Parameters in Television Captioning for Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing Adults: Effects of Caption Rate Versus Text Reduction on Comprehension

Denis Burnham
MARCS Auditory Laboratories, University of Western Sydney

Greg Leigh
Royal Institute for Deaf and Blind Children and University of Newcastle

William Noble
University of New England

Caroline Jones
MARCS Auditory Laboratories, University of Western Sydney, and University of Wollongong

Michael Tyler
Leonid Grebennikov
MARCS Auditory Laboratories, University of Western Sydney

Alex Varley
Media Access Australia

Caption rate and text reduction are factors that appear to affect the comprehension of captions by people who are deaf or hard of hearing. These 2 factors are confounded in everyday captioning; rate (in words per minute) is slowed by text reduction. In this study, caption rate and text reduction were manipulated independently in 2 experiments to assess any differential effects and possible benefits for comprehension by deaf and hard-of-hearing adults. Volunteers for the study included adults with a range of reading levels, self-reported hearing status, and different communication and language preferences. Results indicate that caption rate (at 130, 180, 230 words per minute) and text reduction (at 84%, 92%, and 100% original text) have different effects for different adult users, depending on hearing status, age, and reading level. In particular, reading level emerges as a dominant factor: more proficient readers show better comprehension than poor readers and are better able to benefit from caption rate and, to some extent, text reduction modifications.

Television captions are a form of assistive text-based technology intended to make the auditory component of television accessible to viewers who are deaf or hard of hearing. Captions are also used as aids in noisy situations for viewers with normal hearing and for second-language speakers in educational or informational settings. In investigations of ideal rates of captioning, not only rate but also text reduction and viewer reading ability are important factors. (Other factors are difficulty level of the written material and the amount of information that can be obtained from the video rather than the captions.) The average captioning rate of U.S. television programs has been measured as 141 words per minute (wpm; Jensema, 1996). In one U.S. study 145 wpm was judged the “most comfortable” rate by hearing, hard-of-hearing, and deaf adults, although caption reading rate reportedly increases with regular caption use (Jensema, 1998). In one U.S. study 145 wpm was judged the “most comfortable” rate by hearing, hard-of-hearing, and deaf adults, although caption reading rate reportedly increases with regular caption use (Jensema, 1998). Reading speed data are available, they suggest that the reading speeds of deaf and hard-of-hearing viewers are typically slower than those for hearing viewers. For instance, in the United States, reading speeds of 116 wpm (range = 56–167) have been found for deaf and hard-of-hearing children and 135 wpm (range = 94–201) for deaf and hard-of-hearing people aged 17–20 years (Shroyer & Birch, 1980). These are lower than the average captioning rate of U.S. programs

This research was administered by the University of Western Sydney in collaboration with the Australian Caption Centre, Australian Hearing, and the Royal Institute for Deaf and Blind Children. The authors wish to thank Helen Brown, Sharan Westcott, Jim Brown, and Donna-Mae Schwarz at Australian Hearing for arranging for hearing tests for participants, as required; Chris Mikul, Lydia Venetis, Philip Bilton-Smith, and Gordon Dickinson at the Australian Caption Centre for captioning the videotapes used in these studies, providing instruction for MARCS Auditory Laboratories research assistants, and providing AUSLAN interpretation as required; and all the participants for their precious time and cooperation. A.V. was at the Australian Caption Centre at the time the study was conducted. No conflicts of interest were reported. Correspondence should be sent to Denis Burnham, MARCS Auditory Laboratories, University of Western Sydney, Locked Bag 1797, Penrith South DC, New South Wales 1797, Australia (e-mail: d.burnham@uws.edu.au).
and lower than typical caption rates in Australia, where the Australian Caption Centre (ACC) standard allows for verbatim caption rates of around 180 wpm.

In general, hearing status and literacy tend to covary. In a recent U.S. study, the median reading comprehension level (scaled scores on the Stanford Achievement Test, 9th edition) of deaf and hard-of-hearing students aged 15 years was comparable to the reading comprehension level of hearing students aged 8–9 years (Karchmer & Mitchell, 2003). In Australia, reading comprehension levels among deaf and hard-of-hearing students have previously been shown to be considerably lower than those for the hearing population. Walker and Rickards (1992) found that 58% of school-age deaf students in their Australian sample were reading below grade level.

The known literacy difficulties of deaf and hard-of-hearing people have important implications for television captioning. Stewart (1984) showed that just 58% of a deaf sample understood captions most of the time. Jelinek Lewis and Jackson (2001) attempted to compare caption comprehension by deaf and hearing students with the same range of reading grade level, but in the final sample, deaf students had a lower standardized reading grade level than hearing students. It was found that students with higher standardized reading grade level showed better comprehension of captions and were also better at generalizing information and using prior knowledge to answer the test questions.

For viewers with relatively low literacy, such as many deaf and hard-of-hearing people, the true accessibility of captions remains understudied, although practical efforts have been made to address the issue. One practice intended to promote the comprehension of captions has been to reduce caption rate. Rate reduction is a practice that has historically fallen in and out of favor and has mainly been employed for children’s programs. From a technical viewpoint, caption rate is necessarily related to the text structure of the captions; caption providers reduce caption rate by simplifying the text syntactically (by shortening sentences and rearranging phrases) and/or semantically (by eliminating words that are judged less necessary). In everyday practice, this means that effects of reduced caption rate cannot be distinguished from effects of text reduction, as noted by Baker (1985). Hence, in practice, it is unclear whether the perceived advantage of reduced caption rate is a product of the rate reduction or the adjustments that are made to the text structure to achieve that rate.

Findings to date regarding text reduction are equivocal and are limited to deaf and hard-of-hearing children. Although there is some evidence that text reduction improves comprehension (Boyd & Vader, 1972; Braverman, 1981; Braverman & Hertzog, 1980), other research on text reduction/simplification indicates that comprehension is better for unreduced text, possibly because reduced text tends to undermine textual cohesion (Ewoldt, 1984; Israelite & Helfrich, 1988), and tends to be inexplicit, thus reducing any facilitative effects of vocabulary and context (Sundbye, 1987; Yurkowski & Ewoldt, 1986).

The aim of this article was to test for the effects of caption rate and text reduction on comprehension by deaf and hard-of-hearing adults independently. Caption rate and text reduction were manipulated independently by varying the amount of time captions were displayed, thus allowing separate assessment of the effects and possible benefits of varying these two parameters. By means of these experimental manipulations and given the range of hearing, signing, and English reading abilities of the participants who are studied here, the differential effect of caption rate and text reduction can be partialled out, to allow more exact determination of whether previous reduced rate advantages are due to the rate reduction per se or due to the adjustments that are made to the text structure to achieve that reduction (Baker, 1985) and to provide a guide for future caption production techniques.

Experiment 1 investigated whether comprehension of relatively complex text is affected by pure caption rate variation (with no text reduction) and whether there is any relationship between comprehension at different caption rates and reading levels or hearing status. This differs from and improves on a previous study by Jensema (1998) in which moving videos of still posters were taken in order to vary the caption speed. Thus, this study controlled the caption speed perfectly, but in an unrepresentative situation. Marrying experimental control and ecological validity will
always be an issue in this area, but we have been able to make a good combination of the two here.

Experiment 2, with a similar group of deaf and hard-of-hearing adult participants, investigated whether text reduction (without variation in caption rate, i.e., unaccompanied by greater “eyeball” time) affected comprehension for viewers with different reading levels and hearing status.

In general, comprehension performance was expected to be related to reading level (better comprehension for more proficient readers) and hearing status (lower comprehension for participants with greater degrees of hearing loss). It was anticipated that less proficient readers should have better comprehension at slower rates and poorer comprehension at faster caption rates. The question of whether there were any differences between the effects of caption rate and text reduction was an open question, as was the effect of text reduction for different viewers, although there is reason to expect differences in rate of caption use on the basis of hearing level and sign language use (see Burnham et al., 2002).

Experiment 1: Effect of Caption Rate on Comprehension

Method

Design. A 2 (reading level: more vs. less proficient readers) × 2 (hearing status: deaf vs. hard of hearing, identified using self-report data on hearing level) × 3 (caption rate: 130, 180, or 230 wpm) factorial design, with repeated measures on the last factor, was employed. The dependent variable was percent correct in response to a comprehension questionnaire completed by participants after viewing the corresponding captioned television program.

Participants. A total of 45 hard-of-hearing and deaf adults were recruited from the Sydney region from among respondents to a television caption-use survey in 2000 (Burnham et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2008) and through newspaper advertisements. The former subgroup was originally recruited through the mailing list of the ACC newsletter Supertext News. Participants were reimbursed for their travel expenses.

The group of 45 was partitioned in terms of self-reported degree of hearing difficulty (deaf and hard of hearing) and in terms of reading level (less vs. more proficient). Twenty-two participants, identified for the purposes of this description as “deaf,” indicated in response to a question on the original caption-use survey (readministered to all participants at the time of testing) that they “can’t hear” in both right and left ears. This group comprised 16 females and 6 males and ranged in age from 25 to 82 years, with a mean of 49.5 years (SD = 17.8 years), and all had grown up in an English-speaking country. Of this group, 11 used Auslan (Australian Sign Language) for communication—seven exclusively and four in addition to auditory–oral communication (including the use of hearing aids or devices). Another 11 participants reported the use of auditory–oral communication with the assistance of lipreading and/or the use of hearing aids or cochlear implant. Of the 22 participants identified as deaf, 14 were identified as less proficient readers and 8 as more proficient readers (see below for description of reading measure and procedure for grouping participants with respect to reading proficiency).

Another 23 participants, identified for the purposes of this description as “hard of hearing,” indicated in responses to the caption-use survey that they had some degree of hearing in at least one ear. Of this group, 21 used a hearing aid or cochlear implant and 2 reported using no hearing aid or cochlear implant. Four reported some use of Auslan. The hard-of-hearing group comprised 14 females and 9 males and ranged in age from 24 to 79 years, with a mean of 58.6 years (SD = 15.9 years). Twenty-one participants in this group were monolingual in English, one had a non-English-speaking background, and one participant was bilingual in English and another spoken language. Of the 23 participants identified as hard of hearing, 8 were identified as less proficient readers and 15 were more proficient readers (see below).

To assess effects of reading level, the participants were grouped as “more proficient” or “less proficient” readers, above or below the 50th percentile on the Woodcock Total Reading, Short Scale cluster, respectively. The less proficient readers (n = 22) were predominantly those in the deaf group (63.6%, n = 14) and more proficient readers (n = 23) predominantly those in the hard-of-hearing group (65.2%, n = 15). In line with this, standard reading scores were higher for hard-of-hearing participants (mean = 105.13,
Once the six potential stories were selected, sets of short-answer comprehension questions were prepared for each, and the (uncaptioned) materials were piloted on 40 hearing undergraduates. Questions referred only to material in which the speakers’ lips were not visible. On the basis of responses to these questions, the potential list of stories was cut from six to four, and many of the more difficult questions were excluded or modified, resulting in a second set of questions, which included some multiple-choice questions. These were then piloted on a total of 12 new participants (including the first four authors of this article). This revealed a good spread of scores and allowed the selection of the final three stories. Based on the results of these two pilot tests, the questions were equated approximately for difficulty across the three stories. Nevertheless, as all three passages are used in each reading speed condition, any slight differences between lists are controlled for. A comprehension questionnaire was devised for each documentary, which included both multiple-choice and open-ended questions for each of the three documentaries (6 and 8 of each, respectively for, Documentary 1, Building Indemnity; 12 and 4 of each, respectively, for Documentary 2, Fish Fight; and 7 and 6 of each, respectively, for Documentary 3, Water Conservation). Thus, there was a total of 25 multiple-choice and 18 open-ended questions. All questions related to material in which the speakers’ lips were not visible. Sample multiple-choice and open-ended questions for each of the three stories are given in Appendix A.

The three stories were each captioned by the ACC, reducing the text such that the reading rate was 120 wpm, with a 10% tolerance (captioners usually caption right up to this 10% tolerance limit, and indeed the resultant median caption rate was 129 wpm). At this 130-wpm level, there was no variation in rate across the three stories—rates were 129, 129, and 129 for stories 1, 2, and 3, respectively. Two additional caption rates of 180 wpm (resultant median rates of 179, 180, and 179 wpm for the three stories) and 230 wpm (resultant median rates of 229, 231, and 228 wpm for the three stories) were created by reducing the presentation time of each caption on the screen (i.e., increasing the required reading rate for each word). These rates were chosen as being around the norm (180 wpm), relatively slower (130 wpm),

\[SD = 15.35\] than for deaf participants (mean = 93.91, SD = 18.49), \(t(40.8) = -2.21, p = .033\).

In order to investigate communication and language preferences, participants were also grouped for later analysis purposes in terms of their communication and language preferences. Fifteen participants reported using Auslan to some extent: seven had “Auslan only” as their communication and language preference and a further eight reported using Auslan as a supplement or alternative to auditory–oral communication (including the use of hearing aids or devices). The other 30 participants in the sample reported they did not use Auslan. The Auslan group (4 males, 11 females) had a mean age of 59.2 years (SD = 18.5 years); and the non-Auslan users (11 males, 19 females) had a mean age of 44.0 years (SD = 14.3 years). The Auslan group had lower standard reading scores (mean = 87.33, SD = 14.88) than the non-Auslan group (mean = 105.80, SD = 15.83). In terms of reading proficiency, 3 of the Auslan group were classified as more proficient and 12 as less proficient readers, and of the non-Auslan group, 20 were classified as more and 10 as less proficient readers.

Materials.

Captioned material and response questionnaires. Three short television documentaries were selected from the Australian Broadcasting Corporation’s Stateline series ("Building Indemnity," "Fish Fight," and "Water Conservation") and copyright clearance was obtained to use these stories from the national editor of ABC News/Current Affairs. These were chosen from a total of 30 Stateline stories before arriving at six candidates that were cut down to the final three as a result of pilot testing—see below. The criteria for choosing these six candidates were that (a) stories were from outside the state of New South Wales (the state in which the study was conducted), in an effort to ensure that topics would be relatively unfamiliar to all participants; (b) no offensive, potentially disturbing, or controversial material was included; (c) there were minimal talking-head shots (i.e., as much voice-over as possible); (d) excerpts were not shorter than 4 min in duration and not longer 10 min (the final ones chosen were between 5 and 8 min); and (e) there were similar levels of activity and engagement across excerpts.

Three short television documentaries were selected from the Australian Broadcasting Corporation’s Stateline series ("Building Indemnity," "Fish Fight," and "Water Conservation") and copyright clearance was obtained to use these stories from the national editor of ABC News/Current Affairs. These were chosen from a total of 30 Stateline stories before arriving at six candidates that were cut down to the final three as a result of pilot testing—see below. The criteria for choosing these six candidates were that (a) stories were from outside the state of New South Wales (the state in which the study was conducted), in an effort to ensure that topics would be relatively unfamiliar to all participants; (b) no offensive, potentially disturbing, or controversial material was included; (c) there were minimal talking-head shots (i.e., as much voice-over as possible); (d) excerpts were not shorter than 4 min in duration and not longer 10 min (the final ones chosen were between 5 and 8 min); and (e) there were similar levels of activity and engagement across excerpts.

Once the six potential stories were selected, sets of short-answer comprehension questions were prepared for each, and the (uncaptioned) materials were piloted on 40 hearing undergraduates. Questions referred only to material in which the speakers’ lips were not visible. On the basis of responses to these questions, the potential list of stories was cut from six to four, and many of the more difficult questions were excluded or modified, resulting in a second set of questions, which included some multiple-choice questions. These were then piloted on a total of 12 new participants (including the first four authors of this article). This revealed a good spread of scores and allowed the selection of the final three stories. Based on the results of these two pilot tests, the questions were equated approximately for difficulty across the three stories. Nevertheless, as all three passages are used in each reading speed condition, any slight differences between lists are controlled for. A comprehension questionnaire was devised for each documentary, which included both multiple-choice and open-ended questions for each of the three documentaries (6 and 8 of each, respectively for, Documentary 1, Building Indemnity; 12 and 4 of each, respectively, for Documentary 2, Fish Fight; and 7 and 6 of each, respectively, for Documentary 3, Water Conservation). Thus, there was a total of 25 multiple-choice and 18 open-ended questions. All questions related to material in which the speaker’s lips were not visible. Sample multiple-choice and open-ended questions for each of the three stories are given in Appendix A.

The three stories were each captioned by the ACC, reducing the text such that the reading rate was 120 wpm, with a 10% tolerance (captioners usually caption right up to this 10% tolerance limit, and indeed the resultant median caption rate was 129 wpm). At this 130-wpm level, there was no variation in rate across the three stories—rates were 129, 129, and 129 for stories 1, 2, and 3, respectively. Two additional caption rates of 180 wpm (resultant median rates of 179, 180, and 179 wpm for the three stories) and 230 wpm (resultant median rates of 229, 231, and 228 wpm for the three stories) were created by reducing the presentation time of each caption on the screen (i.e., increasing the required reading rate for each word). These rates were chosen as being around the norm (180 wpm), relatively slower (130 wpm),
and relatively faster (230 wpm) as compared with typical caption rates for Australian documentary-style programs in English. The videos were recorded on VHS videotape for presentation during testing. There were nine documentary–rate combinations. To address carry-over effects, order of presentation of these documentary–rate combinations was counterbalanced across participants in a Latin square design.

Measure of reading level. The Total Reading, Short Scale cluster (Word Identification and Passage Comprehension subtests, Woodcock Test kit, Form G), was used to estimate global reading level.

Measure of functional visual acuity. The ACC created a VHS videotape with 18 single-meaning English words captioned one at a time on a neutral gray background, with no audio.

Procedure. All participants were offered the services of an accredited Auslan interpreter for the duration of the testing session as required. Acceptance of this offer was consistent with stated language and communication preferences. Testing was conducted in a quiet room in a “lounge room” environment, with a 63-cm flat-screen color television positioned between two 1.8 m × 1.5 m portable acoustic screens in front of a large couch. Each person first provided biographical information and informed consent and then participated in the functional test of visual acuity. For the acuity test they were asked to read words presented on the screen and to say or sign them. Participants were encouraged to ask to have the television moved closer or further away from the couch to obtain the most comfortable viewing distance. When these preliminaries had been completed, they watched the three captioned documentaries (with the sound turned off). Immediately after each documentary, each participant completed a comprehension questionnaire and was invited to indicate whether they agreed/disagreed with a fixed set of statements regarding the caption speed, the comprehension questions, and their strategies for answering them. Participants were also given the option of making one open-ended comment, which was coded as broadly positive or broadly negative. Finally, after viewing all three documentaries, participants completed the Woodcock Total Reading, Short Scale cluster. Testing was completed in a single individual session, which lasted between 1.05 and 1.45 hr.

Results

Comprehension accuracy by hearing status and reading level. Caption comprehension accuracy is shown in Figure 1 as a function of self-described hearing status and reading level. The accuracy data across the three caption rates were analyzed using a $2 \times 2 \times 3$ analysis of variance (ANOVA) with hearing status and reading level as between-subjects factors and caption rate as a repeated-measures factor. There was no significant main effect of caption rate, $F(2, 82) = 0.52, p = .59$, or hearing status, $F(1, 41) = 0.65, p = .42$. However, comprehension scores were higher for more proficient (mean = 43.6, $SD = 16.7$) than less proficient readers (mean = 29.3, $SD = 16.5$), $F(1, 41) = 8.43, p = .006$.

There were no two-way interactions, but the three-way interaction of caption rate × hearing status × reading level was significant, $F(1, 41) = 3.42, p = .04$, indicating that the effect of caption rate varied depending on both hearing status and reading level. As can be seen in Figure 1, the advantage afforded by being a more proficient reader differs according to hearing status and caption speed. Post hoc $t$ tests of more versus less proficient readers were performed for all caption rates for both deaf and hearing participants, using a Games and Howell (1976) adjustment, which is appropriate to control for Type 1 error when sample size is unequal (Games, Keselman, & Rogan, 1981). Among the deaf participants there was a tendency for better comprehension for more proficient readers than less proficient readers at 130 and 180 wpm. Among hard-of-hearing participants, there is no difference between comprehension scores of the more and less proficient readers at 130 and 230 wpm, but the comprehension scores of the more proficient readers were higher than those of less proficient readers at 180 wpm.

The relationship between age and comprehension at different caption rates is also of interest. Pearson product–moment correlations were $-14$ at 130 wpm, $4$ at 180 wpm, and $-27$ at 230 wpm. Although these are not significant at any caption rate, there is a tendency for older participants to have...
better comprehension than younger participants at the 180-wpm caption rate but not at the faster or slower rate.

Comprehension accuracy by communication and language preference. In addition to analyzing comprehension as a function of self-reported hearing level, data were also analyzed as a function of the participants’ communication and language preferences.

Figure 2 shows comprehension scores by communication and language preference for the three caption rates. It appears that Auslan users have similar comprehension scores to non-Auslan users, and this was confirmed by the Friedman and Mann–Whitney U tests (nonparametric tests were used due to imbalance in cell sizes). There were no significant effects of caption rate for the Auslan group, $\chi^2(2, N = 15) = 0.53, p = .766$, or the non-Auslan group, $\chi^2(2, N = 30) = 2.47, p = .291$; and no differences between the two groups in Mann–Whitney U tests at 130 wpm, $U(N_1 = 15, N_2 = 30) = 186.0, p = .347$; 180 wpm, $U(N_1 = 15, N_2 = 30) = 212.5, p = .763$; or 230 wpm, $U(N_1 = 15, N_2 = 30) = 217.0, p = .85$.

Participants’ comments as a function of hearing status. The frequency of comments by participants is insufficient for chi-square statistical analysis (for many cells $n < 5$), and so these data are discussed qualitatively. As indicated by the frequency of comments (Table 1), participants, as a whole, reported a preference for slower caption rates; at the 130-wpm rate, participants were least likely to report that the captions were “too fast”. None of the participants (deaf or hard of hearing) reported that the captions were “too slow” at any caption rate, and the proportion of positive comments was highest for the 130-wpm rate. In less than half of cases, the questions were rated as “difficult” and this did not vary appreciably by hearing status or caption rate. Participants were slightly more likely to report that they had guessed “a little” for the 180-wpm rate and “a lot” for the 130-wpm rate.

Participants’ comments as a function of communication and language preference. Participants’ comments on caption rate, question difficulty, and their answering
Table 1  Frequency of comments (percentage) in Experiment 1 by hearing status and caption speed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Deaf (n = 22)</th>
<th>Hard of hearing (n = 23)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130 wpm</td>
<td>180 wpm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The captions are too fast</td>
<td>4 (18.2) 5 (22.7) 10 (25.5)</td>
<td>5 (21.7) 5 (21.7) 12 (52.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The captions are too slow</td>
<td>0 (0) 0 (0) 0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0) 0 (0) 0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive comment</td>
<td>8 (36.4) 5 (22.7) 2 (9.1)</td>
<td>5 (21.7) 2 (8.7) 1 (4.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The questions are difficult</td>
<td>7 (31.8) 7 (31.8) 8 (36.4)</td>
<td>6 (26.1) 4 (17.4) 2 (8.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had to guess a little</td>
<td>5 (22.7) 11 (50.0) 7 (31.8)</td>
<td>5 (21.7) 7 (30.4) 3 (13.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had to guess a lot</td>
<td>4 (18.2) 2 (9.1) 1 (4.5)</td>
<td>7 (30.4) 5 (21.7) 4 (17.4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2  Frequency of comments (percentage) in Experiment 1 by language preference and caption speed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Auslan users (n = 15)</th>
<th>Non-Auslan users (n = 30)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130 wpm</td>
<td>180 wpm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The captions are too fast</td>
<td>2 (13.3) 2 (13.3) 5 (33.3)</td>
<td>7 (23.3) 7 (23.3) 17 (56.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The captions are too slow</td>
<td>0 (0) 0 (0) 0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0) 0 (0) 0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive comment</td>
<td>6 (40.0) 4 (26.7) 1 (6.7)</td>
<td>7 (23.3) 3 (10.0) 2 (6.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The questions are difficult</td>
<td>6 (40.0) 5 (33.3) 5 (33.3)</td>
<td>7 (23.3) 6 (20.0) 5 (16.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had to guess a little</td>
<td>3 (20.0) 7 (46.7) 3 (20.0)</td>
<td>7 (23.3) 11 (36.7) 7 (23.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had to guess a lot</td>
<td>3 (20.0) 1 (6.7) 0 (0)</td>
<td>8 (26.7) 6 (20.0) 5 (16.7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Experiment 2: Effect of Text Reduction on Captions Comprehension

Experiment 2 investigates the effect of text reduction, without variation in caption rate, on comprehension by deaf and hard-of-hearing participants.

Method

Design. A 2 (reading level: more vs. less proficient readers) × 2 (hearing status: deaf vs. hard of hearing, identified using self-report data on hearing level) × 3 (text reduction—verbatim: 100% of spoken text, moderate: 92% of original text, and strict: 84% of original text), that is, the same design as in Experiment 1, except that text reduction was the within subjects variable rather than caption rate. As for Experiment 1, dependent variable was percent correct in responses to a comprehension questionnaire completed by participants after viewing the corresponding captioned television program.

Participants. A total of 39 deaf and hard-of-hearing adults took part in Experiment 2. Of these, 31 had participated in Experiment 1 and 8 had not. Using the same criteria as in Experiment 1, 18 were identified as deaf and 21 as hard of hearing. Of the deaf participants, seven used Auslan only, four used Auslan with speech (and a hearing aid), and a further seven reported the exclusive use of oral communication. Of the hard-of-hearing participants, 16 reported the exclusive use of oral communication (15 reported the use of a hearing aid or cochlear implant and 1 used no aid) and 5 acknowledged the use of some Auslan together with the use of speech and hearing aid.

The deaf group (4 males, 14 females) ranged in age from 26 to 82 years (mean = 49.8 years, SD = 16.6 years) and the hard-of-hearing group (6 males, 15 females) ranged in age from 20 to 81 years (mean = 56.7 years, SD = 19.3 years). All deaf participants and 19 of the hard of hearing had grown up in English-speaking countries. The hard-of-hearing group included one person who was bilingual in English and another language and one person with a non-English-speaking background.

To assess effects of reading level, the participants were assigned to more proficient and less proficient reader groups, as in Experiment 1. Less proficient readers (n = 17) predominantly included those who were classified as deaf (76.5%, n = 13) and more proficient readers (n = 22) predominantly those who were hard of hearing (77.3%, n = 17). There was more variability in reading level within the deaf group, but standard reading scores were higher for the hard-of-hearing (mean = 110.3, SD = 10.2) than for deaf participants (mean = 93.1, SD = 17.6), t(26.4) = 3.6, p = .001.

Materials and procedure. Six documentaries from the Australian Broadcasting Corporation’s Stateline series were initially selected. They were selected based on their potential to be captioned verbatim at approximately 180 wpm. As for Experiment 1, these were on topics likely to be unfamiliar to the participants, and as in Experiment 1, there was a selection process involved in order to equate difficulty of the passages and the questions. The final clips chosen were Maritime Museum (duration = 5.00 min), Save the Bilby (5.30 min), and Huon Supply (7.42 min).

Each of the three documentaries was captioned with three levels of text reduction: 100%, 92%, and 84% of original text. The 100% condition was verbatim captioning, which ACC normally does for documentaries at approximately 180 wpm. The moderate text reduction condition (92% mean original text, range = 90.7%–92.4%) was achieved by applying the ACC text reduction standard that would normally apply if the caption rate were to exceed 190 wpm if captioned verbatim. Details of these standards used by the ACC are not available to the public so cannot be detailed here. In addition to these standards, the moderate text reduction condition was achieved by substituting contractions (e.g., “don’t” for “do not”), omitting redundant words and phrases (e.g., “in terms of,” “I guess that,” “at the end of the day”), shortening phrases (e.g., “in a similar fashion” becomes “similarly”), and simplifying sentences (e.g., “It is going to be the pride of Western Australia” becomes “It will be the pride of Western Australia”). Most of this text reduction was semantic rather than syntactic. The strict text reduction condition (mean = 84%, range = 83.7%–85.5%) was achieved by applying the same
strategies as for the 92% condition, but more vigorously. This rate was found to be the greatest reduction possible with the current materials, while still retaining the gist of the text.

Caption rate was kept at 180 wpm across all three conditions with 10% tolerance, by adjusting the period of time for which each caption was displayed. This process tended to extend the gaps between captions to some extent in each of the two reduced text versions. This was deemed to be unproblematic because a large proportion of the time in each documentary comprised passages where a narrator spoke in the background and there was no risk of mismatch between a speaker and the captions. When there were “talking-head” shots, unsynchronized passages were made as balanced and inconspicuous as possible. For example, if a character began talking before their actual appearance on the screen, the caption was held off screen until the speaker appeared.

A comprehension questionnaire was developed for each of the three documentaries. As for the comprehension questionnaire in Experiment 1, the questions were designed specifically for the material and were pilot tested in two waves. Each questionnaire contained 14 items (Maritime Museum, 7 multiple-choice, 7 open-ended questions; Save the Bilby, 7, 7; and Huon Supply, 6, 8), plus there was space for optional comments at the end of each questionnaire. (Sample multiple-choice and open-ended questions for each of the three stories are given in Appendix B.) Finally, at the end of each documentary, participants were also invited to agree or disagree with a fixed set of statements regarding the caption speed, synchronization, and ease of use. Participants were also invited to make an open-ended comment which was coded as broadly positive or broadly negative. To address carry-over effects, presentation order and reduction conditions were counterbalanced between participants in a Latin square design.

The Woodcock Total Reading, Short Scale Cluster, and a visual acuity test were used as in Experiment 1. The testing setup and the procedure were the same as for Experiment 1.

Results

Comprehension accuracy by hearing status and reading level. Figure 3 shows comprehension accuracy at the three levels of text reduction, for participants grouped by hearing status and reading level. As can be seen for deaf participants, more proficient readers had higher mean scores than less proficient readers, especially in the strict text condition. However, a 2 × 2 × (3) ANOVA with hearing status and reading level as between-subjects factors and text reduction as a repeated measure revealed no significant main effects of text reduction, $F(2, 70) = 0.563, p = .572$; reading level, $F(1, 35) = 1.70, p = .20$; or hearing status,
Neither the two-way interactions nor the three-way interaction was significant.

Comprehension accuracy by communication and language preference. Of the 39 participants, 16 were Auslan users (3 male, 13 female; mean age $\bar{X} = 42.9$ years [$SD = 18.0$ years]; mean standard reading score $= 92.13$ [$SD = 14.17$]), and 23 were non-Auslan users (7 male, 16 female; mean age $= 61.0$ years [$SD = 14.5$ years]; mean standard reading score $= 109.52$ [$SD = 14.11$]). Figure 4 shows comprehension accuracy for the different text reduction levels, by Auslan use. Friedman tests revealed no significant effects of text reduction for the Auslan group, $\chi^2(2, N = 16) = 3.460, p = .177$, or the non-Auslan group, $\chi^2(2, N = 23) = 0.681, p = .711$. There was similarly no difference between the two groups in Mann–Whitney $U$ tests for strict text reduction, $U(N_1 = 16, N_2 = 23) = 159.0, p = .475$; moderate text reduction, $U(N_1 = 16, N_2 = 23) = 128.0, p = .110$; or verbatim captioning, $U(N_1 = 16, N_2 = 23) = 169.5, p = .679$.

Participants’ comments as a function of hearing status. Owing to the small number of comments, few generalizations can be made about participants’ subjective reactions across text reduction conditions. Table 3 summarizes comments by participant hearing status. The proportion of positive comments is similar for deaf and hard-of-hearing groups. A minority reported that the captions were “too fast/faster than in other videos” (even in strict and moderate text reduction conditions) and just one person reported that the captions were too slow (deaf, strict text reduction). A minority in the deaf group reported that it was “hard to remember details, missed some” and this was true in all text reduction conditions.

Participants’ comments as a function of communication and language preference. Table 4 sets out comments by communication and language preference. The proportion of positive comments is similar for both groups. Slightly more non-Auslan users than Auslan users made positive comments in the strict text reduction condition. Participants in both groups were more inclined to report that captions were “too fast/faster than in other videos” than “too slow/slower than in other videos,” even in strict and moderate text reduction conditions.

Discussion

The results do not support the notion that our isolated use of text reduction, while keeping rate constant, improves comprehension in television captions. Although there is a tendency for deaf people who are more proficient readers to have better comprehension with greater text reduction, there was no significant
difference in comprehension accuracy for texts captioned verbatim or with moderate or strict reduction. This is true for both deaf and hard-of-hearing participants and more proficient and less proficient readers. There is also no effect of text reduction on comprehension for Auslan users versus non-Auslan users.

**General Discussion**

One of the main findings of this series of experiments is that more proficient readers comprehend captions better than do less proficient readers. In Experiment 1, more proficient readers showed higher comprehension than less proficient readers. Although this may seem to be an obvious finding, it is important to note this given that the literacy rates of deaf people are low compared to those of otherwise matched hearing people. Similar results have also been obtained by Jelinek Lewis and Jackson (2001), who found that reading grade level was highly correlated with caption comprehension test scores, and comprehension test scores of students who are deaf were consistently below the scores of hearing students. Given these results both here and in Jelinek, Lewis, and Jackson (2001) and the fact that communication preference (Auslan vs. non-Auslan use) had little effect on comprehension or caption preferences here, it appears that there should be much more emphasis on reading level than communication preference in future studies of caption use.

In Experiment 1 for deaf participants there was a selective rather than a general effect of caption rate on comprehension: slower rates tended to assist more proficient readers, but not less proficient readers. There seem to be two possible reasons for this. First, even 130 wpm may be insufficiently slow to benefit viewers with slower reading speeds (deaf participants did generally have poorer reading speed). This is supported by the more proficient deaf readers’ better comprehension at slower caption rates. Slow rates also elicited the highest proportion of positive comments. Indeed, Experiment 2 provided additional evidence of the beneficial effect of a slower caption rate and of text reduction upon comprehension of captions by deaf viewers. More proficient readers had better comprehension than did less proficient readers with greater text reduction, although the difference was not statistically significant. Second, rate may not be the only factor affecting deaf readers’ difficulty with television captions.

Hard-of-hearing participants appear to be affected by caption rate and text reduction in a different way to deaf participants. More proficient hard-of-hearing readers have better comprehension at 180 than 230 wpm, whereas less proficient readers have better comprehension at 230 than 180 wpm. This may be due to more proficient readers being relatively older and/or perhaps having relatively greater experience with documentary captions at around 180 wpm rather than at faster rates. The reason for the effect with less proficient readers is unclear. It may be that the less proficient readers effect their own text reduction by picking out key words, but this or any other explanation requires further research.

The potential “audience” for captioned materials (including likely relative reading ability) is clearly something that needs to be considered. The relative complexity (reading difficulty) of material that is presented clearly impacts upon the comprehensibility of captions for a significant proportion of the target consumer group—people with hearing loss. This presents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4</th>
<th>Frequency of comments (percentage) in Experiment 2 by language preference and caption speed</th>
<th>Auslan (n = 16)</th>
<th>No Auslan (n = 23)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strict</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Verbatim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive comment</td>
<td>2 (12.5)</td>
<td>3 (18.8)</td>
<td>3 (18.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Captions are too fast/faster than in other videos</td>
<td>3 (18.8)</td>
<td>1 (6.3)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Captions are too slow/slower than in other videos</td>
<td>1 (6.3)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words don’t come up while talking, not captioned word-for-word</td>
<td>1 (6.3)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>7 (43.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard to remember details, missed some</td>
<td>2 (12.5)</td>
<td>3 (18.8)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
a real issue, for closed captioning of “free-to-air” broadcast material and also for captioning of widely distributed material for public consumption such as DVD recordings of popular movies and programs for which the range of potential consumers and potential reading abilities will be very broad. Unless there is some consideration of the complexity of the captions, there will likely be some significant impact on the comprehension of those captions by a proportion of the target audience. These considerations would seem to be particularly important in educational contexts where material may be captioned with the intention of making curriculum-based information available to learners. In this context, the results of these studies are of particular interest given the type of material used—video documentaries, with a need to remember the material. In this case, the rates of correctly remembered material were quite low—around 25% for less proficient readers and 50% for more proficient readers. As no comparisons between different sorts of video material were included here, it would be of interest to follow this up in future studies.

In summary, two experiments were conducted involving separate manipulation of caption rate and text reduction unaccompanied by more eyeball time. There are effects of captions rate, but these are not straightforward; they depend on hearing status and reading level. Comprehension does improve as a function of reading speed, and caption rate reductions selectively improve comprehension by more proficient readers: hard-of-hearing more proficient readers were best at the medium rate, 180 wpm, and deaf more proficient readers were best at the slowest rate, 130 wpm.

Thus, it may be concluded that the propensity to benefit from caption rate modifications depends very much on being a more proficient reader. There are also indications in the data from Experiment 2 that the propensity to benefit from text reduction modifications may depend on being a more proficient reader, but this requires further research. In this regard it should be noted that, for the sake of experimental control caption rate and text reduction (along with the use of silent presentations) were used here. These manipulations have advanced our understanding of these two factors on caption comprehension, but future studies may be designed to be somewhat more ecologically valid. For example, a further study in which both caption rate and text reduction were employed in a composite condition would be instructive. Irrespective of the outcome of such future studies, it is clear from the current results that reading proficiency will probably be important in any manipulation involving captions in future studies.

As the results show that the benefits of captions depend very much on various factors inherent in the user, two options are open for recommendations for future caption use: (a) to select caption rates and text reduction methods that suit the majority of the viewers under the majority of circumstances or (b) to provide individual tailoring of caption delivery. With regard to the first option, the fact that there is no main effect of caption rate on comprehension and that people tended to prefer the slower rate (130 wpm) suggest that this is the rate that should be used. Additionally, as there was no main effect of text reduction level (down to the minimum rate of 84% used here), then it could well be recommended that such a caption reduction rate would be acceptable for documentaries spoken at a high rate. Such across-the-board recommendations are of course the easiest to implement, both in terms of cost and technology. However, as there are interactions of various factors (hearing loss, reading level) with caption rate, if cost were no object then the second, individual tailoring option noted above could be followed. Recent advances in digital technology offer the possibility that, in future, viewers will be able to select from a range of captioning parameters to suit their own needs (cf. Kirkland, 1999). If such an individual tailoring approach is to be adopted, it is then the challenge of future research to determine what these needs are for different sections of the caption-viewing community (deaf, hard-of-hearing, and other caption users) and the challenge of advocates of captioning to ensure the funds for such options are available, so to increase the accessibility of captions for all sections of the viewing public.

Funding

Australian Research Council Industry Linkage Grant (LP0219614 to D.B., G.L., and W.N.).
Appendix A: Example Questions for the Three Stories in Experiment 1

Table A  Examples of (a) multiple-choice and (b) open-ended comprehension questions for the stories in Experiment 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Story</th>
<th>Multiple-choice example</th>
<th>Open-ended example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Building Indemnity</td>
<td>How many years has it taken Greg to build up his business from nothing? a) 1, b) 4, c) 7, d) 10.</td>
<td>According to Greg Reilly, what is the great Aussie dream?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish Fight</td>
<td>What was the name of the program designed to clean up Moreton Bay? a) Sunaqua, b) Environment Integration Systems, c) The Healthy Waterways program, d) Clean Up Moreton Bay.</td>
<td>How much did local councils spend to repair the damage?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water Conservation</td>
<td>What has Perth’s longstanding water scarcity turned into? a) A crisis, b) a drought, c) a shortage, d) a deficit.</td>
<td>Water runoff has reduced by what percentage in the last century?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix B: Example Questions for the Three Stories in Experiment 2

Table B  Examples of (a) multiple-choice and (b) open-ended comprehension questions for the stories in Experiment 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Story</th>
<th>Multiple-choice example</th>
<th>Open-ended example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maritime Museum</td>
<td>Architect Steve Goodall grew up doing what? a) Discovering and diving on old shipwrecks, b) Studying Italian architecture, c) Working on the wharves of a port, d) Boating on the Swan River</td>
<td>How high is the new Maritime Museum?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Save the Bilby</td>
<td>How many bilbies are going to be released in Currawinya National Park? a) 14, b) 21, c) 40, d) 200</td>
<td>How long has Peter McCrae been saving rare Australian species?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huon Supply</td>
<td>For how long did Dave Roberts have a contract with Forestry Tasmania? a) 6 years, b) 10 years, c) 16 years, d) 20 years.</td>
<td>According to Dave Roberts, what maximum percentage of timber could be recovered?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note

1. For example, for the 180-wpm condition, the display time is 180 wpm; if there were three words in the caption, it would be presented for 1 s and six words would be presented for 2 s. Thus, text-reduced captions were presented for a shorter period of time so that the participants still had the same amount of time to read each word, and the caption rate in terms of number of words on the screen to be read in a certain time period remained constant.

References


Received November 10, 2007; revisions received January 30, 2008; accepted January 30, 2008.