Knowledge Map: Media Language

Summary:

This knowledge organiser looks at one quarter of the Media Studies Theoretical Framework. It covers how the media communicates with consumers. You'll need to use this along with your media terminology to prepare you for analysis of media products, including your CSPs.

Moving Ima Codes

Post-Codes Digital and P Production C

16

17

18

22

23

24 Enigma

CSPs that explore Media Language:	Online, Social, Participatory Media: Kim Kardashian: Hollywood Lara Croft GO Marcus Rashford	<u>Newspapers:</u> Daily Mirror The Times	Advertisements: Galaxy:Audrey Hepburn Lady Leshurr: Represent OMO: Post-War Britain	<u>Magazines:</u> Tatler Heat	TV and the Sci-Fi Genre: His Dark Materials Dr Who: An Unearthly Child	DON'T FORGET CONTEXTS! Social, Cultural,
Which exam/section are they in?	Online, Social, Participatory Media: Paper 1, Section A, B Paper 2, Section B	Newspapers: Paper 1, Section A, B Paper 2, Section B	Advertisements: Paper 1, Section A	Magazines: Paper 1, Section A	TV and the Sci-Fi Genre: Paper 2, Section A	Historical, Political!

Media Language Overview

Summary

You need to understand how the mass media gives messages through their products, and you need to consider what these meanings may be. You should be able to explore them using consistent media terminology.			
	Key Knowledge		
1	How the Media Communicates Meaning	The <u>mass media</u> communicates to a large number of people. The Internet/TV etc. does this quickly, but other forms, like print media are slower. How they communicate, is Media Language. The most simple way to demonstrate this is the <u>linear model of communication</u> (Sender-Message>Receiver). It shows that communication progresses along a line. However, this doesn't capture the interactive elements of communication. It's just passive; think of a conversation, for example. They require more than one person communicating.	
2	Making Meanings	Thinking beyond the linear model, we need to consider <u>semiotics</u> . This is the identification of <u>codes</u> and their meanings. Codes are communication systems with three elements: <u>signs</u> (anything that expresses meaning e.g. an image/sound etc.), <u>rules</u> (linking ideas in signs, such as grammar in sentences to ensure they make sense), and <u>shared understanding</u> (we must be able to interpret the code in the same way as others).	
3	Example: English as a Code	In our language, there are over 170,000 words. Think of what you could say when you were young, and how you communicate now. You move from single words ('cat', 'car' etc.) to linking phrases (e.g. 'there is a cat'). The grammar of sentences adds meaning. Although we get taught 'English' at school, we pick up a lot from others. Media codes work like this; we don't 'think' about them, we create meaning through putting signs together. Language evolves, but we have a shared understanding with other English speakers.	
4	How do Signs create Meaning?	If the sign is a word, and you don't know it, you can look it up easily. However, often words have multiple meanings. This makes them <u>ambiguous</u> , or unclear. To clarify the ambiguity, you need <u>context</u> . A 'bulb' for example, could provide light or be planted, depending on the context. Signs are not always as easy as words; you can't look up the meaning of an image in a dictionary. As well as written and spoken language, the mass media also uses still and moving images, colours, sounds, music, fashion, behaviour, facial expressions etc.	
5	Creating Meaning (Continued)	We make sense by storing meanings in our heads as we grow and experience things. Think again of language; you learn meanings as you grow. The learning curve is steeper when you are younger with less experience. Different cultures have different codes so you learn in context, and as you move between cultures you pick up new meanings and rules as you unlock new codes. In Media Studies, you have to learn to dissect these media products and their meanings in detail to work out the messages they are trying to convey.	

Introduction to Codes

This is a way studying signs and systems of rules, and codes which link the signs together to create

word, and the signified is a big, brown and green leafy thing. Now think of what a tree represents nature, growth, age, strength etc. This is a way of breaking down the <u>denotation</u> and <u>connotation</u>.

meaning. A sign always has two components: a signifier (form of the sign - see/hear/touch etc.) and the signified (the meaning, existing only in your head). Think of the word 'TREE'. This is the signifier, a

Summary

Codes are methods of giving meaning to an audience or consumer. There must be a shared understanding of what the codes mean. When you use semiotic analysis, there are many different codes you can analyse.

	are many american course you can analyse.				
	Key Knowledge				
7	Denotation and Connotation	<u>Denotation</u> is what is in the code, <u>connotations</u> are meanings you draw from it. Think of a butterfly; the denotation is a winged insect. The conotations include elegance, colourful, and being delicate. The connotations are not as simple or obvious. If a butterfly was used in an advert (think of the Debenhams make-up ad), and it says 'Natural Colour Combinations' in the text, the connotations it wants you to draw are focused on the idea of colour. Again, it shows we need context.			
8	Anchorage	Anchorage refers to the way that ambiguous meanings can be tied down for clarification. Think of your 'Galaxy' CSP, the slogan 'Why have cotton when you can have silk?' anchors the idea that Galaxy is a silky-smooth chocolate. Contrast with the advertising for Dairy Milk, which focuses on how milky it is and how it's good to share. Anchorage gives us context so meanings are clear.			
9	Symbols and Icons	These are two types of signs. <u>Symbols</u> don't look like the thing they stand for; words, flags etc. <u>Icons</u> are signs that resemble their meanings. Don't think of term 'iconic' in this context; that means someone famous and is a secondary meaning, showing why context is so important! Photographs are icons. Signs often communicate as both a symbol and an icon; think of a rose for example.			
10	Semiotics (continued)	Semiotics differ from the linear model of communication because they take the idea that the meaning has as much to do with the receiver as well as the sender. It refers to messages as texts and receivers as texts in different ways. Media producers try to avoid ambiguity in their messages but they cannot force an audience to take a certain meaning. This is not a case of right/wrong readings; factors such as race, religion, age, gender, ethnicity, class, religion etc. all influence how an audience may read a text.			
11	Non-Verbal Codes	These are codes other than languages, but we focus on human display and behaviour, sometimes called body language. We can break these down to: 1. <u>Dress and Appearance</u> which often links to social class, occupation, age and gender. 2. <u>Eacial Expressions/Gestures</u> ; different cultures have different meanings of gesture. 3. <u>Body Movement/Closeness</u> ; often difficult to interpret. being close to someone could be a warm gesture, or it could be intrusive - context is important! 4. <u>Paralanguage</u> ; pitch, tone, volume, pace etc.			
12	Print Codes	Page design is important to conveying meaning. Few elements on a page for example (or the use of white or positive and negative space) communicates a sense of things being upmarket and classy, whilst lots of elements may suggest excitement (i.e. bursting with info). Other techniques a superimposition (layering images to reinforce links), <u>utuatoposition</u> (placing elements togther to add meaning; e.g. a child and a puppy), use of <u>mastheads</u> , use of <u>serif</u> or <u>sans serif fonts</u> , and the <u>alignment</u> .			

on a page (the nine-box grid system and the rule of thirds).

Codes Continued

Codes vary in their content and complexity, and there are many different forms. You've already seen anchorage, symbols and icons, and non-verbal codes. The ones below continue our understanding of semiotic analysis and how we develop meaning.

Key Knowledge

Photographers use many techniques to add layers of meaning such as <u>lighting</u>, <u>composition</u>, <u>framing</u>, <u>camera position</u>, <u>lens types</u> and <u>length of exposure</u>. Consider also shot types: <u>Extreme close-up</u> (Eye),

13	Photogi Cod	<u>Big close-up</u> (Eyes), <u>Close-up</u> (face), <u>Medium close-up</u> (Top of shoulder upwards) <u>Medium shot</u> (Head ar torso to waist-ish), <u>long shot</u> (whole body), and <u>Wide Angle</u> (showing a wider view of the action, fitting multiple subjects in).
14	Com position	The <u>rule of thirds</u> divides an image into nine squares. Main subjects of interest in the image are aligned with the gridlines. The <u>rule of space</u> helps show still objects as in motion if space is left in front of the moving object. Diagonals give a sense of excitement of dynamism; this can be achieved by tilting the camera.
15	Focus and Lighting	The <u>depth of field</u> is the distance between the nearest and furthest points from the camera that are in focus. Think of a wide angle shot focusing on the stadium and crowd of a football match which would blur the actual football (greater depth), whereas a close-up on the action would use a shallower depth of field to focus on the players. Lighting use may create contrasts between light and dark to suggest mystery and intrigue etc. All of these print codes may be found in websites/social media, too.

Actors use non-verbal codes to convey meaning. Production codes in film add movement to Actors use non-versal codes to convey meaning, production codes in time and movement to photographic codes, like: <u>Establishing shot</u> (often wide-angled to establish setting etc.) <u>Pan</u> (fixed shot moving left or right through 180"), <u>Tilt</u> (fixed shot, moving up or down), <u>Zoom</u> (going closer/further from a subject), <u>Dollving</u> (camera moved in or out to follow action), <u>Tracking</u> (camera moved left or right to follow action), <u>Crane Shot</u> (crane/drones lift camera above action for dramatic purpose), <u>Point-of-view</u> (connects viewer to subject).

Depending on whether the product is live (like a sports event) or pre-recorded (like a film), different codes will be used. Whilst both types will cut between different camera angles, film uses <u>editing</u>, or how the shots are put together, to indicate elements like passage of time. A film rarely takes place over its runtime; events are <u>compressed</u> and editing is a code for showing that. <u>Continuity</u> (ensuring something makes sense) involves <u>cuts</u> (instant transition between shots), <u>crossfades</u> (or <u>mix</u> or dissolve) where shots fade into one another, and fade-ins/outs, bringing a shot from or to black.

These rules guide us through sequences of events. A key rule of continuity is that things progress in the order they're shown, so editing needs to make it clear to us if that is not the case; We also link by <u>cause</u> and <u>effect</u>; e.g. if we see erratic driving and then an injured person, we link the injury (effect) to the driving (cause). We fill the gaps of what is not shown (<u>ellipsis</u>). In products where continuity is not as nt, like music videos, producers may use techniques that are deliberately unusual or jarring as they're freer from convention

Dialogue, voiceovers, music and interviews add hugely to meaning in moving images. Sound can 'smooth' transitions. Sound and video tracks do not need to be cut at the same time. There are four types: 1. <u>Diegetic sound</u> (naturally occuring sound from what is on screen). 2.

Narrative

Summary

For Media Studies students, 'narratives' refer to all media products, not just what we would consider 'stories'. This is because they tell 'stories' in a way that is structured as a

Key Knowledge

S S		Non-diegetic sound ('soundtrack' added at the editing stage). 3. Wild sound (naturally occuring background noise, often recorded separately and added in the editing process). 4. <u>Heightened</u> <u>sound</u> (a piece of diegetic sound unnaturally amplified for effect e.g. the cocking of a gun).			
20	Narrative	All media products tell a story. Narrative is the way these stories are put together. Narratives deal with <u>causality</u> (why things happen), <u>time</u> (when things happen) and <u>space</u> (where things happen). We organise narratives in our lives e.g. think of how you would describe your day to someone. Events are not narrative, the telling of the story is.			
21	Todorov	Todorov studied fairy tales, discovering they progress forward in a chronological order. They have five elements. 1. Equilibrium (things are 'normal'). 2. <u>Disruption</u> ('normal' is upset) 3. <u>Recognition of disruption</u> (a solution to the disruption is sought) 4. <u>Repair</u> (attempts to 'sort' disruption) 5. <u>Things are now not disrupted</u> (not necessarily 'as they were', creating a <u>new equilibrium</u>). There are many ways of telling stories, but these elements often appear, and the audience can infer how the story progresses.			

Propp's narrative theory focuses on character, suggesting in 'quest' tales, there are various character <u>archetypes</u>: 1. <u>Hero</u> (agent of change). 2. <u>Villalin</u> (places obstacles in front of the hero, must be defeated in a climactic confrontation). 3. <u>Donor</u> (gives the hero something; weapon, info etc.), 4. Helper (Hero's trusted sidekick), 5. Dispatcher (gives hero the mission), 6. Princess (person/reward from completing the quest). 7. False hero (appears good but isn't).

Confrontation, Mystery and Action Narratives always try to keep the audience engaged. Some don't manage it, but there are methods that keep us focused. They are usually driven by confrontation; hero v villain is an obvious example. We may like the hero or dislike the villain because they represent values we approve or reject. They symbolise good versus evil, so think of qualities associated with a hero and why we would identify with them. Good v Evil is a binary opposition; other binary oppositions that can drive narratives could be wealth/poverty, present/past, city/country etc.

An enigma code is a mystery that draws the audience in. If a show opens with a body in a lake, we a and Codes want to know: how it got there, who it is, was it a murder, why were they killed etc. Writers structure their drama to gradually reveal information to keep viewers hooked. Action codes are also useful. These are a series of signs hinting at something happening, e.g. a hero is in a graveyard at night, an owl hoots in the silence, a twig snaps, a cloud blocks the moon, etc.