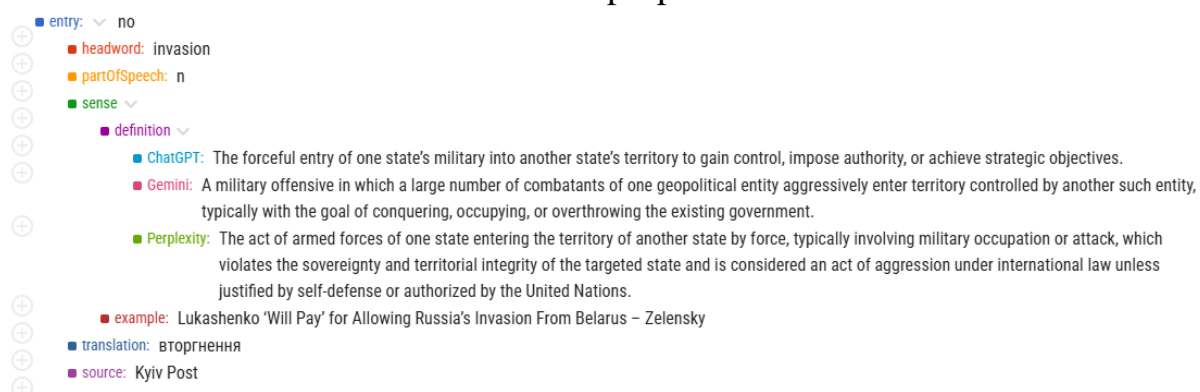


Figure 2.1. The Multinodal Glossary of War entry schema design

As for the supplementary fields, they are specific to the Multimodal Glossary of War in a way that they carry the contextual information needed for the user to perceive the context of use for a particular vocabulary unit, which is invaluable when it comes to a newly emerging slang. Such an organisation reflects the glossary's multimodal nature: whenever a certain vocabulary unit has a double meaning and presents itself as polysemantic, it is accordingly described in the entry. For instance, certain units pertaining to the military parlance, from which they bear their roots,

have spread over other types of discourse throughout their development. Words like *strategy*, *tactic*, *raid*, or *campaign* are now in active use in corporate environments – a concept widely distinguished by linguists as determinologisation (Krymets, 2015, pp. 36-40), a productive lexical metamorphosis, during which a derived meaning that corresponds to a commonly known concept is formed.

This borrowing is not limited to isolated lexical items. From the second half of the 20th century, business language has demonstrated a strong tendency to copy and take over elements of military and war terminology systematically (Oneţ & Ciocoi-Pop, 2022). The primary reason for such convergence is a shared organisational logic: both in business and in war, one must define a clear purpose, allocate resources, coordinate a team, and outmanoeuvre an opponent, which creates natural conditions for lexical transfer. Researchers have identified an extensive inventory of corporate vocabulary with direct military origins, including *chain of command*, *rally the troops*, *mission critical*, *in the trenches*, *front lines*, *guerrilla marketing*, and *strategic alliances*, among others (Oneţ & Ciocoi-Pop, 2022). As this tendency continues in the 21st century, it would be logical to presume that many of the recently emerged militarisms will find their way into the business and other domains through the process of determinologisation. Certain cases of such transition have already been registered across social media, as well as in oral speech: “*Boss dropped a nuke and left*” (Rathore, A., Oct 1 2025, X) in a corporate context or “*That 12 bucks hit harder than any peace deal*” (Avii, May 11 2026, X) when discussing finance and cryptocurrency trading.

One of the main challenges of entry building and structuring for the Multimodal Glossary of War is slang documentation. Conventional definitions tend to be precise and easily substituted, which is not characteristic of emerging slang units. This is why conventional lexicographic methods apply to this project only in half: for slang terms, it is also crucial to capture the emotional register, the social connotations, and the pragmatic force of each term. Therefore, the entries in this glossary are compiled and structured using a modified approach, which is rather novel for digital lexicography: the purpose is to capture both the denotation of each term and the wider, context-dependent applications. The *metalanguage* (Berry, 2005) used in examples to illustrate each entry demonstrates the term in its real use, which helps the reader understand the register and frequency based on a documentary record of the term in the way it appears in specific contexts. Wherever authentic examples are not available or not illustrative enough, constructed examples are provided instead.

Translation and source are the elements of the schema that feed into the multimodal aspect and provide clarity on each entry’s origins and the universality of its use in languages beyond English. Translation, in particular, aims to answer the question of whether a particular military term can be easily interpreted for the understanding of the native Ukrainian community, and vice versa, since in the context of the russo-Ukrainian war, both languages actively generate new lexical units. Their translatability is an important consideration for writers, journalists, teachers, translators, interpreters, and students.

2.2. Entry selection criteria.

The process of entry selection is done by following a set of specific criteria to create a glossary that accurately represents the layers of vocabulary it claims to cover and is analytically interesting and practically useful for the range of audiences, domains, and applications it serves. Considering the fact that the glossary at hand is bilingual, primarily targeting entries in English and their consecutive translations into Ukrainian, the primary criterion for entry selection is the relevance of the product to the russo-Ukrainian war, which has been unfolding on Ukrainian (and, partly, russian) territory since 2014. This criterion encompasses three primary categories of terms:

- Terms that have originated as a result of the events of the war and would not have existed or would have developed different meanings without it.
- Terms whose meanings have been significantly altered by the events of the war: old terms with new semantic layers, extended meanings, or changed registers in the context of the war.
- Terms from the broader register of military and political discourse that are now widely used in reporting and discussion of the conflict.

Within this broad criterion, the project gives priority to the terms that can properly illustrate the multimodal perspective of military vocabulary: terms that originated in visual or audiovisual contexts (*palianytsia*), terms that carry significant pragmatic load beyond their literal meanings (*Shahed*), and terms that illuminate the relationship between official and vernacular registers (*peace deal*). The goal of such entry compilation is to assemble a set of terms that form a coherent and culturally vibrant picture of the war's linguistic landscape. Many words from the military discourse, such as *TPO* (TRD – territorial defence) or *TPOУМНИК* (TRD-officer), are compressed (Ivko, Diachok, 2024) or abbreviated, and the meaning encoded in them is filtered through specific in-group knowledge. Without sharing this knowledge and being part of this discourse community, non-Ukrainians may struggle to decompose wartime compressives. The same goes for Large Language Models (LLMs), especially those that haven't been specifically trained on Ukrainian military speech. The glossary pays special attention to such units, providing a rounded coverage and description not only of the compressive unit, but also the logic behind the morphological metamorphosis, required to decode the group-specific meaning.

Frequency and distribution were also included as selection criteria for the Multimodal Glossary of War. High-frequency terms that appear routinely in English-language military reporting were generally included for the glossary's utility as a basic reference tool. At the same time, low-frequency terms of particular cultural or theoretical significance were also included, even where their absolute frequency in texts is modest, to demonstrate that cultural richness and lexicographic interest do not always correlate with frequency of use.

The exclusion criteria for the glossary generally complement the inclusion criteria. Terms that are too technical for any non-specialist audience, such as highly specific military-engineering terminology or the operational vocabulary of particular weapons systems, were generally excluded unless they had crossed over into

broader public discourse. In addition, the terms that appear only once in the source materials and for which there is no broader evidence of circulation are also excluded, as the glossary aims to document well-established use cases for each entry, rather than authors' neologisms or individual coinages.

2.3. Sourcing and data collection.

Since the Multimodal Glossary of War is both a specialised war glossary and a document of living and changing language, which is primarily digital-native, the sources for data collection were drawn from both institutional domains and informal discourse. The four main categories include institutional texts, journalistic materials, digital platform data, and social media sources.

Institutional texts are the primary source for the standardised terminology layer. These include official military communications from the Ukrainian Armed Forces and the General Staff, publications from NATO and its member states concerning the conflict and the weapons systems provided to Ukraine, Ukrainian governmental and presidential communications, and UN and international organisation documents. Institutional texts are generally stable, well-archived, and available in English translation, which makes them viable lexicographic sources. Their main limitation is that they document official rather than popular usage, and they are necessarily formal in register.

Journalistic materials comprise the second category and are a primary source for terms that are positioned on the boundary between technical and general vocabulary. English-language coverage for the Multimodal Glossary of War has been drawn from a wide range of outlets, including national newspapers (The Guardian, The Economist, The New York Times, The Washington Post), specialist defence publications (Defence Express, Defence News), and Ukrainian English-language outlets (the Kyiv Independent, Ukrinform, Ukrainska Pravda, Espresso, United24 Media, RBC Ukraine, Spravdi, Kyiv Post, UATV). Journalistic sources assist in tracking the moment when technical vocabulary enters general circulation, which is also the moment when it becomes relevant for this glossary.

Digital platform data is the third category and the primary source for the slang layer. Telegram is the most important platform in this context, for reasons that reflect the specific features of Ukrainian digital culture. Telegram's combination of broadcast channels (in which prominent individuals or organisations publish the latest news and coverage of wartime events) and group chats (in which communities discuss events in real time) makes it a uniquely rich site of language innovation and documentation. Many of the most important slang terms and occasionalisms documented in this glossary were first observed across public Telegram channels (*Glovo order*, *nahriuk*, *orcs*, *zaporebryk*, *Johnsonyuk*, etc.), and the platform's openness to foreign researchers makes it widely accessible as a data source.

Борис Джонсонюк у Києві! ❤️

«Радий вітати в День Незалежності великого друга України Бориса Джонсона.

Борисе, дякую за безкомпромісну підтримку нашої країни з перших днів повномасштабної російської агресії, за стійке відстоювання інтересів України на міжнародній арені! Нашій державі пощастило мати такого друга!», — написав президент Володимир Зеленський.

Figure 2.2. Example of usage of the proper noun *Johnsonyuk* (Джонсонюк) in a news post in a public channel on Telegram

Instagram, TikTok, and X (formerly Twitter) have also been monitored as supplementary sources, particularly for terms that circulate predominantly through image-based meme culture (Instagram) or short-form video (TikTok). The methodological challenges of using social media data are significant: posts are ephemeral, the demographic characteristics of platform users may skew the vocabulary documented, and the lack of formal archiving makes long-term citation difficult. The Multimodal Glossary of War acknowledges these limitations, provides specific citations where they can be reliably preserved, and uses social media data primarily to contextualise usages documented in more stable sources rather than as the sole evidence for any entry.

SECTION 3. REAL-WORLD APPLICATIONS, USE CASES, AND RELEVANCE FOR LANGUAGE STUDIES.

3.1. Training Large Language Models (LLMs) and Artificial Intelligence systems.

A significant and forward-looking application of the Multimodal Glossary of War is its use as a training and evaluation resource for large language models (LLMs) and other artificial intelligence systems. As AI-generated text becomes an increasingly prevalent medium for information delivery in journalism, education, humanitarian communication, and public discourse, the quality and cultural sensitivity of AI systems' knowledge about specific, rapidly evolving domains such as armed conflict becomes an urgent matter both practically and ethically. This project is designed to provide structured, human-curated lexicographic data about war vocabulary that reflects the perspective of a community directly and existentially affected by the conflict it documents.

Large language models are trained on vast corpora of Internet text, and their knowledge of any given domain reflects the biases, gaps, and distortions present in those corpora. The vocabulary of the russo-Ukrainian war presents a particularly challenging case for LLMs for several interrelated reasons. First, the vocabulary is evolving rapidly: terms coined in 2022 may not have been adequately represented in pre-training corpora assembled before the invasion, and terms emerging in 2023

through 2026 may be absent from older models entirely. Tepla (2024) emphasises neologism velocity and gaps in codification, deploying the example of weaponry: ever since Ukraine started receiving new weapons en masse from foreign partners, the military speak has been constantly supplemented with slang verbs formed as transliterated borrowed verbs from Ukrainian – mainly names of weapons (e.g., *zabayraktaryty*, *zastingeryty*), which have not acquired proper equivalents in English yet. Such lexemes emerge rapidly from the ground-level military discourse and tend to be the categories that contemporary LLMs most often fail to process, interpret, and reproduce. Second, the vocabulary is ideologically contested: the same events are described using systematically different terminologies by Russian and Ukrainian sources, and a model trained without careful attention to this contestation may reproduce one framing incorrectly or compare incompatible perspectives. Third, much of the most culturally significant vocabulary, such as the slang, the memes, the ironic coinages that characterise the Ukrainian digital public sphere, is underrepresented in the formal, edited text that tends to dominate pre-training corpora, leaving LLMs with an incomplete and vague picture of how the conflict is actually discussed by those most affected by it.

The Multimodal Glossary of War offers solutions to these challenges by providing structured, high-quality lexicographic data that can be used at several stages of the AI development process. In the pre-training or fine-tuning phase, the entries, along with their definitions, example sentences, etymological notes, pragmatic annotations, and contextual metadata, constitute a dense, information-rich dataset that can improve a model's handling of conflict-related vocabulary. The structured XML format of Lexonomy entries is particularly well-suited to this purpose: it provides labelled, typed data that can be parsed and processed efficiently, and the explicit separation of fields (headword, definition, example, translation, and source) allows for targeted LLM training that covers specific dimensions of lexical competence. It does so instead of relying on models to extract this knowledge implicitly from unstructured text. This approach once again reflects the XML schema methodology applied by Makhachashvili, Semenist, and Klochkov (2025). The project applied an annotated XML schema in Lexonomy to teach an AI model to distinguish, extract, and tag language innovations across digital corpora.

During procedures such as text evaluation and logico-semantic alignment, the glossary becomes a resource for estimating the accuracy, cultural sensitivity, and ideological balance of a chosen AI-generated text about the conflict. An LLM that defines *Special Military Operation* without flagging it as Russian official terminology, widely regarded as a euphemism for invasion, or that deploys *orc* as a neutral descriptor rather than identifying it as culturally specific Ukrainian wartime slang, is reproducing ideological lexicalisation without being critically aware of it (van Dijk, 2011), which is the behaviour that the given glossary is designed to help correct. The occasional annotations in the entries help calibrate LLM outputs so that they include more responsible and contextually accurate language used to cover the events of the war.

Ukrainian tends to be significantly underrepresented in most major LLM training corpora relative to English and other languages of international communication. This underrepresentation means that AI systems might possibly reflect the Russian-language framings of the Ukraine conflict more faithfully than Ukrainian ones. This is a clear form of methodological injustice with real-world consequences for how these systems describe the ongoing war to the millions of users who consult them. In accordance with van Dijk's (2011) argument that all ideological discourse is controlled by Common Ground and group-specific knowledge (van Dijk, 2011), we can claim that an LLM trained primarily on English and Russian-language data will encode a distorted Common Ground for the war, lacking the group-specific ideological knowledge of the Ukrainian speech community.

The Multimodal Glossary of War provides structured, authoritative, human-curated data on Ukrainian-perspective war vocabulary in English, which is also the language most widely used for international AI interaction. In particular, the multimodal nature of the glossary, covering both the conventional layer of the military vocabulary and newly emerged coinages, helps AI systems it teaches handle the pragmatic and cultural aspects of terms, which determine whether an AI-generated text about the Russo-Ukrainian war is merely technically accurate or sensitive and trustworthy.

In the glossary building process, its practical use has been tested through the involvement of Large Language Models outside its scope. The primary target was the accurate translation and interpretation of war-generated slang across day-to-day exchanges in cyberspace. In one part of the experiment, a project was created in Claude, a conversational AI system built in San Diego, California. An XML file of the Multimodal Glossary of War was uploaded into the project files to be used by Claude as the unique referential tool during request processing. Then, it was tasked with translating a piece of war-related exchange from Ukrainian into English, using exclusively the information provided by the glossary's entries.

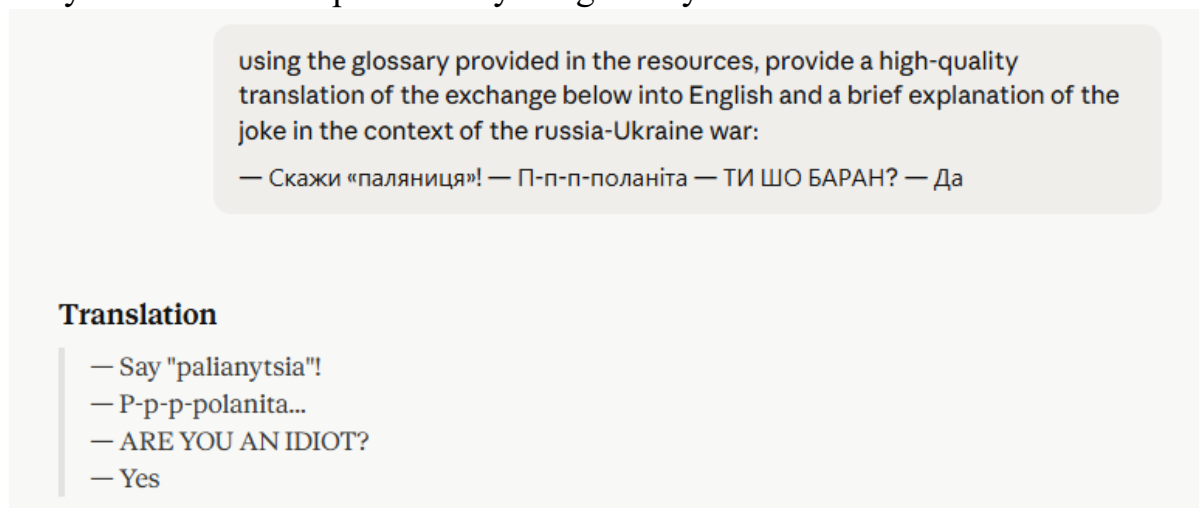


Figure 3.1. Claude provides a Ukrainian-English translation of a piece of discourse, stripped of context

Claude has processed the request and provided an adequate translation, preserving the linguistic and cultural integrity of the exchange, as well as its humorous nature, within seconds, despite the fact that the context in which the exchange occurred was not added to the initial prompt. Right below the translation variant, the LLM has provided a detailed explanation of the exchange, relying on the linguistic information contained in the glossary, which can serve for a better understanding of Ukrainian-born military slang by non-native communities. When asked about the role of the glossary in the translation process, the LLM offers a detailed, technical breakdown of how it referred to and processed the lexical information outlined in the Multimodal Glossary of War for translation and adaptation.

Explanation

This joke plays on **palianytsia** — a traditional Ukrainian bread whose name functions as a **shibboleth** during the war. Because the word contains sounds and stress patterns that are notoriously difficult for native Russian speakers to pronounce correctly, Ukrainian checkpoints used it to screen for Russian infiltrators and saboteurs: a Ukrainian speaker says it fluently; a Russian speaker stumbles.

The joke follows a classic two-beat structure:

1. The person is asked to say *palianytsia* and mangles it badly — the stuttered, garbled "*p-p-polanita*" is an unmistakably Russian-accented failure.
2. The guard's furious "**ARE YOU AN IDIOT?**" is rhetorical — clearly this person is a Russian. But then the punchline lands: "Yes" — answering in Russian ("Да" rather than Ukrainian "Так"), which is itself a second confession, doubling down on the exposure.

The humor is dark and pointed: the infiltrator fails the linguistic test *and then immediately fails again* by instinctively answering in Russian, making his identity doubly obvious. It captures the wartime absurdity of disguise, and the cultural pride Ukrainians take in a language that — quite literally — gives enemies away.

Figure 3.2. Rooting its response in the linguistic and cultural context provided by the Multimodal Glossary of War, Claude gives an explanation of a Ukrainian wartime joke

During the research stage of this project, the capability of Perplexity AI to discern, translate, and explain Ukrainian-borrowed military slang was tested with a specific request to provide an explanation to a Ukrainian-native slang verb *to chornobaite*, which literally means to repeat the same mistake over and over again without correcting your approach and stems from the name of the heavily bombed, russian-occupied Chornobaivka airfield near Kherson, which became a symbol of repeated russian losses. The LLM failed to provide an accurate definition of the term, which highlighted one of the many inconsistencies in the specific domain of AI training that concerns the correct interpretation of the lexical units coined concurrently with the ongoing military conflicts. Without relevant context, the

language model failed to provide a precise definition of the term, referring to a “technological mineral formed during the 1986 Chernobyl nuclear disaster” instead.

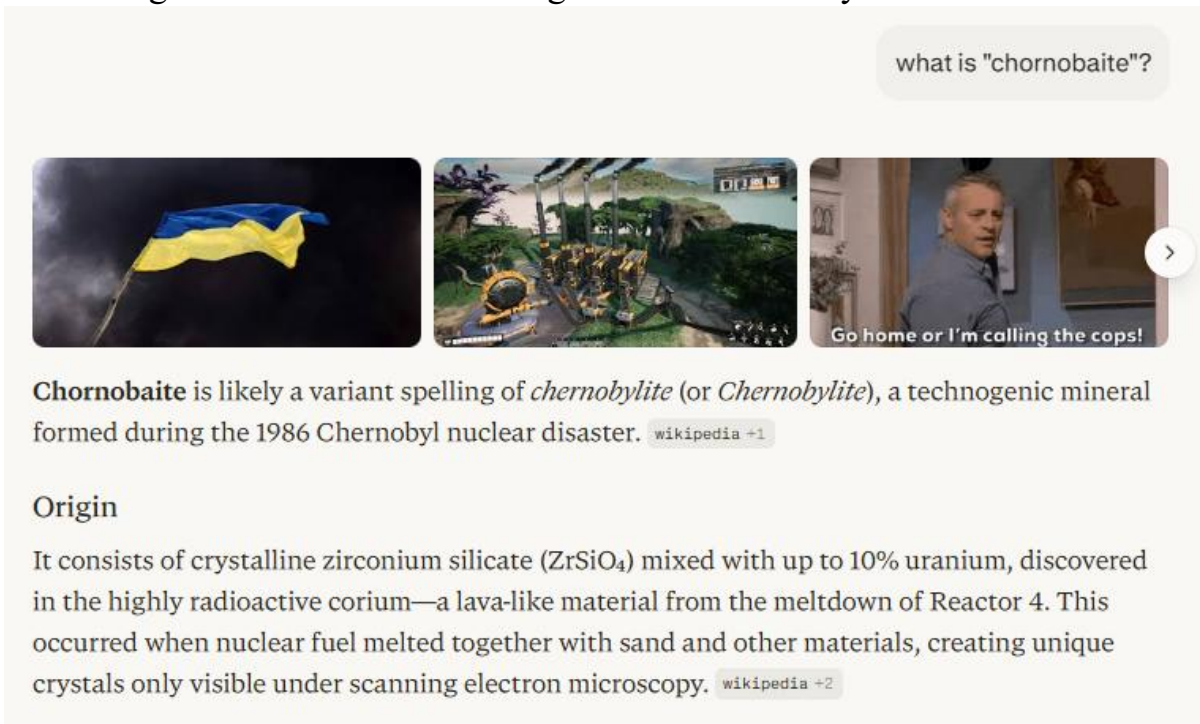


Figure 3.3. Perplexity AI fails to provide a correct translation of the Ukrainian-borrowed slang verb *to chornobaite*

The same experiment was repeated when the Multimodal Glossary of War was already in active development. Perplexity AI was tasked with correctly translating into English and explaining a Ukrainian joke “*Я прочорнобаїв та знову повернувся до колишньої*”, which naturally inserts and utilises the slang verb *to chornobaite* in a context different from military. This time, along with the main request, the language model was supplied with an XML file of the Multimodal Glossary of War. Using it as the sole referential tool, Perplexity AI managed to provide an accurate translation of the joke into English, as well as a detailed explanation of its inherent joke mechanics, without compromising the core slang verb or employing a misleading connotation.

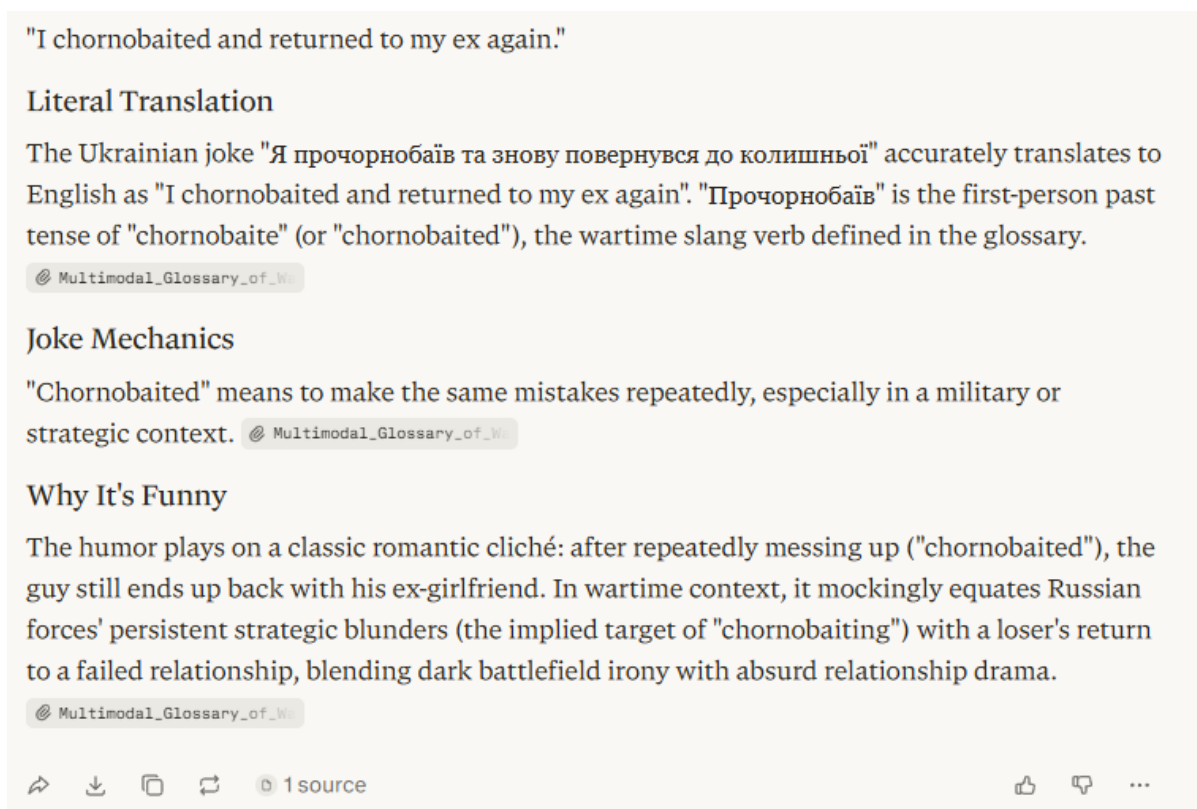


Figure 3.4. Perplexity AI provides a correct translation of a joke containing a piece of Ukrainian-borrowed wartime slang *to chornobaite*, using the Multimodal Glossary of War as its sole reference tool

Now, the Multimodal Glossary of War is designed to be used, among other things, by AI developers – professionals who directly integrate data into the internal structure of LLMs with the aim of perfecting responses and making prompt processing more precise. Nevertheless, such superficial experimenting already clearly demonstrates the practical relevance of the Multimodal Glossary of War in LLM training. Whenever it is attached to AI prompts as a referential tool, it accounts for the accuracy and relevance of the responses and tasks that are directly linked to the events of the russo-Ukrainian war and the consequently coined military lexicon.

There are also important ethical dimensions to this application of the Multimodal Glossary of War. AI systems that generate text about ongoing armed conflicts are active participants in information environments that are themselves sites of contest and manipulation. A Large Language Model that can be prompted to describe russian military actions using the kremlin's preferred terminology, or that conflates Ukrainian and russian perspectives on the conflict's causes and character, is a tool with potential for misuse in information warfare. The glossary's close attention to the ideological layers of vocabulary, such as the notes on which terms are contested, which are propagandistic in origin, and which carry specific cultural or political connotations, provides AI developers and alignment researchers with resources for building systems that handle sensitive conflict-related vocabulary properly and with enough nuance.

3.2. Translation and interpreting studies.

The most immediate practical application of this glossary is as a resource for translators and interpreters working with texts and speech related to the russo-Ukrainian war. Translation in conflict zones is a high-stakes activity: errors of terminology can have serious legal, diplomatic, and humanitarian consequences. The provision of accurate, contextually rich, and culturally grounded terminology is a practical contribution to the quality and reliability of communications in and about the conflict.

The slang layer of the glossary is particularly valuable for translators because it is the layer least likely to be covered by existing resources. Standard bilingual dictionaries and specialist military glossaries document formal and technical vocabulary adequately, but they largely do not deal with the rapid evolution of informal language. A translator working on a journalistic text that refers to terms like *двохсотий* or *паляниця* needs not only an accurate translation equivalent but also contextual information about the term's register, cultural associations, the emotional weight it carries, and the degree to which a translation should preserve these associations or make them more transparent for a target-language audience. Translators and interpreters might lack the group-specific knowledge required to decode wartime slang (Ivko, Diachok, 2024), and standard reference tools are usually limited in their inclusion of specific contextual clues encoded into every term. Wartime slang units are considered culture-specific items (CSIs) that always carry a heavy cultural and pragmatic load, which pertains to a clearly defined community and may not be known, or only partially known, beyond its borders (Halyan, 2014, as cited in Tkachivska et al., 2025). Call signs, which are one of the many examples of such lexemes, present a separate challenge for translation professionals: Matsyuk (2022) classified call signs according to their functions, which include nominative, esoteric, differential, informative, characteristic, and expressive. Due to such diversity of pragmatic functions, these units resist equivalence-based translation and require specific contextualisation, which is provided by the Multimodal Glossary of War. The glossary's extended entry format is designed with an inclusion of contextual notes, wherever relevant, that provide the necessary context for translators and interpreters working across such translation strategies (Tkachivska et al., 2025) as:

- **Transcoding** – preserving source-language form (e.g., *Shahed*, *Geran*, *HIMARS*).
- **Domestication** – adapting to target-language cultural equivalents (e.g., *орк/orc*).
- **Foreignisation** – keeping the source-language term with explanatory glosses (e.g., *паляниця/palianytsia*, *бавовна/bavovna*).
- **Addition** – specifying notions that do not exist in the target language world picture.
- **Generalisation** – used when a precise equivalent is unavailable.

The challenge of translation equivalence is omnipresent for culturally specific slang. Ukrainian wartime slang is deeply rooted in the specific cultural context of

Ukraine, such as its linguistic history, its relationship to Russian, its meme culture, and its military traditions. Many terms have no precise equivalent in English or other languages, and the translator must make a choice between strategies of equivalence (finding the closest functional match in the target language), foreignization (preserving the source-language term with explanatory glosses), and domestication (adapting the term to culturally familiar equivalents in the target language). The glossary provides alternatives for such slang terms wherever possible.

For interpreters working at diplomatic or humanitarian briefings, press conferences, or military consultations, the glossary offers a quick-reference resource that covers both the technical vocabulary of military and political discourse and the colloquial vocabulary that often appears in informal communication. The Multimodal Glossary of War can function as a powerful training manual and active practice tool for interpreters in social, political, humanitarian, cultural, and other domains, reducing the level of stress associated with synchronous or consecutive interpretation – in particular, when newly coined and narrowly documented lexical units are involved in speech. During this process, interpreters use speed writing as a preventive means of avoiding errors, but this is also the most capacious effort in terms of information processing (Povoroznyuk, 2016, p. 46). Minimising the time spent on notation is possible only by constant training and developing a system that meets the individual style and preferences of the user (Povoroznyuk, 2016, p. 46). Shifting the focus of attention from notation will immediately free up the resources needed for listening and analysis, which is the most important stage of the first phase of consecutive interpretation (Povoroznyuk, 2016, p. 46). Speed writing is one of the many activities in interpretation training where the glossary can serve as a reference manual and even a tabletop book. In preparation for work at the UN conferences, humanitarian events, political meetings, cultural gatherings, and similar occasions related to the coverage of the war in Ukraine, interpreters may consult the glossary as the universal source of definitions not only for the conventional military terms but also the culture-specific items – new coinages, jargonisms, and slang, which are otherwise poorly documented across the known and traditional lexicographic resources.

During the written translation process, the translator reproduces the text from a sheet and breaks separate sentences into segments to reduce the level of stress (Povoroznyuk, 2016, p. 47). At the same time, the main downside of the independent segmentation and apparent independence from the speaker is the loss of important paralingual clues that can be otherwise read or copied from the speaker's intonation, pauses, and gestures. In practice, a translator who works with a pair of languages that differ significantly in their structural, grammatical (Povoroznyuk, 2016, p. 46), lexical, and semantic characteristics is obliged to spend more time on catching the general idea, which would be otherwise easier to retrieve from the contextual clues that are present directly in oral speech. In this case, the Multimodal Glossary of War provides these contextual clues for specific CSIs in writing. As with every military conflict, the terminology connected to the war in Ukraine requires accurate and, oftentimes, sensitive handling on the part of both translators and interpreters. For

instance, the use of the term *Special Military Operation (SMO)* in speech can be both literal and ironic, depending on the speaker's nationality and political views, circumstances, and the general context surrounding the lexical unit. In oral speech, this differentiation might be obvious from the intonation, body language, and emotions of the speaker, but written text tends to complicate the immediate understanding for the translator. By consulting the specialised glossary, a professional can analyse the entire range of contexts in which a specific lexical unit can possibly appear and apply the acquired knowledge to provide an accurate and context-appropriate interpretation of the part of the text in which this term appears. This helps avoid false interpretations that can negatively impact the meaning and overall semantic and pragmatic colouring of the text or, in cases of interpretation, misleading the speaker's intent.

The project also has potential value for interpreter and translator training programmes. The russo-Ukrainian war has created multiple translation challenges, including the rendering of culturally specific slang, the handling of terms with opposed political meanings (such as the choice between *war* and *Special Military Operation (SMO)* in translations of official russian communications), and code-switching between Ukrainian and russian. The Multimodal Glossary of War can serve as a case study resource for courses in conflict interpreting, specialised translation, and translation ethics.

3.3. Journalism and media literacy.

Embedded correspondents, foreign desk editors, and analysts working with open-source intelligence face a constant terminological challenge, since the ongoing russo-Ukrainian war has generated a wide vocabulary of technical, political, and cultural terms, many of which are unknown to general audiences and might carry ideological significance that must be handled carefully and responsibly in oral and written reporting.

From the technical perspective, the war has introduced a wide range of weapons systems and tactical concepts that most journalists covering the story did not previously know. Terms like *MLRS (Multiple Launch Rocket System)*, *ATGM (Anti-Tank Guided Missile)*, *SHORAD (Short-Range Air Defence)*, and the specific nomenclatures of systems like *HIMARS*, *Javelin*, and *NLAW* became news vocabulary almost overnight in February 2022. A journalist who uses these terms inaccurately is at risk of misrepresenting the military situation and losing credibility and trust of their audience. The Multimodal Glossary of War thus becomes a professional resource that provides accurate and accessible definitions of technical vocabulary, with particular attention to recently emerged lexemes.

From the political and cultural points of view, journalists must understand the war-specific terminology and utilise such units consciously in order to avoid semantic and contextual ambiguity. For instance, the decision whether to describe the russian armed forces as an *army* or as *occupiers*, whether to refer to *the war* or *the conflict* or (following Ukrainian government preference) *the full-scale invasion*, whether to use the Ukrainian transliteration of place names (*Kyiv* rather than *Kiev*) or traditional English spellings – all of these are decisions that responsible

journalism must address with political and ethical considerations. As demonstrated in a recent [research](#) comparing U.S. and Russian newspapers conducted by the University of Arkansas, *while the New York Times primarily refers to the conflict as “Russia’s invasion” or “Russia’s war on Ukraine”, TASS (a Russian state-owned news agency) uses “Special Military Operation” in 98% of articles* (Rudakova, A., 2024), for which it often faces immediate criticism from Ukrainian and Western audiences. Such an ideological divide can be described by van Dijk’s (2011) Ideological Square and the four core strategies: (1) emphasise Our good qualities; (2) emphasise Their bad qualities; (3) de-emphasise Our bad qualities; (4) de-emphasise Their good qualities. In the sequence *Russian genocide of Ukrainians*, the word *genocide* amplifies “Their” bad actions. Alternatively, the Kremlin-coined and used euphemism *Special Military Operation (SMO)* downplays “Our” bad actions on Russia’s behalf. The strategies of the Ideological Square are applicable at lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic levels for every terminological choice made within a particular piece of discourse.

The political and social colouring of the war-specific terms can reflect the fundamentally different ways in which people across countries perceive the nature, cause, and legitimacy of the conflict itself. The Multimodal Glossary of War aims to provide journalists with the information and lexical distinctions they need to utilise military lexicon, particularly those units that pertain to the Russo-Ukrainian war, consciously and appropriately for specific contexts. According to Lakoff (1991), the framing of war through the lens of language can’t be neutral, and the terms chosen to describe particular wartime events actively build their meaning for audiences (Lakoff, 1991). In this regard, choosing the applicable terminology in conflict journalism becomes an inherently political act (Lakoff, 1991). Van Dijk (2011) states that ideologies are primarily reproduced through discourse, and that lexical choices activate ideological schemas in the receiver’s cognition. In addition, Kramar & Ilchenko (2023) directly frame neologisms as instruments of ideological and information warfare. Therefore, the terminological choices made by media outlets covering the Russo-Ukrainian war always carry ideological weight beyond the words’ semantics.

The glossary also provides value for media literacy education. One of the central insights of media literacy pedagogy is that language choices in reporting are not neutral and that the words used to describe events are directly responsible for how those events are perceived and evaluated. The vocabulary of the Russo-Ukrainian war offers a rich case study in this respect because of the competing terminologies: for example, the Russian official insistence on *Special Military Operation* rather than *war*, the Ukrainian application of terms like *genocide* and *ecocide*, and the Western media’s own terminological choices. The Multimodal Glossary of War is a publicly accessible glossary that provides usage contexts for these specific terms, which can help different audiences utilise them more critically and thoughtfully.

The glossary’s documentation of meme-born slang has particular relevance in the context of digital media literacy. Political memes have become one of the

primary vehicles of conflict representation in cyberspace (contemporary digital environment), and the vocabulary they generate often enters mainstream discourse without the contextual information needed for proper understanding. The glossary traces the meme-based origins of lexemes like *orc* or *palianytsia* and explains their cultural roots, the process that helps simplify engagement with digital outlets covering war events and, consequently, adds to the formal media literacy education.

3.4. Military and humanitarian communication.

For military professionals and humanitarian workers operating in the context of the russo-Ukrainian war, accurate terminology and language for reporting are essential, and errors in both written and oral communication can have serious consequences. NATO personnel, foreign military advisers, liaison officers, and international observers all need reliable reference materials for both the technical vocabulary of Ukrainian and russian military operations and the informal language they will encounter in the field and in working relationships with Ukrainian counterparts.

This need is covered by the standardised terminology layer of the glossary. Entries covering weapons systems, tactical concepts, command structures, operational vocabulary, and the specific nomenclatures used by the Ukrainian Armed Forces provide a quick-reference resource that can be an efficient complementary tool alongside more specialised military publications. The advantage of the Multimodal Glossary of War over purely technical military glossaries is its accessibility: it is written for a general educated audience rather than for a specialist readership, which makes it more useful for the diverse range of professionals, such as lawyers, doctors, logisticians, political officers, and communications specialists who may need to understand military vocabulary without having passed specialist military training.

For humanitarian organisations, such as UN agencies, international NGOs, and local civil society organisations, the glossary also provides a complementary value. Humanitarian workers need to understand the language of the national, social, and cultural communities they serve, including the informal and emotionally charged language that people use to talk about their experiences of the war. The ability to recognise *двохсотий* and *трьохсотий* in a conversation, to understand the cultural significance of *паляниця*, or to appreciate the dark humour encoded in terms like *відправити в Вальгаллу* is a form of cultural competence that allows for more respectful and effective communication with Ukrainian civilians, soldiers, and volunteers.

There is also a specific application in the design of communication materials for war-affected communities. Organisations producing information leaflets, radio broadcasts, social media content, or public health communications in Ukrainian need to configure their language choices carefully, such as to know which terms are official and authoritative, which are colloquial and community-building, and which may carry unintended ideological connotations. A humanitarian organisation that, whether deliberately or accidentally, uses vocabulary associated with the russian official framing of the war could seriously damage its credibility and effectiveness

in Ukrainian communities. One of the primary examples of such an event includes the backlash that was received by the Red Cross (ICRC) in March 2022, roughly a month after the beginning of Russia's full-scale invasion of Ukraine, for its use of the neutral, institutional language to refer to the events of the war: *conflict in Ukraine* instead of *war in Ukraine*, or *both parties of the conflict* instead of clearly distinguishing between the aggressor (Russia) and the victim (Ukraine). The ICRC's language choices directly caused mistrust towards the organisation across the Ukrainian communities (Kyiv Post, 2022, March 28) and led to negative reputational consequences for the Red Cross, including a massive wave of discouragement from financial donations to the organisation, primarily on social media.

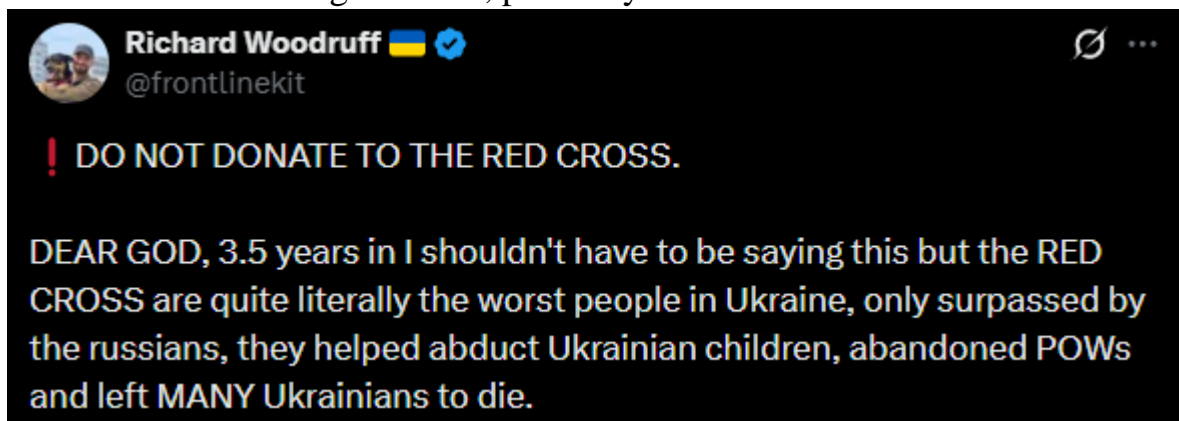


Figure 3.5. Richard Woodruff, a British volunteer supporting Ukraine since 2022, discourages the X (Twitter) community from donating to the Red Cross

While the use of inappropriate language to talk about the war was not the main mishap among the ICRC's questionable and, oftentimes, controversial activities in Ukraine, it functioned as a telling sign of the organisation's actual political inclination and was one of the primary reasons for the rapidly shifting public sentiment. Whether these language choices on the Red Cross's behalf were deliberate or not is kept outside the scope of this research. However, humanitarian organisations and volunteers searching to educate themselves on the appropriate wartime language use are encouraged to refer to the Multimodal Glossary of War, whose attention to register, pragmatic context, and political valence provides the information needed to make language choices that are both accurate and culturally sensitive.

3.5. Language pedagogy.

The glossary has significant potential applications in language teaching and learning, both for learners of Ukrainian and for learners of English working with the specialised vocabulary of military and political discourse. The didactic value of the project can be effective for schools and higher education establishments alike. According to the research conducted by Ngoc Diem (2025), multimodal education methods tend to strengthen learners' motivation and autonomous learning processes. A digital glossary that draws its entries from multimodal sources, such as memes and popular culture, and can be of assistance in developing interactive learning tools, provides a universal and inexhaustible source of practical didactic material.

For learners of Ukrainian, whether they are heritage speakers reconnecting with their ancestral language, diplomats and military personnel preparing for assignments related to the war, journalists and researchers working on the coverage of the war events in Ukraine, or simply people motivated by solidarity with Ukraine to learn the language, the Multimodal Glossary of War provides an introduction to a dimension of contemporary Ukrainian that is not well served by standard language learning materials, such as textbooks or conventional dictionaries. Most Ukrainian language textbooks and courses focus on standard literary Ukrainian, with at most a passing acknowledgement of the existence of informal registers. The wartime slang documented in this glossary, by contrast, is the living language of contemporary Ukraine: the language of news, social media, and everyday conversation in a society at war. Some of the prime examples include such new coinages or semantic shifts as *palianytsia*, *Flamingo*, *bavovna*, *to chornobaite*, *Johnsoniuk*, *Shahed*, *Geran*, *orc*, *peace deal*, and others. The knowledge of these culture-specific items (CSIs) is central to understanding what Ukrainians are saying about the most important thing that is happening to them historically, politically, culturally, and socially.

For learners of English working in diplomatic, military, or journalistic domains and environments, the glossary provides a focused vocabulary reference for one of the most extensively covered geopolitical events of the current era. The technical vocabulary of military affairs is notoriously challenging for non-native speakers, combining acronyms, specialised nomenclatures, and formal registers in ways that can be opaque even to educated native speakers of English. The Multimodal Glossary of War includes accessible definitions, translations, contextual examples, and pragmatic notes that make the glossary and its contents navigable for a wide range of learners of both English and Ukrainian.

Beyond these specific applications, the glossary offers rich material for teaching about language more broadly, such as how vocabulary reflects and shapes culture, the relationship between formal and informal registers, how conflict generates lexical creativity, and the role of digital communication in contemporary language change. These themes are relevant to language teaching at many levels, from secondary school English classes exploring the power of language to university courses in sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, or translation studies.

3.6. Archival and historical linguistics.

From a longer-term perspective, the Multimodal Glossary of War constitutes an archival resource of considerable value for future historians, linguists, and cultural scholars. The language of any major historical event is of permanent scholarly interest, and the russo-Ukrainian war, as one of the most significant geopolitical events of the early twenty-first century, will be studied by researchers across multiple disciplines for generations to come. Tepla (2024) defines language as an instrument of national unity in times of crisis; words generated in wartime conditions are the keepers of the cultural and historical memory of a particular nation. Future researchers will want to know not only what happened but how it was talked about: what words were used to describe the events, how those words were contested between opposing sides and different political communities, what

emotional and ideological frameworks they encoded, and how the vocabulary of the conflict changed over time as the military situation evolved and as political and cultural attitudes shifted. The Multimodal Glossary of War, by documenting terms at the moment of their active use and providing contextual information about the conditions of their emergence and spread across the society, offers a primary source of exactly this kind of evidence.

The particular value of documenting slang and informal vocabulary in the archival context should not be underestimated. Official and formal vocabularies are well preserved in institutional records, including such examples as military orders, governmental communications, diplomatic cables, and journalistic archives. All these provide extensive documentation of the formal register of the conflict. It is the vernacular layer that tends to be inadequately preserved. The wartime slang of previous conflicts, such as the trench argot of the Western Front, the naval slang of the Second World War, or the GI vocabulary of Vietnam, is now actively studied as a source of social and cultural history, evidence of how communities of people under extreme pressure maintained solidarity, managed fear, and made meaning in the face of violence. By systematically documenting the vernacular vocabulary of the russo-Ukrainian war, the Multimodal Glossary of War performs an archival service that may be even more important in twenty years than it is today.

The glossary's documentation of the modal origins and digital circulation of slang terms has an additional archival value that is specific to the contemporary context of cyberspace. Future researchers studying the role of social media, meme culture, and digital communication during wartime will require evidence of how specific linguistic forms circulated through specific platforms at specific moments. The pragmatic notes and modal metadata in the glossary's entries provide exactly this kind of evidence, documenting not only what terms meant but where they came from, how they spread, and what communicative functions they served at particular moments in history.

3.7. Contributions to crisis lexicography.

One of the youngest but rapidly developing subfields of applied linguistics is crisis lexicography, which refers to the systematic documentation of vocabulary generated by emergencies, disasters, and conflicts. One of its largest and most productive drivers has been the COVID-19 pandemic, which generated an extraordinary volume of new vocabulary in a short span of time, the so-called *Coronaspeak* or *coroneologisms* (Kramar & Ilchenko, 2023), which included, among others, such lexemes as *coronavirus*, *corona*, *lockdown*, *social distancing*, *covidiot/covidient*, *superspreader*, *quaranteam*, *quarantini*, *covideoparty*, etc. The attempts to document Coronaspeak in real time produced substantive linguistic findings and valuable methodological lessons for future researchers in the field of crisis lexicography.

The most valuable linguistic lesson from COVID-19 lexicography is that crisis events are also occasions for a fundamental reorganisation of lexical fields. The pandemic produced new words for new phenomena (*coronavirus*, *lockdown*, *social distancing*), but it also reassigned existing words to new referents, created

new collocations and idioms, and shifted the pragmatic registers of a wide range of terms whose usage used to be narrower in the past, limited only to specialised medical or policy discourses. The same processes are actively happening in the vocabulary of the russo-Ukrainian war, and the methodology created in pandemic lexicography provides resources that are directly applicable to the Multimodal Glossary of War, the main product of this research.

The glossary goes further on these developments and applies the methodology to a different kind of crisis, an armed conflict that shares some general features with pandemic crisis language but still differs from it in multiple aspects. The most significant consideration is political: in the armed conflict setting, the same events are described by the opposite sides using different vocabularies, as was demonstrated earlier by the polar opposition of the terms *Special Military Operation (SMO)*, used primarily by Russia and its allies, and *war*, used by the majority of Ukrainian and Western media, or the systematic use of *putin's war* as opposed to *Russia's war*, which carry two entirely different underlying ideologies. This choice of terminology in the description of the ongoing military events is a political act in and of itself, which always has direct consequences on how the war is perceived and responded to by larger audiences. At the same time, this political aspect of crisis vocabulary has received less attention in the pandemic lexicography literature, partly because the COVID-19 pandemic, despite generating political controversies about its origin and management, did not have the same fundamental contestation of basic descriptors. That is to say, there was no party insisting that COVID-19 was actually a *special public health situation* rather than a pandemic.

There are several ways in which this project contributes to crisis lexicography. First and foremost, it directly integrates multimodality into the glossary's entry schema design, which reflects the recognition that crisis vocabulary in the digital age often originates from non-textual modes. This action alone extends the methodology of crisis lexicography beyond the text-based dimension. The crisis lexicon can be extracted from visual imagery – memes, TikTok videos, TV shows, movies – and still documented with respect to the rules and principles of traditional lexicography. In the Multimodal Glossary of War, wherever it is possible, the occasionalisms generated by the russo-Ukrainian war are provided their direct equivalents from the conventional layer of the military language: thus, one consulting the glossary can find out that *Geran* is just one of the names allocated by Russians to their infamous attack drones, also known as suicide or kamikaze drones, also known as *Shahed 136*, also known as *moped* among Ukrainians due to the specific sound emanated by the drone's engine whenever it is in the air. All of these definitions and naming variations for one specific item are documented in the Multimodal Glossary of War, one referencing the other, so that whoever is consulting the glossary can build a clear chain of logic behind how exactly one term stems from the other. Needless to say, not all of these naming variations were born from textual modes. Plenty of them appeared in short videos, documentaries, and even meme images generated in wartime cyberspace to be later transcribed on paper,

make their way into vernacular speech, and be documented in the present project for further reference.

Second, the creation of an entry schema that fits both technical and vernacular registers within a single project bridges the gap in existing crisis lexicography, which has so far had a tendency to focus on either the institutional vocabulary or the popular parlance of affected communities, but rarely both. Makhachashvili and Semenist's (2021) conceptual framework of the innovative cyberspace logosphere, which maps vocabulary across ontological, epistemic, and anthropological tiers, already offers a model for this kind of structured and semiotically aware approach to digital vocabulary. The present glossary's entry schema mirrors it, separating core definitional fields from contextual and pragmatic data. Every entry is defined in a rounded way, the definitions including explanations on the term's origination and contextual circumstances, as well as appropriateness for various communicative situations depending on register and general usage tendencies.

Third, the use of Lexonomy as a tool for a real-time, open-access documentation of wartime language demonstrates that crisis lexicography can be conducted by individual researchers as compared to institutional teams. This expands the methodological possibilities of the field: anyone has the right to request contributor access to the glossary and join the continuous process of its development. This flexible and multimodal lexicographic methodology stems largely from the precedents established in digital neology research: Makhachashvili, Semenist, and Klochkov's (2025) framework for phenomenological, AI-enhanced digital neology and neosemiotics, which was developed specifically for cyberspace vocabulary.

Finally, the current project also contributes to the theoretical development of crisis lexicography. It raises a number of questions that the field has not yet addressed, including but not limited to:

- How should lexicographers handle terms whose meanings are still being negotiated?
- How should entries deal with the political implications of the developing wartime vocabulary?
- How should scholars manage the instability of digital sources?

The Multimodal Glossary of War seeks to answer these questions and thus provide the required empirical data and methodological approaches that can be used as a basis for future theoretical development in the field of crisis lexicography.

3.8. Contributions to digital semiotics and lexicographic practice.

The theoretical contribution and methodology of this project bring a meaningful contribution to the intersection of digital semiotics and lexicographic practice. If meaning in contemporary digital communication stems more and more often from the interaction of multiple modes, such as text, image, sound, and video, then the disciplines that treat text and discourse analysis capture only part of the meaning of the vocabulary that modern glossaries document. Even though this challenge has been recognised in theory on digital communication and multimodality, its implications for lexicographic practice have not been worked out in full. The project at hand offers a practical response to this challenge within the

frame of a specific lexicographic product. It demonstrates clearly that multimodality can and should be integrated into text-based lexicographic practice without being fundamentally redesigned.

The most important approach developed in this project is to supply text entries with contextual metadata about multimodal origins and circulation. It is a modest but exact step towards a more semiotically aware lexicology. For example, the entry for *Flamingo* – one of the Ukrainian missiles developed in the course of its war against Russia – includes important context on the origin of the name: the missile was “nicknamed for the accidental pink hue of its early factory units”, a direct visual context that prompted the naming practice.



Figure 3.6. The glossary’s entry for *Flamingo*

Another example, the glossary’s entry for the term *orc*, the lexeme associated among Ukrainian speakers with Russian troops (Hrydzhuk, Horodylovska & Florko, 2025), directly references the initial originating environment of the lexeme – J. R. R. Tolkien’s epic high fantasy novel “The Lord of the Rings”. The definition, supplied with contextual clues, provides a crucial differentiation between the original meaning of the word, coined in a fictional environment, as opposed to the connotation it has developed over the course of the war, predominantly across Ukrainian-speaking communities.

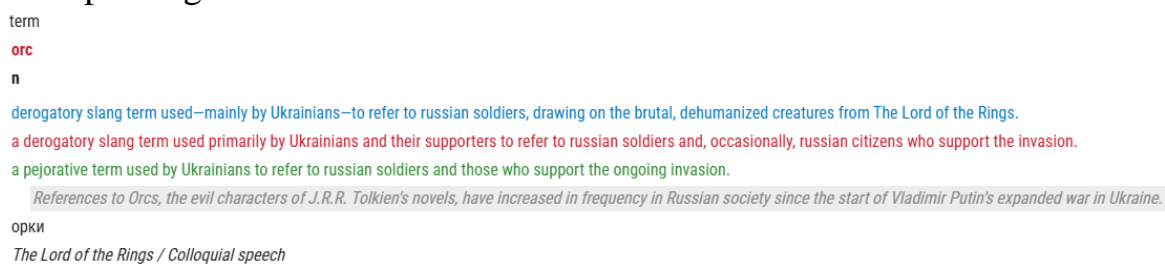


Figure 3.7. The glossary’s entry for *orc*

The Multimodal Glossary of War demonstrates that the line between text-based and multimodal dictionaries is blurred. A glossary that includes the semiotics behind the non-textual origins of its material can capture a higher share of culturally, contextually, and pragmatically important information on each entry compared to a dictionary that sticks strictly to textual explanations. This practice, widely applied in the development process of the Multimodal Glossary of War, has implications for traditional and digital lexicography that go well beyond the domain of military vocabulary.

Consequently, the project at the centre of this research raises broader questions about the place multimodality takes in the future of lexicography as it is

slowly shifting to an exclusively digital format. The main question to be asked about the future lexicographic practice is: if a significant and increasing portion of contemporary vocabulary, not limited to crisis lexicon, originates and derives its meaning from non-textual modes, should dictionaries start incorporating images, videos, and audio recordings as integral parts of their entries, instead of including them as occasional illustrations? If a term stems from a meme, should its lexicographic entry obligatorily include the originating meme? While the Multimodal Glossary of War is still limited to exclusively textual entries – due to the limiting nature of Lexonomy, which does not allow the inclusion of audiovisual elements – these questions create an agenda for and prompt further research for digital lexicographic theory that has just begun to develop.

3.9. Contributions to the study of language as cultural resistance.

New lexical units often tend to become cultural symbols of resistance and hope – a conclusion that Ukrainian scholars like Hrydzhuk, Horodylovska & Florko (2025) have already arrived at independently. This project aims to reinforce the idea, since one of the inherently humanistic contributions of the Multimodal Glossary of War is its documentation of language as a form of cultural resistance. The Ukrainian wartime slang and occasionalisms collected in this glossary are linguistically interesting for reasons beyond lexical: they are the direct evidence of a society asserting its identity, creativity, and capacity for solidarity and humour in the face of a clearly defined existential threat.

The research on language under conditions of oppression and conflict has its own distinguished tradition in sociolinguistics, with the frameworks developed by scholars including Frantz Fanon (on the politics of language under colonial domination), James Scott (on hidden transcripts and everyday forms of resistance), and, more recently, scholars working on language revitalisation and the linguistic aspects of cultural survival. The main idea of these studies is that language in itself is a site at which cultural resistance occurs. Language is a domain of social life where the dominated assert their agency, creativity, and refusal to be defined by the terms of the dominant. Cultural identity is directly encoded in the language a community speaks and the developments stemming from this language's active use, as the linguistic outputs people produce always include a share of their social background, specific to their culture and revealing their national identity (Tkachivska et al., 2025).

Ukrainian wartime slang vividly demonstrates this phenomenon. The recontextualisation and further use of *orc* (Hrydzhuk, Horodylovska & Florko, 2025) to identify Russian soldiers (emphasising “Their” bad qualities, as per van Dijk’s Ideological Square, 2011) is a linguistic choice that shows the refusal to accept the terms in which the Russian official discourse frames the war. This is something that Lakoff (1991) identifies as the “ideologically loaded metaphor systems that shape public perception of military conflicts”. This is a counter-framing that is built on the shared vocabulary of international popular culture (fantasy culture, video gaming, cinema, etc.) as opposed to accepting the military terminology of official discourse as the only correct and acceptable form for use.

The viral spread of the term *palianytsia* as a loyalty shibboleth is a cultural manifestation of Ukrainian identity and an assertion that language can function as a mark of belonging to a particular community. Following Mattiello (2017: pp. 132–133), slang is one of the devices of cohesion: it builds bonds within a particular community and excludes outsiders at the same time. The contrast in naming practices, documented by Matsyuk (2022) across a corpus of 1,500 call signs from both Ukrainian and Russian military forces, demonstrates that the lexical choices made by communities at war directly encode cultural values and conceptual contrasts in the understanding of what it means to be a part of a larger group. By documenting these culturally significant units and their primary differences based on the discourse communities, the Multimodal Glossary of War bridges the gap between the broader sociolinguistic theory and digital lexicographic practice.

The dark humour of terms like *двохсотий* (*two hundredth*) or *трьохсотий* (*three hundredth*) demonstrates similar resistant tendencies. Gallows humour – the use of comedy to manage extreme situations – is a universal feature of military and front-line cultures, but its specific forms always vary depending on the culture. The Ukrainian wartime humour encoded in these terms is based on specific cultural resources, including but not limited to the Soviet bureaucratic language and the current spoken tendencies and language trends of the Armed Forces of Ukraine. Ivko and Diachok (2024) frame slang as a “collective pragmatic linguistic game”, since speech accelerates under the accelerated pace of life itself (Ivko, Diachok, 2024). Laughing at death through linguistic means is a way to reduce the level of stress and keep mental balance during war, particularly through humour, irony, and sarcasm (Hrydzhuk, Horodylovska & Florcko, 2025).

The Multimodal Glossary of War systematically documents these linguistic acts, making them available for the scholarly analysis they rightfully deserve. The project provides raw material for studies in collective resilience of a nation, cultural identity construction and preservation under existential threats, and the social functions of humour and irony in extreme situations. All of these studies have the potential to contribute to linguistics, sociolinguistics, cultural sociology, and the broader humanities.

3.10. Contributions to sociolinguistic theory.

In addition to its contributions to the specific subfields outlined above, this project contributes to sociolinguistic theory more broadly in at least three areas: language change, the sociology of digital communication, and the relationship between language and identity under conditions of conflict. In the aspect of language change, the glossary provides empirical data on the mechanisms and velocity of lexical innovation in crisis conditions: as identified by Kramar & Ilchenko (2023), neologisms are “indicators of socio-political change”, and this change tends to accelerate during active warfare. The rapid and systematic nature of lexical innovations in wartime is exemplified in Tepla’s (2024) analysis of Putin-derived neologisms as a family (terms like *putinist*, *putinism*, *putinets*, *putinologist*, *putinoid*, *putinsk*, *putiniland*, *putinstan*, etc.): the range of derivatives from a single proper name illustrates both the rapid pace and creativity of crisis-time word formation. A

distinguishing characteristic of these lexemes is their primary coinage and major spread across Ukrainian-speaking communities, from where they find their way into English and other languages as Ukrainian borrowings.

The cognitive structures like Common Ground and group-specific knowledge shape every kind of ideological discourse, determining what speakers consider neutral or marked language (van Dijk, 2011), and the lexical layer of wartime slang creates an entirely new, shared linguistic community that is united by a joint traumatic experience. The russo-Ukrainian war has generated a massive body of new vocabulary over twelve years, which can be considered a short time historically but is in fact a long stretch linguistically, especially in regard to lexical change. Dorda (2008, as cited in Ivko and Diachok, 2024) highlights that the aim of slang is to bind people of one group closer together and oppose them to the rest of society as a whole. However, Ukrainian wartime slang is distinctive in this regard: instead of opposing one community against the entire nation, these units do the job of uniting the same nation across all social strata. An illustrative example of such lexemes is the military call signs, universally used in the Armed Forces of Ukraine: they are both units of interpersonal communication and units of military slang, used to maintain solidarity and distance a specific group from outsiders (Swann et al. 2004: p. 281, as cited in Matsyuk, 2022). The documentation of this ongoing process in the Multimodal Glossary of War contributes to the theoretical debates about the conditions that prompt rapid lexical innovation, the role of digital transmission channels in the acceleration of this process, and the relationship between semantic innovation and society. Since the glossary captures not only the terms but the contexts they first appeared in, it creates a set of data that can support both quantitative and qualitative analysis of these questions.

In the domain of digital communication studies, the project offers insights for the unfolding theory on what might be called “platform pragmatics” – the ways in which the settings of specific digital platforms build the communicative habits and practices that occur on them. One illustrative example of it is the role of Telegram in the coinage and circulation of Ukrainian wartime slang, which is then picked up and spread by the TikTok video content, as well as integrated into the meme culture on platforms like X (Twitter) and Instagram. While all of these demonstrate interactions between social and communicative needs and what a specific digital platform can afford, they are still poorly understood from a theoretical perspective. This, in turn, invokes the need for systematic empirical investigation. Since the Multimodal Glossary of War strives to document the exact platform of origination of every term and pinpoint its place in cyberspace, it provides a significant amount of evidence that can contribute to this investigation. This investigation can be backed up by research on cyberspace as a logosphere – “a multidimensional sphere in which digital platforms serve both as channels of communication and active environments with their own world-building and meaning-generating potential” (Makhachashvili, Semenist & Klochkov, 2025). When we apply this framework to wartime digital discourse, it helps explain how the specific digital environments contribute to the production of platform-specific vocabulary.

With respect to language and identity, this research contributes to the understanding of how different linguistic choices function as identity markers in conditions of existential threat. Throughout history, the theoretical literature on language and identity has focused on social configurations that can be called relatively stable: for instance, how the specific language choices define membership in communities defined by nationality, ethnicity, social class, or generation. However, the wartime context documented in the Multimodal Glossary of War calls for a different kind of identity study: the rapid spread and solidification of a shared vocabulary that defines membership in a community defined by a shared traumatic experience in wartime conditions. The way in which Ukrainian wartime slang has created a shared linguistic community among all Ukrainians and extended beyond, penetrating languages other than Ukrainian, not discriminating on the basis of class, regional, or generational divisions, is a theoretically significant phenomenon that calls for systematic scholarly attention.

CONCLUSIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

The Multimodal Glossary of War is a digital lexicographic project that covers more than just one domain of linguistic and lexicographic studies. Multimodal in its nature, the glossary strives to broaden the existing range of frameworks and methodologies for collecting, analysing, and documenting crisis vocabulary that stems from sources beyond textual. The project is continuous in its nature, which means that the development of the Multimodal Glossary of War will go on hand-in-hand with the lexical shifts and new coinages in both English and Ukrainian wartime vocabulary, following the tendency of lexicon being the most dynamic, flexible, and change-prone layer of both languages.

The research process outlined in this paper has fulfilled five interconnected objectives: it has established the theoretical and historical foundations for the study of military lexicon across English and Ukrainian and its transformation in real-world conditions, identified the distinguishing features of such lexemes in cyberspace and beyond, developed an XML-based entry schema and applied it to each glossary entry, completed a selection of glossary entries and subjected them to morphological and lexical analysis, tested the ability of existing Large Language Models (LLMs) to handle this wartime vocabulary, and demonstrated the practical application of the final product as a corrective tool for LLM training. All of these subjectives aligned support the core argument of the Multimodal Glossary of War as a project: all contemporary wartime vocabulary, particularly the one generated by the russo-Ukrainian war, requires a new kind of digital lexicographic tool – one that is real-time, bilingual, multimodal, and able to distinguish between the ideological and pragmatic features across the language units it documents.

In its nature, the Multimodal Glossary of War is more than just a reference tool for different categories of professionals and a varied scope of purposes: it also presents a direct methodological intervention in conventional lexicography as we know it today, with a specific attention to the multimodal dimension of lexical transformations that constantly occur in the crisis language. The project challenges the current constraints of the field, which have spread across the subfield of digital

lexicography: the retrospectiveness, text-exclusivity, and limitations to institutional vocabulary only. The project offers a more flexible, responsive, semiotically grounded, and culturally sensitive alternative.

The limitations of the project, among other things, are worth separate acknowledgement. The Lexonomy platform developed by ELEXIS, while well-suited to structured and open-access lexicographic documentation, is limited to the textual mode only and does not yet support the direct integration and embedding of images, video, or audio into entries. This is a significant limitation for a project based on multimodality and the multimodal discourse analysis as one of its key methodologies. To address this constraint, the Multimodal Glossary of War integrates multimodality in ways that are currently permitted by the platform it is built on – by providing crucial contextual clues for entries that have originated from modes other than textual. Future versions of this glossary, or future similar lexicographic projects, will ideally allow for the full integration of multimodal evidence for each entry. The current project will serve as an illustrative methodological basis for documenting lexical units with multimodal origins.

The scope of the Multimodal Glossary is selective, justified by the fact that not all of the wartime lexicon that has been generated by the russo-Ukrainian war since 2014 has sufficient evidence of usage and spread across cyberspace. Some of these terms had fallen out of use before they were even acknowledged by broader communities of speakers. Therefore, for a proper filtering of such entries, the project has been compiled with obligatory application of several key entry selection criteria. These criteria put forward frequency, cultural significance, and the range of term use and application across different registers. Still, many valuable terms remain undocumented and waiting for future contributors. The open-access structure of the Lexonomy platform allows for unlimited collaboration within the same project, which underpins the longevity of the Multimodal Glossary of War and its long-term relevance. Anyone interested in the development of wartime lexicon and the itinerary that each term makes from Ukrainian to English and vice versa, as well as anyone with a background in linguistics and digital lexicography, will be able to request contributor's access and expand the covered scope of entries in the Multimodal Glossary of War as they see fit.

At the time of developing this project, the russo-Ukrainian war is still ongoing, and the vocabulary that stems from it continues to evolve and transition into other lexical subfields and types of discourse. New weapons and weapon systems generate new nomenclatures, new military inventions generate new slang, and the dynamic, constantly changing political landscape produces new societal disputes over terminology and its ideological framing. The Multimodal Glossary of War is just the same – a dynamic, living lexicographic project, whose value captures two dimensions at once: the lexicon that it has already documented and its capacity to continue expanding with new war-related lexical units as they appear in the language. The Multimodal Glossary of War is not a retrospective dictionary, capturing military language after a certain conflict has already been settled. Instead, it documents the history of conflict in motion, treating language itself as evidence

that must be preserved, thoroughly analysed, and made accessible for broader audiences.

For further research and methodological development in linguistics, particularly digital lexicography and associated studies, this project seeks to fill multiple gaps:

- Expansion of the Multimodal Framework. Applying the methodology developed for this project to other active geopolitical events and conflicts.
- AI Training and Evaluation. Using the lexicographic data of the Multimodal Glossary of War to improve the general performance, cultural and ideological sensitivity, and accuracy of the contemporary Large Language Models (LLMs) – in particular, their processing of texts that are directly related to wartime events.
- Diachronic Semantic Tracking. Monitoring the long-term evolution of wartime neologisms (slang, occasionalisms, jargonisms, etc), their semantic shifts, and the process of determinologisation across both English and Ukrainian.
- Pedagogical Integration. Developing specialised language learning curricula and digital teaching tools for journalists, humanitarian workers, and military personnel based on real-time lexicographic updates provided in the given glossary.
- Archival and Socio-Linguistic Preservation. Deploying the documented vernacular and meme-born layers of language as a primary source for future sociolinguistic research on cultural resistance through language.

In its nature, the Multimodal Glossary of War is a record of a specific community's language throughout one of its most defining and consequential periods of history. It documents the wartime vocabulary as units of linguistic interest, as well as explores it as a universal tool of resistance, solidarity, and creativity. The scholarly and practical contributions of the project at hand are directly tied to the human experience, seeking to explore and accurately document, among other things, the ways in which a particular language community actively contributes to language change and uses the same mechanisms to assert its cultural and linguistic individuality. This anthropological factor is the core dimension in which the Multimodal Glossary of War finds its theoretical and practical justification.

REFERENCES

1. Avii. [@AviiWeb3]. (2026, May 11). *That 12 bucks hit harder than any peace deal* [Post]. X. <https://x.com/AviiWeb3/status/2053809066473112030?s=20>
2. Berry, M. (2005). Making the most of metalanguage. *Language Awareness*, 14(1), 3–20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09658410508668817>
3. Blommaert, J. (Ed.). (1999). *Language ideological debates*. Berlin New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
4. Boatner, Mark Mayo. (1991). *The Civil War Dictionary*. Vintage Civil War Library.
5. Dictionary of Modern Ukrainian Language and Slang “Myslovo”. (n.d). Retrieved from <https://myslovo.com>.
6. Dictionary of war neologisms from the Armyinform project. (n.d). Retrieved from <https://surl.li/cejwif>.
7. Dijk, V. (1997). *Discourse studies – a multidisciplinary introduction*. Sage Publications.
8. Dirven, R. (Ed.). (2001). *Language and ideology*. Amsterdam Philadelphia: J. Benjamins Co.
9. Dury, P., & Picton, A. (2021). Neologisms in the time of COVID-19. *Lexis: Journal in English Lexicology*, 17. <https://doi.org/10.4000/lexis.5063>
10. Espresso TV. (2024, February 4). How Ukraine’s wartime experience birthed new terms and phrases. @Espresotveng; Espresso. <https://global.espresso.tv/russo-Ukrainian-war-how-ukraines-wartime-experience-birthed-new-terms-and-phrases>
11. Fanon, Frantz. 1991. *Black Skin, White Masks*. New York, NY: Grove Press
12. Fanon, Frantz. 2018. *Alienation and Freedom*. Ed. by Jean Khalifa & Robert J.C. Young, DOI: 10.5040/9781474250238
13. Gergalo-Dabek, N. (2025). Language as a front of conflict: Russian discourse on the Ukrainian language in the context of the Russian-Ukrainian war. “*Res Rhetorica*,” 12(2), 133–151. <https://doi.org/10.29107/rr2025.2.7>
14. Herasymenko, O., & Kobzar, S. (2024). Neologisms of the Russian-Ukrainian war: Analysis and specificity of use. *Scientific Notes. Series: Philological Sciences*, 209, 82-86. [doi:10.32782/2522-4077-2024-209-12](https://doi.org/10.32782/2522-4077-2024-209-12).
15. Hrydzhuk, O., Horodylovska, H., & Florcko, L. (2025). WAR-CAUSED UKRAINIAN NEOLOGISMS: DICTIONARY AND PSYCHO-EMOTIONAL REASONS OF FORMATION. *Advanced Linguistics*, 15, 21–31. <https://doi.org/10.20535/.2025.15.327030>
16. Hrytsenko, S. (2022). Language innovations of the Russian-Ukrainian war in 2022. *Bulletin of Taras Shevchenko National University of Kyiv*, 2(32), 9-13. [doi: 10.17721/1728-2659.2022.32.02](https://doi.org/10.17721/1728-2659.2022.32.02).
17. Ivanenko, N., Biletska, O., Hurbanska, S., Hurbanska A., & Kochmar, D. (2023). English language morphological neologisms reflecting the war in Ukraine. *World Journal of English Language*, 13(5), 432-438. [doi: 10.5430/wjel.v13n5p432](https://doi.org/10.5430/wjel.v13n5p432).

18. Ivko, O., Diachok, N. (2024). The Lexicon of Contemporary War Time: Compressive Professional Slang Units in the Ukrainian Language. *Alfred Nobel University Journal of Philology*, vol. 2, issue 28, pp. 170-179, DOI: <https://doi.org/10.32342/3041-217X-2024-2-28-10>
19. Jinadu, L. A. (1976). Language and Politics: On the Cultural Basis of Colonialism (Langue et politique: sur les bases culturelles du colonialisme). *Cahiers d'Études Africaines*, 16(63/64), 603–614. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4391483>
20. Kay, E. (1987). *Pocket military dictionary: A-Z of the world's military technology*. K-Books.
21. Klosa-Kückelhaus, A., & Kernerman, I. (2022). Lexicography of coronavirus-related neologisms: An introduction. In A. Klosa-Kückelhaus & I. Kernerman (Eds.), *Lexicography of coronavirus-related neologisms* (Lexicographica: Series Maior 163, pp. 1–10). De Gruyter. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110798081-001>
22. Kononenko, O. (2023). Expansion of the lexical composition of the language during the Russian-Ukrainian war of 2022-2023. *Culture of the Word*, 98, 84-95. doi: [10.37919/0201-419X-2023.98.7](https://doi.org/10.37919/0201-419X-2023.98.7)
23. Kosoy, D. (2024, August 15). *Say "Palianytsia": How Ukraine Turned a Loaf of Bread into a Test to Spot Russian Saboteurs*. UNITED24 Media. <https://united24media.com/culture/say-palianytsia-how-ukraine-turned-a-loaf-of-bread-into-a-test-to-spot-russian-saboteurs-1714>
24. Kostusiak, N.M. (2024). [Linguistic, stylistic and pragmatic features of neo-derivatives and neographisms of the Russian-Ukrainian war period](#). In the experience of war. Media and discursive space of modern Ukraine (pp. 43-58). Warsaw: Warsaw University Publishers
25. Kramar, N., & Ilchenko, O. (2023). Neologisms in the media coverage of the Russia-Ukraine war in the context of information warfare. *Studies about Languages / Kalbų studijos*, 43, 14–28. <https://doi.org/10.5755/j01.sal.1.43.33284>
26. Kress, G. (2010). *Multimodality: A Social Semiotic Approach to Contemporary Communication*. Routledge.
27. Krymets O. Terminologization and deterrinologization as a result of the interaction between the linguistic and scientific worldviews / O. Krymets. *Bulletin of the National University "Lviv Polytechnic." Problems of Ukrainian Terminology*. 2015. No. 817. Pp. 36-40. URL: http://nbuv.gov.ua/UJRN/VNULPUT_2015_817_6
28. Kyiv Post. (2022, March 28). Criticism of the Red Cross mounts: Is it betraying its mandate? *Kyiv Post*. <https://kyivpost.com/article/opinion/op-ed/criticism-of-the-red-cross-mounts-is-it-betraying-its-mandate.html>
29. Lacock, W. [@wiumlacock]. (2025, April 5). *Excellent news Beautiful bavovna* [Post]. X. <https://x.com/wiumlacock/status/2011745869377540532?s=20>

30. Lakoff, G. (1991). Metaphor and war: The metaphor system used to justify war in the Gulf. *Peace Research*, 23(2/3), 25-32
31. Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors We Live By*. University of Chicago Press
32. Mächura, M. B. (2017). Introducing Lexonomy: An open-source, web-based dictionary writing and publishing system. In *Proceedings of the EURALEX International Congress* (pp. 473-481). University of Leiden
33. Makhachashvili R., Semenist I., Klochkov V. AI-Enhanced Multilingual Lexicography for Digital Communication. *The 16th International Multi-Conference on Complexity, Informatics and Cybernetics: IMCIC 2025*
34. Makhachashvili R., Semenist I. Linguistic Philosophy of Cyberspace. *SYSTEMICS, CYBERNETICS AND INFORMATICS*. 2021. T. 19. C. 191–207. ISSN 1690-4524
35. Makhachashvili, Rusudan, 2020, Cyber-speak Dictionary (ELEXIS), Slovenian language resource repository CLARIN.SI, ISSN 2820-4042, <http://hdl.handle.net/11356/1610>
36. Matsyuk, Halyna. 2022. Language and war in Ukraine: Unofficial names in the socio-group “Ukrainian military” as a marker of interpersonal communication. *Onoma* 57, 197–213. <https://doi.org/10.34158/ONOMA.57/2022/13>
37. Meylahn, J.-A. (2022). Ukraine war: A war of languages and bodies. *HTS Teologiese Studies/Theological Studies* 78(1). <https://doi.org/10.4102/HTS.V78I1.8005>
38. Multimodal Glossary of War (2026). [Lexonomy.eu](https://www.lexonomy.eu). <https://www.lexonomy.eu/da6j8tng>
39. Nevmerzhytskyi, I., Karpenko, V., & Povoroznyuk, R. (2021). Translation support model of the Ukrainian Armed Forces under the ongoing hybrid Russian warfare. *International Conference Knowledge-Based Organization*, 27(1), 95–101. <https://doi.org/10.2478/kbo-2021-0015>
40. Onet, A.-E., & Ciocoi-Pop, A.-B. (2022). Of battle and business: Military language in the corporate environment. *International Conference Knowledge-Based Organization*, 28(2), 213–218. <https://doi.org/10.2478/kbo-2022-0075>
41. Pham Ngoc Diem (2025). Application of the Multimodal Discourse Analysis Theory to the Teaching Listening and Speaking Skill. *South Asian Res J Art Lang Lit*, 7(2): 34-40
42. Povoroznyuk, R. V. (2016). Application of effort model by D. Gile as a prerequisite of successful interpretation, 3, 44-48. <https://tsj.journal.kspu.edu/index.php/tsj/article/view/344/223>
43. Rabus, A. Ukrainian linguistic creativity and decolonial resistance: a Twitter analysis. *Digi War* 6, 7 (2025). <https://doi.org/10.1057/s42984-025-00103-9>
44. Racek, D., Davidson, B.I., Thurner, P.W. et al. The Russian war in Ukraine increased Ukrainian language use on social media. *Commun Psychol* 2, 1 (2024). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s44271-023-00045-6>

45. Rathore, A. [@willeybanna]. (2025, October 1). *Boss dropped a nuke and left* [Post]. X. <https://x.com/willeybanna/status/1973342548287692845?s=20>
46. Routledge Handbook Of Critical Discourse Studies. (2020). Routledge.
47. Rudakova, A. (2024). News Framing of the Ukrainian-Russian War: A Comparative Analysis of Russian and American News Media. Graduate Theses and Dissertations Retrieved from <https://scholarworks.uark.edu/etd/5230>
48. Schneider, N., & Anastasopoulos, A. (2025). *Speaking of language: Reflections on metalanguage research in NLP*. arXiv. <https://arxiv.org/abs/2604.02645>
49. Scott, J. C. (1990). Domination and the Arts of Resistance. In *Domination and the Arts of Resistance* (pp. i–vi). Yale University Press. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt1np6zz>
50. Tepla, O. (2024). Word-forming models of neologisms of the Russian-Ukrainian war period. *International Journal of Philology*, 15(4), 63-76. <https://doi.org/10.31548/philolog/4.2024.63>
51. Tkachivska, M., Donii, T., Povoroznyuk, R., Kurakh, N., Buhrii, A., & Bilous, A. (2025). Exploring the sociolinguistic and semiotic aspects involved in translating culture-specific items in foreign language acquisition. *Revista Românească pentru Educație Multidimensională*, 17(1), 622-642. <https://doi.org/10.18662/rrem/17.1/968>
52. *Uadim* (2023, June 07). Wartime Memes. *Uadim.in.ua*. <https://www.uadim.in.ua/post/memy-pid-chas-viiny>
53. Woodruff, R. [@frontlinekit]. (2025, June 28). *DO NOT DONATE TO THE RED CROSS. DEAR GOD, 3.5 years in I shouldn't have to be saying this but the RED CROSS* [Post]. X. <https://x.com/frontlinekit/status/1973118965875445822?s=46&t=inYV9Pp45hy8bsOfVK2BIg>