

12-31-2022

Ability of the Australian general public to identify common emergency medical situations: Results of an online survey of a nationally representative sample

Brennen W. Mills
Edith Cowan University

Michella G. Hill
Edith Cowan University

Alecka K. Miles
Edith Cowan University

Erin C. Smith
Edith Cowan University

Eben Afrifa-Yamoah
Edith Cowan University

See next page for additional authors

Follow this and additional works at: <https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ecuworks2022-2026>



Part of the [Public Health Commons](#)

[10.1016/j.auec.2022.04.002](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.auec.2022.04.002)

This is an Authors Accepted Manuscript version of an article published by Elsevier in *Australasian Emergency Care*. Mills, B. W., Hill, M. G., Miles, A. K., Smith, E. C., Afrifa-Yamoah, E., Reid, D. N., ... & Sim, M. G. (2022). Ability of the Australian general public to identify common emergency medical situations: Results of an online survey of a nationally representative sample. *Australasian Emergency Care*, 25(4), 327-333. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.auec.2022.04.002>

This Journal Article is posted at Research Online.
<https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ecuworks2022-2026/1484>

Authors

Brennen W. Mills, Michella G. Hill, Alecka K. Miles, Erin C. Smith, Eben Afrifa-Yamoah, David N. Reid, Shane L. Rogers, and Moira G. B. Sim

© 2022. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0
license <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

1 ABSTRACT

2 **Objective:** To investigate the Australian general public's ability to identify common medical
3 emergencies as requiring an emergency response.

4 **Methods:** An online survey asked participants to identify likely medical treatment pathways
5 they would take for 17 hypothetical medical scenarios (eight emergency and nine non-
6 emergency). The number and type of emergency scenarios participants correctly suggested
7 warranted an emergency medical response was examined. Participants included Australian
8 residents (aged >18 years; n=5,264) who had never worked as an Australian registered medical
9 doctor, nurse or paramedic.

10 **Results:** Most emergencies were predominately correctly classified as requiring emergency
11 responses (e.g. Severe chest pain, 95% correct). However, non-emergency medical responses
12 were often chosen for some emergency scenarios, such as a child suffering from a scalp
13 haematoma (67%), potential meningococcal disease (57%), a box jellyfish sting (40%), a
14 paracetamol overdose (37%), and mild chest pain (26%). Participants identifying as Aboriginal
15 or Torres Strait Islander suggested a non-emergency response to emergency scenarios 40%
16 more often compared with non-indigenous participants.

17 **Conclusions:** Educational interventions targeting specific medical symptoms may work to
18 alleviate delayed emergency medical intervention. This research highlights a particular need
19 for improving symptom identification and healthcare system confidence amongst Aboriginal
20 and Torres Strait Islander populations.

21

22 KEYWORDS

23 Ambulance; Emergency; Emergency Department; Recognition; Symptom

24

25

26 INTRODUCTION

27 The Australian healthcare system ranks amongst the best in the world with respect to access,
28 equity and healthcare outcomes.¹ While still there are substantial challenges facing Australian
29 healthcare, particularly given the ongoing rise in emergency department (ED) overcrowding²
30 and ambulance ramping³ which limit access to emergency healthcare services in the
31 community,⁴ typically the Australian general populace will have access to emergency
32 healthcare should they require it. In the event of a medical emergency necessitating
33 immediate/near-immediate emergency intervention, the average person can call Triple Zero
34 (000) and request assistance from paramedics via an emergency ambulance. Alternatively,
35 people can self-present to a hospital ED.

36

37 The contention that patients should have the right to access emergency healthcare when they
38 feel the need is commonplace.⁵ However, given the ongoing and extreme demands placed on
39 emergency healthcare services in Australia,⁶ many discourage the use of emergency healthcare
40 services as far as possible for lower acuity conditions.⁷ Undoubtedly an appropriate balance
41 needs to be struck between risk aversion (i.e. engaging with emergency healthcare services for
42 medical situations that may be low-acuity in nature) which may unnecessarily tie-up
43 emergency healthcare service resources when they could be freed up for more high-acuity
44 conditions, and emergency healthcare service avoidance which has the capacity to exacerbate
45 medical situations.

46

47 People may choose to not engage with emergency healthcare services due to factors such as
48 perceived or known costs,⁸ fear of infectious disease transmission,⁹ medical distrust,¹⁰ or
49 simply not realising a particular set of circumstances necessitates emergency medical

50 intervention, oftentimes first trying to remedy situations themselves or through other less
51 timely primary care pathways (e.g. General Practice).¹¹

52

53 A number of common emergency medical situations such as stroke,¹² acute myocardial
54 infarction¹³ and sepsis¹⁴ have been demonstrated to have been poorly identified as emergencies
55 by members of the general public. While community education efforts¹² and large-scale public
56 health information campaigns¹⁵ can work to improve awareness, knowing where best to target
57 education efforts is paramount.

58

59 We sought to gauge the extent to which a nationally representative sample of Australians could
60 identify common emergency medical situations and suggest utilisation of an appropriate
61 medical emergency pathway.

62

63 **METHODS**

64 Participants

65 Prospective participants included any Australian resident aged greater than 18 years who was
66 not currently nor had ever before worked as an Australian registered medical doctor, nurse or
67 paramedic. Participants were recruited through an online market research company
68 *PureProfile*, which maintains an active membership list of more than one hundred thousand
69 Australians who have signed up to complete online surveys and other forms of market research
70 for small financial reimbursement.

71

72 Ethics Approval

73 Ethics approval was granted by the Edith Cowan University Human Research Ethics
74 Committee (#2020-01958).

75

76 Materials

77 *Recognition of emergency medical situations*

78 Participants were presented with 17 hypothetical medical scenarios (Table 1) re-purposed from
79 a previous Australian investigation¹⁶ exploring the general public's ability to correctly
80 categorise emergency versus non-emergency medical scenarios. A panel of prehospital and/or
81 emergency medicine clinicians (n=5; personal contacts of the research team) reached 100%
82 consensus on their interpretation of whether scenarios warranted an emergency (i.e. call an
83 ambulance or attend an ED) or non-emergency healthcare response pathway.¹⁶ This process
84 involved the clinical panel meeting with members of the research team as a group, in-person
85 and were presented with each of the 17 scenarios. Following presentation of a scenario,
86 clinicians were asked to (confidentially) write down whether they felt the scenario should or
87 should not warrant an emergency medical response. Where responses were not 100%
88 unanimous across the panel, research team members were to facilitate discussion until
89 consensus was reached.

90

91 Of the 17 scenarios, eight were identified as emergencies by the clinician panel, and the
92 remaining nine were considered non-emergencies. For the present research study, the nine
93 'non-emergency' scenarios were hidden amongst 'emergency' scenarios and displayed to study
94 participants as 'red herrings' to make distinguishing the emergency medical scenarios less
95 obvious. Scenario display order was universal across study participants; however, all 17
96 scenarios were randomly mixed to provide a finalised scenario display order.

97

98 The panel also expressed concern over the ability of members of the general public to
99 contextualise scenario characteristics based on text alone and suggested combining scenario

100 text with graphical images. Incorporation of images alongside text improves comprehension of
101 information being presented, particularly amongst those with low literacy.¹⁷ Thus, graphical
102 images of each medical scenario were presented alongside scenario text. Photos were either
103 sourced from stock photos (Dreamstime.com), or original creations taken with a 12-megapixel
104 wide-angle camera found on an Apple iPhone X (Cupertino, California) taken by members of
105 the research team. Original images created by the research team utilised unpaid personal
106 contacts, who provided written consent for the images to be employed as part of the research.

107

108 In response to each of the 17 scenarios, participants could choose from a list of nine pre-
109 determined options (standardised across scenarios; Table 2) they believed they would likely
110 undertake should they be presented with each scenario in real life. For the eight ‘emergency’
111 scenarios, calling 000 for an ambulance or attending the ED were coded as (correct) emergency
112 response options, with all others coded as (incorrect) non-emergency response options.
113 Participants were also provided an ‘Other’ option allowing them to type in open-ended
114 responses if they felt their response would differ from one of those already provided. Open-
115 ended responses were coded as (correct) emergency responses options if participants indicated
116 calling for an ambulance or attendance at an ED. All other legible responses were coded as a
117 non-emergency response option.

118

119 All medical scenarios, corresponding images and response options were piloted with a sample
120 of 15 personal contacts of the research team who met study inclusion criteria, ensuring equal
121 spread across gender, age and residence location (i.e. metropolitan versus rural). No
122 misinterpretations of medical symptoms, images or response pathways were noted as a result
123 of this pilot process.

124

125 Table 1. Non-emergency and emergency scenario text presented to participants

	Scenario number	Short scenario Title	Full scenario text
Non-emergency scenarios	2	Flu	A 45-year-old male has flu-like symptoms. He has a mild fever, cough, headache, runny nose and feels tired.
	4	Older person bruising	A 77-year-old woman knocks herself against the kitchen table, and a large bruise immediately appears on her thigh.
	6	Lego in ear canal	A 4-year-old girl has a Lego piece stuck in her ear canal.
	7	Stubbed toe	A 25-year-old male is playing football with his friends in his backyard with his bare feet. He stubs his toe on a brick. There is blood and he suggests it is throbbing quite painfully.
	10	Alcohol intoxication	A 22-year-old male is conscious, not injured and has drunk a substantial amount of alcohol on a night out.
	11	Woman in labour	A 33-year-old woman is 9 months pregnant and goes into early stages of labour. Her waters have broken, and she feels uncomfortable.
	12	Back pain	A 40-year-old man with a 6-month history of back pain wakes up in the middle of the night with a sore back and has run out of pain killers. The man is in quite a bit of pain.
	14	Cut finger	A 42-year-old man has cut his finger while chopping vegetables, and the bleeding is controlled with pressure.
Emergency Scenarios	1	Box Jellyfish sting	Whilst in Northern Queensland, a boy is stung by a Jellyfish while swimming at the beach, and large welts appear on his arm.
	3	Snake bite (unidentified)	A 50-year-old woman has been bitten on her ankle by an unidentifiable snake.
	5	Mild chest pain	A 40-year-old woman is experiencing mild chest pain. She does not think it is indigestion or a strained muscle.
	8	Stroke	A 67-year-old man is slurring his words; he has not drunk any alcohol.
	9	Severe chest pain	A 52-year-old man has severe chest pain, is sweating and grey in colour.
	13	Paracetamol overdose	A 32-year-old female has taken 10 regular paracetamol tablets in the last 12 hours, and is feeling extremely unwell. She has abdominal pain and feels nauseous.
	15	Child head haematoma	A 3-year-old boy has fallen off the couch and bumped his head. He began crying immediately and a golf-ball size lump with a bruise promptly appears.
	16	Potential meningococcal disease	A 4-year-old girl has woken up with a high temperature, feels hot to touch, has a really sore neck and a headache which Panadol is not relieving.
	17	Older person hip pain	A 80-year-old woman fell out of bed, is now unable to get up and is complaining of hip pain on her right side.

126

127

128 Table 2: Scenario response options provided to participants

Call 000 for an Ambulance
Go to the Emergency Department
Make an appointment to visit a GP
Talk to a pharmacist
Make an appointment at a COVID clinic
Call Healthdirect or Nurse-On-Call
Provide first aid
No immediate action but monitor situation
Other

129

130 *Demographics*

131 Participants were asked their age, gender, whether or not they identified as Aboriginal or Torres
132 Strait Islander, their highest level of education, whether they lived in a metropolitan or rural
133 setting, their employment status, household annual income, whether or not they had any
134 dependent children, whether or not they suffered from any chronic illness or had a disability.
135 Participants were also asked to complete the Brief Emotional Experience Scale (BEES)¹⁸ as a
136 measure of emotional wellbeing. The BEES, validated amongst 326 Australian adults,
137 comprises of three positive (Happy, Calm, Confident) and three negative (Worried, Sad,
138 Afraid) emotional adjectives rated on a four-point scale (1) Not at all (2) A little bit (3) Quite
139 a bit (4) A lot. An overall emotional wellbeing score is calculated by summing across the
140 positive and negative adjectives separately and then subtracting the negative score from the
141 positive score. The overall score can range from negative nine to positive nine where a higher
142 score indicates greater emotional wellbeing.¹⁸

143

144 Procedure

145 Participants were sent an invitation to participate in the research through their online
146 *Pureprofile* account. Eligible *Pureprofile* members already enrolled to receive online surveys
147 through their online portal account select which surveys they complete from a list of available
148 options. Survey invitations give no indication of survey content or corresponding organisations

149 involved. Members choose which surveys they will or will not complete based on
150 approximated survey length and financial reimbursement.

151

152 The online survey was active from November 19 to December 2, 2020, facilitated through the
153 *Qualtrics* survey platform. Upon completion of the survey, *Pureprofile* facilitated financial
154 reimbursement for participant's time to the value of AUD \$4.20. Estimated time to complete
155 the survey was 20 minutes.

156

157 Analysis

158 The number of emergency scenarios correctly attributed an emergency response was calculated
159 (scored out of nine). Descriptive statistics were calculated and significant differences within
160 groups determined using t-tests and one-way ANOVAs. Generalised linear modelling
161 assuming binomial distribution (link= logit) was used to study the relationships between key
162 demographic variables and the number of emergency scenarios correctly identified as
163 warranting an emergency medical response.

164

165 RESULTS

166 A total of 6,723 individuals began the online survey. Of these, 109 did not proceed past the
167 first page containing a detailed participant information letter. A further 30 were removed for
168 identifying as under 18 years of age, a further 112 for not being an Australian resident, and a
169 further 752 for suggesting they had previously worked in Australia as a registered doctor, nurse
170 or paramedic. Lastly, a further 89 were removed as they completed demographic information
171 only. This left a final sample of 5,631 eligible participants. A total of 5,264 participants
172 provided data for all 17 scenarios. Given no significant differences were noted across any
173 demographic factors (e.g. age, gender, income, BEES score) for those that did and did not

174 provide responses to all 17 medical scenarios, missing data was deemed missing completely at
 175 random and subsequently removed. Demographics for the final sample are outlined in Table 3.

176

177 Table 3: Final sample demographics with correct categorisations of emergency scenarios

Demographics	N (%)	Mean (SD)	p-value
<i>Gender</i>			<0.001
Male	2232 (42.7)	6.30 (2.04)	
Female	3018 (57.3)	6.44 (1.61)	
Missing	14 (0.3)	-	
<i>Age</i>			< 0.001
18-35	1415 (26.9)	5.77 (1.90)	
36-55	1725 (32.8)	6.17 (1.92)	
56+	2124 (40.3)	6.96 (1.44)	
<i>State or Territory</i>			<0.001
Australian Capital Territory	91 (1.7)	6.33 (1.75)	
New South Wales	1523 (28.9)	6.42 (1.90)	
Northern Territory	7 (0.1)	6.14 (1.47)	
Queensland	1040 (19.8)	6.58 (1.67)	
South Australia	554 (10.5)	6.51 (1.55)	
Tasmania	127 (2.4)	6.34 (1.82)	
Victoria	1318 (25.0)	6.32 (1.80)	
Western Australia	604 (11.5)	5.97 (1.96)	
<i>Aboriginal/ Torres Strait</i>			<0.001
Yes	162 (3.1)	4.33 (2.88)	
No	5065 (96.2)	6.44 (1.72)	
Missing	37 (0.7)	-	
<i>Residency</i>			< 0.001
Metropolitan	4088 (77.7)	6.28 (1.85)	
Regional	1176 (22.3)	6.72 (1.61)	
<i>Relationship status</i>			<0.001
Married	2725 (51.8)	6.40 (1.87)	
De facto	702 (13.3)	6.33 (1.63)	
Single	1634 (31.0)	6.31 (1.79)	
Missing	203 (3.9)	-	
<i>Level of education</i>			< 0.001
Did not graduate High school	470 (8.9)	6.88 (1.55)	
High school	1069 (20.3)	6.70 (1.62)	
Trade or TAFE	1548 (29.4)	6.60 (1.61)	
Undergraduate	1391 (26.4)	6.09 (1.88)	
Postgraduate	786 (14.9)	5.73 (2.13)	
<i>Income earner</i>			<0.001
Yes	2996 (56.9)	6.15 (1.87)	
No	2166 (41.1)	6.72 (1.64)	

<i>Income***</i>			< 0.001
\$1 - \$10,399	107 (2.3)	6.34 (2.17)	
\$10,400 - \$15,599	70 (1.5)	6.16 (1.89)	
\$15,600 - \$20,799	141 (3.0)	6.65 (1.52)	
\$20,800 - \$31,199	474 (10.0)	6.75 (1.63)	
\$31,200 - \$41,599	386 (8.1)	6.76 (1.56)	
\$41,600 - \$51,999	454 (9.6)	6.63 (1.66)	
\$52,000 - \$64,999	440 (9.3)	6.36 (1.81)	
\$65,000 - \$77,999	427 (9.0)	6.40 (1.83)	
\$78,000 - \$ 103,999	781 (16.5)	6.26 (1.84)	
\$104,000+	1467 (30.9)	6.08 (1.88)	
Missing	517 (9.8)	-	
<i>Children under 18</i>			< 0.001
Yes	1502 (28.5)	5.96 (2.06)	
No	3762 (71.5)	6.54 (1.67)	
<i>Chronic condition</i>			0.567
Yes	1863 (35.4)	6.62 (1.83)	
No	3401 (64.6)	6.25 (1.78)	
<i>BEES-Total score</i>			<0.001
Positive score	3112 (70.5)	6.48 (1.73)	
Zero score	1191 (13.2)	6.11 (2.02)	
Negative score	961 (16.3)	6.38 (1.74)	
<i>Disability</i>			< 0.001
Yes	674 (12.8)	6.41 (2.18)	
No	4525 (86.0)	6.38 (1.74)	

178 * Bold text denotes significant association at 5% level of significance

179

180 The most common emergency scenarios for which a non-emergency response was selected
181 were ‘Child head haematoma’ (67.4%), ‘Potential meningococcal disease’ (56.8%), ‘Box
182 Jellyfish sting’ (40.1%), ‘Paracetamol overdose’ (36.9%) and ‘Mild chest pain’ (25.9%) (Table
183 5). Of those participants not suggesting an emergency response to the ‘Child head haematoma’
184 scenario (n=3546, 67.4%), almost a third (n=1096, 30.9%) suggested they would take no
185 immediate action. A further 24% (n=845) suggested they would administer first aid, and 25%
186 (n=878) suggested they would make an appointment with a GP. For the ‘Potential
187 meningococcal disease’ scenario, 42% (n=1,260) of participants who did not choose an
188 emergency response suggested they would make an appointment with a GP. A further 30%
189 (n=888) would place a call to Healthdirect (or similar) and 19% (n=564) would attend a
190 COVID-19 testing clinic. With respect to the ‘Box Jellyfish sting’ scenario, more than half

191 (n=1,302, 57%) of participants who did not choose an emergency response suggested they
192 would apply first aid in response. A further 14% (n=299) would call Healthdirect (or similar)
193 and 13% (n=275) would make an appointment with a GP. For those not suggesting an
194 emergency response to the 'Paracetamol overdose' scenario, calling Healthdirect (or similar)
195 was the most common response (n=1,043, 54%), followed by making a booking with a GP
196 (n=499, 26%). Lastly, 45% (n=613) of participants not suggesting an emergency response to
197 the 'Mild Chest Pain' scenario chose to make a booking with a GP. In addition, 30% (n=412)
198 chose to place a call to Healthdirect (or similar).

199

200

201 Table 4 – Number and proportion of response options for each Emergency scenario

Scenario number	Scenario Title	Emergency responses			Non-emergency responses						
		Call 000	Go to ED	Total Emergency	GP	Pharmacist	COVID clinic	Healthdirect	First aid	No action	Total Non-Emergency
1	Box Jellyfish sting	2183 (41.5%)	971 (18.4%)	3154 (59.9%)	275 (5.2%)	135 (2.6%)	37 (0.7%)	299 (5.7%)	1203 (22.9%)	155 (2.9%)	2110 (40.1%)
3	Snake bite	3637 (69.1%)	1014 (19.3%)	4651 (88.4%)	118 (2.2%)	26 (0.5%)	23 (0.4%)	79 (1.5%)	340 (6.5%)	27 (0.5%)	613 (11.6%)
5	Mild Chest Pain	2985 (56.7%)	913 (17.3%)	3898 (74.1%)	613 (11.6%)	28 (0.5%)	72 (1.4%)	412 (7.8%)	46 (0.9%)	195 (3.7%)	1366 (25.9%)
8	Stroke	4090 (77.7%)	686 (13.0%)	4776 (90.7%)	245 (4.6%)	33 (0.6%)	23 (0.5%)	109 (2.1%)	29 (0.6%)	48 (0.9%)	488 (9.3%)
9	Severe chest pain	4635 (88.1%)	342 (6.5%)	4977 (94.5%)	93 (1.8%)	32 (0.6%)	46 (0.9%)	63 (1.2%)	34 (1.2%)	19 (0.4%)	287 (5.5%)
13	Paracetamol overdose	1493 (28.4%)	1846 (35.1%)	3339 (63.4%)	499 (9.5%)	137 (2.6%)	0 (0.0%)	1043 (19.8%)	33 (0.6%)	213 (4.0%)	1925 (36.6%)
15	Child head haematoma	348 (6.6%)	1370 (26.0%)	1718 (32.6%)	878 (16.7%)	54 (1.0%)	0 (0.0%)	673 (12.8%)	845 (16.1%)	1096 (20.8%)	3546 (67.4%)
16	Potential meningococcal	628 (11.9%)	1647 (31.3%)	2275 (43.2%)	1260 (23.9%)	81 (1.5%)	564 (10.7%)	888 (16.9%)	62 (1.2%)	134 (2.5%)	2989 (56.8%)
17	Older person hip pain	4530 (86.1%)	274 (5.2%)	4804 (91.3%)	179 (3.4%)	26 (0.5%)	21 (0.4%)	143 (2.7%)	55 (1.0%)	36 (0.7%)	460 (8.7%)

203 The mean score (out of 9) for the number of emergency scenarios for which participants
 204 correctly suggested they would call 000 for an ambulance or attend an ED was 6.38
 205 (SD=1.80). Table 4 depicts the results of the multivariate analysis demonstrating the impact
 206 of demographic variables on suggestions of emergency responses to emergency scenarios.
 207 Females were 3% better able to suggest an emergency response to emergency scenarios than
 208 males. Participants aged 36–55 years and 56+ years were 7% and 17% better (respectively) at
 209 correctly suggesting emergency responses compared to those aged 18–35 years.

210

211 Those living in rural/remote locations were 4% better able to identify emergency responses
 212 compared to those living in metropolitan locations. Additionally, there was a 29% reduction in
 213 the odds of suggesting correct emergency responses among participants who identified as
 214 Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islanders compared to those who did not identify as such.
 215 Lastly, those with a university qualification were 9% less able to correctly suggest an
 216 emergency response to emergency scenarios.

217

218 Table 5: Results of multivariable binomial model predicting demographic factors contribution
 219 to number of emergency scenarios for which emergency response pathways (i.e. ‘Call 000 for
 220 an ambulance’ or ‘Go to the ED’) were not chosen

Demographics	Estimate (SD)	Adj. odds (95% CI)	p-value
<i>Gender</i>			
Male	(ref)	(ref)	
Female	0.032 (0.015)	1.03 [1.00, 1.06]	0.036
<i>Age</i>			
18-35	(ref)	(ref)	
36-55	0.066 (0.020)	1.07 [1.03, 1.11]	<0.001
56+	0.155 (0.023)	1.17 [1.12, 1.22]	<0.001
<i>Aboriginal/ Torres Strait</i>			
Yes	(ref)	(ref)	
No	0.335 (0.048)	1.40 [1.27, 1.54]	<0.001
<i>Residency</i>			
Metropolitan	(ref)	(ref)	
Regional	0.040 (0.017)	1.04 [1.01, 1.08]	0.020

<i>Relationship status</i>			<0.001
Married	(ref)	(ref)	
De facto	0.030 (0.023)	1.03 [0.98, 1.08]	0.199
Single	0.007 (0.019)	1.01 [0.97, 1.04]	0.721
Other	-0.001 (0.038)	1.00 [0.93, 1.08]	0.979
<i>Completed University</i>			
Yes	(ref)	(ref)	
No	0.067 (0.016)	1.07 [1.04, 1.10]	<0.001
<i>Income earner</i>			
Yes	(ref)	(ref)	
No	0.003 (0.018)	1.00 [0.97, 1.04]	0.887
<i>Income***</i>			
\$1 - \$10,399	(ref)	(ref)	
\$10,400 - \$15,599	-0.051(0.080)	0.95[0.81, 1.11]	0.527
\$15,600 - \$20,799	-0.010(0.067)	0.99[0.87, 1.13]	0.884
\$20,800 - \$31,199	-0.021(0.056)	0.98[0.88, 1.09]	0.704
\$31,200 - \$41,599	-0.006(0.057)	0.99[0.89, 1.11]	0.920
\$41,600 - \$51,999	-0.006(0.056)	0.99[0.89, 1.11]	0.918
\$52,000 - \$64,999	-0.026(0.057)	0.97[0.87, 1.09]	0.647
\$65,000 - \$77,999	-0.004(0.057)	1.00[0.89, 1.11]	0.941
\$78,000 - \$ 103,999	-0.005(0.055)	1.00[0.89, 1.11]	0.921
\$104,000+	-0.009(0.054)	0.99[0.89, 1.10]	0.865
<i>Children under 18</i>			
Yes	(ref)	(ref)	
No	0.018 (0.020)	1.02 [0.98, 1.06]	0.352
<i>Chronic condition</i>			
Yes	(ref)	(ref)	
No	-0.035 (0.017)	0.97 [0.93, 1.00]	0.037
<i>BEES-Total score</i>			
Positive score	(ref)	(ref)	
Zero score	-0.026 (0.020)	0.97 [0.94, 1.01]	0.156
Negative score	0.004 (0.020)	1.00 [0.97, 1.05]	0.848
<i>Disability</i>			
Yes	(ref)	(ref)	
No	0.044 (0.024)	1.05 [1.00, 1.11]	0.068

* Bold text denotes significant association at 5% level of significance

221

222

223 DISCUSSION

224 This research built upon a previous Australian investigation,¹⁶ utilising a more rigorous study
225 methodology, providing further data strengthening the argument that the Australian general
226 public experiences some difficulty in identifying some emergency medical symptoms. This

227 research also provides novel findings pertaining to certain demographic characteristics that
228 may most benefit from targeted education initiatives for medical emergency recognition.

229

230 Overall, men were slightly less adept at correctly suggesting emergency scenarios warranted
231 an emergency response. This result aligns with previous research suggesting men are less likely
232 to utilise healthcare services (including emergency healthcare services), whilst at the same time
233 participating in more high-risk behaviours.¹⁹ This is particularly true of younger men [20], also
234 aligning with our data suggesting younger participants were less likely to correctly suggest
235 emergency responses to emergency scenarios than older participants. Of particular note was
236 the finding that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander participants suggested emergency
237 responses to emergency scenarios far less than non-Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander
238 participants. Interestingly, previous research suggests the proportion of ED presentations
239 amongst Aboriginal Australians is high compared to general population proportions,²¹ but also
240 that Aboriginal Australians are more likely to leave EDs before receiving treatment. This may
241 reflect experience of racism in healthcare as well as avoidance of healthcare until late in the
242 disease due to mistrust and/or expectation of poor treatment.²² Improving health literacy
243 through interventions co-designed with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander community
244 members, as well as working with health professionals to improve cultural empathy and
245 communication about healthcare may work to improve confidence with and knowledge of
246 when to engage with emergency healthcare services amongst these cohorts.²³

247

248 This research identified several emergency scenarios that are oftentimes miscategorised as not
249 warranting an emergency response by calling 000 for an emergency ambulance or attending an
250 ED by the Australian general public. ‘Child head haematoma’, ‘Potential meningococcal
251 disease’, ‘Box Jellyfish sting’, ‘Paracetamol overdose’ and ‘Mild chest pain’ each were

252 misclassified as non-emergencies by more than 25% of the study sample. These results align
253 with a previous Australian investigation from which study scenarios were originally derived
254 from, with ‘Child head haematoma’, ‘Potential meningococcal disease’, ‘Box Jellyfish sting’
255 and ‘Paracetamol overdose’ similarly often being miscategorised as non-emergencies in that
256 study.¹⁶ Such misclassifications can lead to individuals receiving delayed care in potentially
257 life-threatening medical emergencies.

258

259 In the present study, the ‘Child head haematoma’ scenario (i.e. child with a head haematoma
260 following a fall off a couch who cried immediately after impact), was the most heavily
261 incorrectly classified emergency scenario (67% suggesting non-emergency response pathway).
262 Interestingly, participants who had at least one dependent child were (9%) less likely to suggest
263 the scenario warranted an emergency response compared to participants with no dependent
264 children ($p<0.001$). Of additional interest was that more than half the participants did not
265 choose to consult with a health professional of any kind in response to this scenario (30.9%
266 suggested ‘No immediate action but monitor the situation’ and 24% suggested ‘Provide first
267 aid’). While it is true most children who present with a scalp haematoma will not have a
268 clinically significant head injury, the presence of a scalp haematoma in seemingly minor head
269 injuries has been found to increase the likelihood of intracranial injury [24].

270

271 A child with a high temperature, neck pain and persistent headache all of which were unrelieved
272 by paracetamol (i.e. ‘Potential meningococcal disease’), another child-related scenario, was
273 also heavily misclassified (57% suggesting non-emergency response pathways). Again,
274 participants with a dependent child were (7%) less likely to suggest an emergency response
275 than participants with no dependent children ($p<0.001$). While undoubtedly further education
276 pertaining to the dangers of scalp haematomas and meningococcal disease (particularly

277 amongst children) is warranted, this seems particularly so amongst parents who are more likely
278 to encounter such circumstances. Mitigating harm somewhat for the ‘Potential meningococcal
279 disease’ scenario was, unlike the ‘Child head haematoma’ scenario, the majority of participants
280 did suggest they would seek advice from a healthcare professional (i.e. 42% suggested making
281 a booking with a GP, 30% suggested a call to Healthdirect or similar).

282

283 Healthdirect has the additional benefit of receipt of immediate health advice which can then
284 prompt people to adhere to a potentially more appropriate healthcare response pathway.²⁵

285 While the appropriateness of Healthdirect advice to engage with emergency healthcare services
286 requires further investigation,²⁶ one study noted those attending a New South Wales ED
287 following advice from Healthdirect were less likely to receive the lowest urgency triage
288 category on arrival to the ED than those self-presenting.²⁷ Also of note for the ‘Potential
289 meningococcal disease’ scenario was the comparatively high response selection of ‘Make an
290 appointment at a COVID clinic’. Eleven percent of participants chose this pathway for this
291 scenario, with the next highest proportion of participants being ‘Mild Chest Pain’ for which
292 1.4% suggested making an appointment at a COVID clinic (<1% selected this option for all
293 other emergency scenarios). The higher proportion selecting this pathway for the ‘Potential
294 meningococcal disease’ scenario is likely due to the common symptoms of ‘fever’ and
295 ‘headache’ between the two diseases, with fever being one of the most common symptoms of
296 SARS-COV-2.²⁸

297

298 The ‘Box Jellyfish sting’ (40%), Paracetamol overdose (36%) and ‘Mild chest pain’ (26%)
299 scenarios were also commonly miscategorised as not warranting an emergency response. Box
300 jellyfish reside in warm waters typical of Northern Australian coastline.²⁹ While education
301 targeting these Australian states and territories specifically (WA, NT and QLD) would likely

302 be of most benefit, interstate (and international) travellers ideally would also be made aware of
303 the dangers associated with box jellyfish encounters. Although, resource allocation to
304 education in this area should be considered in light of associated mortality rates, given that
305 lethal jellyfish envenoming is very rare (i.e. one reported in Australia every 3–4 years).³⁰

306

307 Conversely, cardiovascular disease and associated acute complications are the leading cause of
308 death globally, and associated mortality rate decreases noted over the past 40 years have begun
309 to decline in Australia.³¹ While fortunately the overwhelming majority of study participants
310 (95%) correctly classified ‘Severe chest pain’ as warranting an emergency medical response,
311 it is still somewhat troublesome more than a quarter of participants (26%) did not recognise
312 mild chest pain as a potential emergency. An Australian study evaluating the National Heart
313 Foundations mass media public awareness campaign advocating for ambulance use for chest
314 pain noted increased calls for ambulance assistance for chest pain callouts amongst at-risk
315 populations during the campaign³² suggesting such campaigns can raise awareness. However,
316 the same study also noted increased callouts to low-risk populations such as younger patients
317 and those with suspected gastrointestinal disorders.

318

319 Lastly, ‘Paracetamol overdose’ was not suggested to warrant an emergency response by more
320 than a third (36%) of study participants. It is unclear from these results whether participants
321 were unclear that the suggested dosage presented in the scenario was unsafe (10 regular 500mg
322 tablets in 12 hours; recommended dosage is 500–1000mg every 4–6 hours with no more than
323 4000mg across a 24-hour period)³³ or whether these participants lacked the baseline
324 understanding that paracetamol in excess is unsafe. Paracetamol is the most frequent cause of
325 liver failure in the Western world and the most commonly used drug leading to overdose.³⁴
326 Australian poison centres received more than 13,000 calls regarding paracetamol ingestion in

2015,³⁵ and hospital admissions related to paracetamol poisoning in Australia increased by an average of 3.8% each year between 2007 and 2017,³⁶ being more common amongst younger persons (particularly females).³⁷ Indeed, mean age of those incorrectly suggesting this scenario did not warrant an emergency response was lower than those suggesting it did (46.7 vs. 51.1 years respectively, $p<0.001$) with those aged 18–35 years most likely to suggest a non-emergency response.

333

334 Strengths and Limitations

335 Inherent strengths of this study include: (1) our ability to leverage trialled study materials
336 (including medical scenarios) from a similar previously published investigation,¹⁶ (2) the
337 additional incorporation of graphics alongside text to improve contextualisation of medical
338 scenarios, and (3), the representative nature of the Australian adult population from which data
339 was derived. These aspects have notably improved the external validity of the study findings
340 in comparison to the previous investigation.

341

342 However, this study is not without limitations. For example, participants were recruited via an
343 online market research company which did include some small incentive for participation.
344 While self-selection bias is unlikely to have impacted in any meaningful way on study results,
345 we do acknowledge the non-random nature of the sampling frame. Further, it should be noted
346 that, even with graphic images aiding contextualisation of textual medical scenarios, it is
347 conceivable individuals could interpret scenarios in different ways. Scenarios utilised focussed
348 on clinical information pertaining to primary health concerns but did not consider other
349 potentially relevant aspects such as comorbidities or social issues. Also, data collection
350 occurred in November/December 2020. Lastly, while national COVID-19 infection rates were
351 (comparatively) low during this period, data was collected in the midst of a global pandemic,

352 whereby it has been suggested people have been less willing to engage with emergency
353 healthcare services out of fear of exposure to SARS-CoV-2.³⁸ It is unclear the extent to which
354 attitudes changing in retaliation of the COVID-19 pandemic may have impacted on study
355 findings.

356

357 Conclusion

358 These limitations notwithstanding, this research outlines some clear medical symptoms for
359 which targeted education initiatives, as well as education for healthcare professionals who
360 provide health advice, could improve expedited necessary emergency medical treatment,
361 particularly amongst those identifying as Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander. Given associated
362 incidence and severity, primary focus for educational interventions could target the symptom
363 of chest pain, making clear even mild chest pain can be a clear symptom for myocardial
364 infarction. To a lesser (yet still important) extent, educational interventions surrounding
365 paracetamol overdose (both accidental and intended as self-harm) would be of benefit, as well
366 as targeting parents for scalp haematomas and meningococcal disease amongst children.
367 Provision of education initiatives targeting specific symptoms demonstrated to have poor
368 understanding or recognition has the capacity to empower those suffering to seek necessary (or
369 potentially necessary) emergency medical intervention in a timely fashion.

370

371 CREDIT STATEMENT

372 **BM:** Methodology, Writing – Original Draft **MH:** Investigation, Project administration **AM:**
373 Validation, Visualisation **ES:** Conceptualisation, Methodology **EA-Y:** Formal analysis **DR:**
374 Methodology **SR:** Methodology **MS:** Conceptualisation, Supervision

375

376

377 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

378 This study was funded by the Department of Jobs, Tourism, Science and Innovation.

379

380 COMPETING INTERESTS

381 No competing interests to declare.

382

383 REFERENCES

- 384 1. Schneider E, Shah A, Doty M, Tikkanen R, Fields K, Williams R. Mirror, Mirror
385 2021: Reflecting Poorly - Health Care in the U.S. Compared to Other High-Income
386 Countries [Internet]. The Commonwealth Fund, 2021; [cited 2021 Dec 23].
- 387 2. Morley C, Unwin M, Peterson G, Stankovich J, Kinsman L. Emergency department
388 crowding: A systematic review of causes, consequences and solutions. *PLOS ONE*.
389 2018; 13(8):e0203316
- 390 3. Kingswell C, Shaban R, Crilly J. Concepts, antecedents and consequences of
391 ambulance ramping in the emergency department: A scoping review. *Australas*
392 *Emerg Nurs J*. 2017;20:153–60
- 393 4. Perry M, Carter D. The ethics of ambulance ramping. *Emerg Med Australas*.
394 2016;29(1):116–8
- 395 5. Morgans A, Burgess S. Judging a patient's decision to seek emergency healthcare:
396 clues for managing increasing patient demand. *Aust Health Rev*. 2012;36:110–4
- 397 6. Johnston A, Abraham L, Greenslade J, Thom O, Carlstrom E, Wallis M, et al.,
398 Review article: Staff perception of the emergency department working environment:
399 Integrative review of the literature. *Emerg Med Australas*. 2016. 28(1):7–26
- 400 7. Pearson C, Kim D, Mika V, Ayaz S, Millis S, Dunne R, et al. Emergency department
401 visits in patients with low acuity conditions: Factors associated with resource
402 utilization. *Am J Emerg Med*. 2018;36(8):1327–31

- 403 8. Delgado-Lindeman M, Arellana J, Cantillo V. Willingness to pay functions for
404 emergency ambulance services. *J Choice Model.* 2019;30:28–37.
- 405 9. Lazzarini M, Barbi E, Apicella A, Marchetti F, Cardinale F, Trobia G. Delayed access
406 or provision of care in Italy resulting from fear of COVID-19. *Lancet Child Adolesc*
407 *Health.* 2020;4(5):e10–1.
- 408 10. Burke L, Figueroa J. Avoidance of Emergency Care - A Marker of Long-standing
409 Inequities. *JAMA Netw Open.* 2021;4(8):e2121057
- 410 11. Ahl C, Nystrom M, Jansson L. Making up one's mind: - Patient's experiences of
411 calling an ambulance. *Accid Emerg Nurs.* 2006;14(1):11–9
- 412 12. Kilkenny M, Purvis T, Werner M, Reyneke M, Czerenkowski J, Cadilhac D.
413 Improving stroke knowledge through a ‘volunteer-led’ community education program
414 in Australia. *Prev Med.* 2016;86:1–5
- 415 13. Kerr D, Holden D, Smith J, Kelly A, Bunker S. Predictors of ambulance use in
416 patients with acute myocardial infarction in Australia. *Emerg Med J.* 2006;23:948–52
- 417 14. Kerrigan S, Martin-Loeches I. Public awareness of sepsis is still poor: we need to do
418 more. *Intensive Care Med.* 2018;44:1771–3
- 419 15. Bray J, Straney L, Barger B, Finn, J. Effect of Public Awareness Campaigns on Calls
420 to Ambulance Across Australia. *Stroke.* 2015;46(5):1377–80
- 421 16. Mills B, Hill M, Buck J, Walter E, Howard K, Raisinger A, et al. What constitutes an
422 emergency ambulance call? *Australas J Paramedicine.* 2019;16
- 423 17. Houts P, Doak C, Doak L, Loszalzo. The role of pictures in improving health
424 communication: A review of research on attention, comprehension, recall and
425 adherence. *Patient Education and Counselling.* 2006;61:173–90

- 426 18. Rogers S, Cruickshank T, Nosaka K. The Brief Emotional Experience Scale (BEES):
427 Reliability and validity as a measure of positive and negative emotion. *PsyArXiv*,
428 2021.
- 429 19. Pinkhasov R, Wong J, Kasanian M, Lee D, Samadi B, Pinkhasov M. et al. Are men
430 shortchanged on health? Perspective on health care utilization and health risk
431 behavior in men and women in the United States. *Int J Clin Pract*. 2010;64(4):475–87
- 432 20. Jeffries M, Grogan S. ‘Oh, I’m just, you know, a little bit weak because I’m going to
433 the doctor’s’: Young men’s talk of self-referral to primary healthcare services. *Psychol*
434 *Health*. 2012;27(8):898–915
- 435 21. Lim J, Harrison G, Raos M, Moore K. Characteristics of Aboriginal and Torres Strait
436 Islander peoples attending Australian emergency departments. *Emerg Med Australas*.
437 2020;33(4):672–8
- 438 22. Wain T, Sim M, Bessarab D, Mak D, Hayward C, Rudd C. Engaging Australian
439 Aboriginal narratives to challenge attitudes and create empathy in health care: A
440 methodological perspective. *BMC Med Educ*. 2016;16(1):157.
- 441 23. Nash S, Arora A. Interventions to improve health literacy among Aboriginal and
442 Torres Strait Islander Peoples: a systematic review. *BMC Public Health*. 2021;21:248.
- 443 24. Burns E, Grool A, Klassen T, Correll R, Jarvis A, Joubert G, et al. Scalp hematoma
444 characteristics associated with intracranial injury in pediatric minor head injury. *Acad*
445 *Emerg Med*. 2016. 23(5):576–83
- 446 25. Sprivulis P, Carey M, Rouse I. Compliance with advice and appropriateness of
447 emergency presentation following contact with the HealthDirect telephone triage
448 service. *Emerg Med*. 2009;16(1):35–40

- 449 26. Blank L, Coster J, O’Cathain A, Knowles E, Tosh J, Turner J, et al. The
450 appropriateness of, and compliance with, telephone triage decisions: a systematic
451 review and narrative synthesis. *J Adv Nurs*. 2012;68(12):2610–21
- 452 27. Gibson A, Randall D, Tran D, Byrne M, Lawlet A, Havard A, et al. Emergency
453 Department Attendance after Telephone Triage: A Population-Based Data Linkage
454 Study. *Health Serv Res*. 2017;53(2):1137–62
- 455 28. Viner R, Ward J, Hudson L, Ashe M, Patel S, Hargreaves D, et al. Systematic review
456 of reviews of symptoms and signs of COVID-19 in children and adolescents. *Arch*
457 *Dis Child*. 2021;106:802–7
- 458 29. Fenner P. Dangerous Australian box jellyfish. *SPUMS J*. 2005;35(2):76–83
- 459 30. Taylor D, Ashby K, Winkel K. An Analysis of Marine Animal Injuries Presenting to
460 Emergency Departments in Victoria, Australia. *Wilderness Environ Med*.
461 2002;13(2):106–12
- 462 31. Lopez A, Adair T. Is long-term decline in cardiovascular-disease mortality in high-
463 income countries over? Evidence from national vital statistics. *Int J Epidemiol*.
464 2019;48(6):1815–23
- 465 32. Nehme Z, Cameron P, Akram M, Patsamanis H, Bray J, Meredith I, et al. Effect of a
466 mass media campaign on ambulance use for chest pain. *Med J Aust*. 2017;206:30–5
- 467 33. Recommended paracetamol doses: Australian Government Department of Health -
468 Therapeutic Goods Administration [Internet]. Australian Government Department of
469 Health, 2019; [cited 2021 Dec 23]
- 470 34. Larson A, Polson J, Fontana R, Davern T, Lalani E, Hynan L, et al. Acetaminophen-
471 induced acute liver failure: results of a United States multicenter, prospective study.
472 *Hepatology*. 2005;42:1364–72

- 473 35. Huynh A, Cairns R, Brown J, Lynch, A, Robinson J, Wylie C, et al. Patterns of
474 poisoning exposure at different ages: the 2015 annual report of the Australian Poisons
475 Information Centres. *Med J Aust.* 2018;209:74–9
- 476 36. Cairns R, Brown J, Wylie C, Dawson A, Isbister G, Buckley N. Paracetamol
477 poisoning-related hospital admissions and deaths in Australia, 2004–2017. *Med J Aust.*
478 2019;211(5):218–23
- 479 37. Sood S, Howell J, Sundarajan V, Angus P, Gow P. Paracetamol overdose in Victoria
480 remains a significant health-care burden. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol.* 2013;28(8):1356–
481 60
- 482 38. Kam A, Chaudhry S, Gunasekaran N, White A, Vukasovic M, Fung A. Fewer
483 presentations to metropolitan emergency departments during the COVID-19
484 pandemic. *Med J Aust.* 2020;213(8):370–1