Model Emergency!

Modeling patterns in Emergency Medical Calls

Jephte Guerrier, Steve Hulac, Chris Larson

Spring 2019

911 Emergency Medical Service (EMS) call volume varies significantly by season, day of week, and time of day. While impossible to predict entirely, there are undoubtedly some correlations between call volume and other factors. A statistical model to predict incident volume would help to inform efficient ambulance staffing.

Background

The Denver Health Paramedic Division (DHPD) is the sole provider of Advanced Life Support care and emergency transport for the City and County of Denver. Other small areas around Denver covered by DHPD include the cities of Glendale, Sheridan, and Englewood, along with some areas of unincorporated Arapahoe County. Each ambulance is staffed by two experienced paramedics who work 10-hour shifts that begin and end at rotating times during the day. The city is covered by a dynamic dispersal model, where the ambulances are posted on street-corners and moved at frequent intervals to maintain coverage for the response area.

This staffing model offers the capability of maintaining staffing levels that follow anticipated response volumes. Establishing a model that could estimate predicted volume could help to maximize staffing efficiency for the 911 EMS service. Data exists for hourly EMS incident volume for DHPD back through 2002. To aid in this staffing efficiency, we propose a model that explains hourly assigned incident volume with the following predictor variables that are known far enough in advance to allow for staffing changes.

Methods

We set out to predict hourly call volume from a number of factors discussed below. We settled on 1-hours periods as our unit of analysis. This provided enough resolution discover patterns across days and sports games, as well as being able to merge with sports game data. We felt this was also general enough to make recommendations about staffing. The data sources we had overlapped to include 2011-2018. Ultimately this gave us 8*365*24+48(leap days) = 70128 observations with which to build our model.

Since different EMS agencies can use different response models, we chose to use assigned incidents as our Y variable, rather than units assigned. This helps to reduce variation based on responses (such as sending multiple units to the same call).

Data

We used historical call volume along with weather and local sports game data to predict call volume. We chose date elements that correlated with the variation in call volume:

- Hour of day
- Day of week (Binned as follows)
 - Monday-Thursday
 - Friday
 - Saturday-Sunday
- Pick (4-month period that corresponds with paramedic shift picks)
 - Spring (January-April)
 - Summer (May-August)
 - Fall (September-December)
- Year

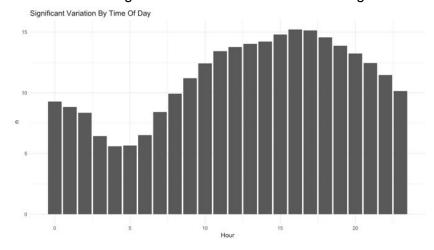
We pulled weather data from NOAA including hourly temperature recordings and precipitation.

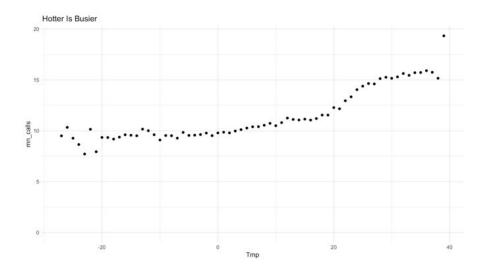
We created categorical variables for if there was a home game for the following teams, flagging positive for all hours from 1 hour before the game started to 1 hour after the game ended.

- Colorado Rockies
- Denver Nuggets
- Denver Broncos

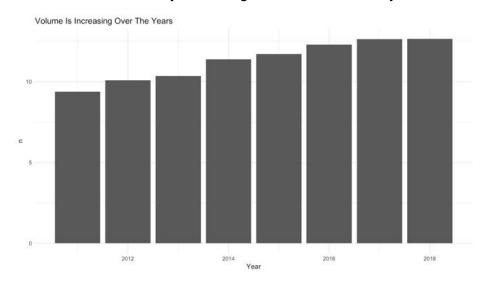
Initial observations

We first noticed significant variations in volume relating to Hour and temperature.

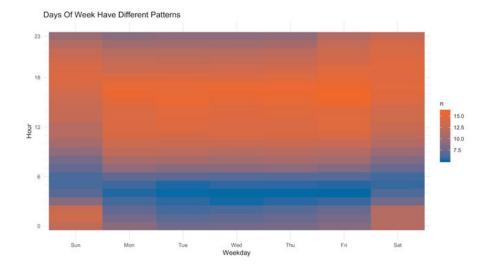




There was also a steadily increasing trend in volume over years.



Day of week had less variation, but showed differently hourly trends:



Model Fitting

Finding a model to fit the data was a major challenge in this project. We knew we had count data but finding a model was much more complex than just plug and play. In fact plugging in the raw data resulted in zero success in a good fitting model. We explored regular poisson, quasi-poisson, negative binomial, ZIPF, and logistic regression as ways to get a good fit with the full data set.

Examples of chi squared GOF for full data

Poisson

```
## res.deviance df p
## [1,] 131025.9 70709 0
```

Negative Binomial

```
## res.deviance df p
## [1,] 74688.62 70709 1.347968e-25

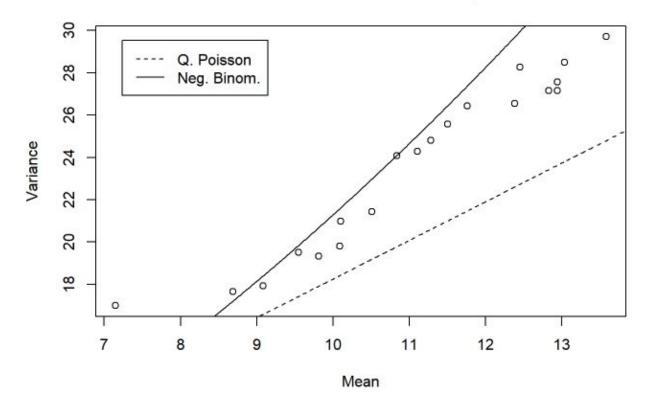
## res.deviance df p
## [1,] 74766.89 70709 1.611664e-26
```

The results were similar across the board, no model considered constituted a good fit.

A quick view of the data showed why a poisson model was not a good fit. The data was overdispersed not meeting the assumption of equal mean and variance of poisson regression. I.E. the ratio of mean: Variance should be close to 1 for poisson, in our case it was approx. 2.38.

The first hint of using a Negative Binomial model came from graphically exploring the mean-variance relationship and a view of the observed versus expected counts:

Mean-Variance Relationship



Neither poisson or negative binomial looks great, but negative binomial clearly looks to be a better fit.

Observed Vs. Expected for Poisson and Negative Binomial:

Chi-squared p-value: 00 Chi-squared table: obscounts theo Poisson theo NegBin <= 1 481 13.28360 418.8378 <= 2 1180 67.45583 875.7144 <= 3 2114 248.98918 1663.8067 <= 4 3025 689.29124 2617.1521 <= 5 3673 1526.56401 3603.3457 <= 6 4119 2817.38395 4489.9079 4518 4456.87303 5175.1749 <= 7 <= 8 4770 6169.11040 5602.4516 4967 7590.35869 5759.7168 <= 9 <= 10 5006 8405.13254 5670.3098 <= 11 5176 8461.24260 5380.0452 <= 12 5022 7807.91664 4944.7287 <= 13 4772 6650.80298 4420.2745 4258 5260.51561 3856.1566 <= 14 <= 15 3801 3883.46434 3291.9873 3252 2687.70504 2756.5419 <= 16 <= 17 2758 1750.71298 2268.4260 <= 18 2222 1077.02234 1837.6585 <= 19 1686 627.70181 1467.6109 <= 20 1259 347.54068 1156.9267 <= 21 966 183.26040 901.2050 <= 22 660 92.24189 694.3535 <= 24 767 64.90074 929.7652

> 24

443

*Note the P-values at the top, both are zero suggesting neither poisson or negative binomial models are a good fit. On further inspection we can clearly see that the negative binomial model is much "closer" to being accurate.

15.52950 1112.9023

We looked at numerous methods to manipulate the data in a way to achieve a model that could pass a goodness of fit test. We shifted the response variable (hour), to make its distribution look normal, we attempted to transform the response variable. Both with limited success. We explored outliers and their potential removal. We looked at simply truncating the data set to capture the middle 95% of the data. It was here that we started to have success in finding a good fitting model.

Truncating the bottom 2.5% of data was the data manipulation method we used to form our final model. We were able to achieve a goodness of fit with Poisson regression as well, however that required also truncating the top 2.5% of data, which excluded too many data points for our liking. When keeping in mind the goal of setting staffing levels for ambulances

needed, removal of the bottom 2.5% was an easy choice. This set the lower bound of calls per hour at 3 and for the size and EMS call volume of Denver there would never be a recommendation of less than 3 ambulances staffed at any particular hour. Using this method we were able to fit a Negative Binomial model while keeping in all of the outlying data points (including points that were potentially "bad data"). A total of 1778 observations were removed.

Negative Binomial GOF with bottom 2.5% removed

res.deviance	df	p
69200.14	69318	0.6236

The Final Model

After truncating the data and using cross validation for variable selection the final model included the following variables:

Year	Pick	Hour
Temp	Precipitation	Broncos
Mon-Thurs	Fri	Temp*Precipitation

A negative binomial regression was run with the following results:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	$\Pr(>\! z)$	2.5~%	97.5 %
(Intercept)	-88.8499	1.0610	-83.7393	0.0000	-90.9329	-86.7672
Year	0.0452	0.0005	85.8271	0.0000	0.0442	0.0462
pickSpring	-0.0199	0.0031	-6.3947	0.0000	-0.0261	-0.0138
pickSummer	0.0027	0.0035	0.7572	0.4489	-0.0042	0.0096
Hour1	-0.0483	0.0093	-5.1841	0.0000	-0.0665	-0.0300
Hour2	-0.1034	0.0095	-10.9115	0.0000	-0.1220	-0.0848
Hour3	-0.3654	0.0103	-35.6017	0.0000	-0.3855	-0.345
Hour4	-0.5025	0.0109	-46.0836	0.0000	-0.5239	-0.481
Hour5	-0.4937	0.0108	-45.5384	0.0000	-0.5150	-0.472
Hour6	-0.3450	0.0101	-34.0235	0.0000	-0.3649	-0.325
Hour7	-0.0883	0.0094	-9.4075	0.0000	-0.1067	-0.069
Hour8	0.0694	0.0090	7.6916	0.0000	0.0517	0.087
Hour9	0.1804	0.0088	20.5201	0.0000	0.1632	0.197
Hour10	0.2737	0.0086	31.6454	0.0000	0.2568	0.290
Hour11	0.3435	0.0086	40.1325	0.0000	0.3267	0.360
Hour12	0.3631	0.0085	42.5181	0.0000	0.3464	0.379
Hour13	0.3755	0.0085	43.9774	0.0000	0.3587	0.392
Hour14	0.3862	0.0085	45.2598	0.0000	0.3694	0.402
Hour15	0.4267	0.0085	50.3480	0.0000	0.4101	0.443
Hour16	0.4564	0.0084	54.1765	0.0000	0.4399	0.472
Hour17	0.4551	0.0084	54.1045	0.0000	0.4386	0.471
Hour18	0.4243	0.0084	50.3370	0.0000	0.4078	0.440
Hour19	0.3825	0.0085	45.1391	0.0000	0.3659	0.399
Hour20	0.3410	0.0085	39.9852	0.0000	0.3243	0.357
Hour21	0.2866	0.0086	33.2840	0.0000	0.2697	0.303
Hour22	0.2061	0.0088	23.5494	0.0000	0.1890	0.223
Hour23	0.0851	0.0090	9.4785	0.0000	0.0675	0.102
Temp	0.0046	0.0002	29.4210	0.0000	0.0043	0.004
precipT	0.0154	0.0063	2.4632	0.0138	0.0031	0.027
broncosy	-0.0863	0.0183	-4.7014	0.0000	-0.1224	-0.050
M_ThTRUE	-0.0302	0.0028	-10.7664	0.0000	-0.0357	-0.024
FriTRUE	0.0125	0.0039	3.1745	0.0015	0.0048	0.020
Temp:precipT	-0.0023	0.0005	-4.1394	0.0000	-0.0033	-0.001

The general form of the regression equation for this output is:

$$ln(\hat{Y}) = \hat{\beta_0} + \hat{\beta_1} x_1 + \hat{\beta_2} x_2 + ... + \hat{\beta_n} x_n$$

For ease of understanding the output, common practice suggests using the IRR (incident rate ratio) which comes from exponentiating the general form above.

$$\hat{Y} = Exp[\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_1 + \dots + \hat{\beta}_n x_n]$$

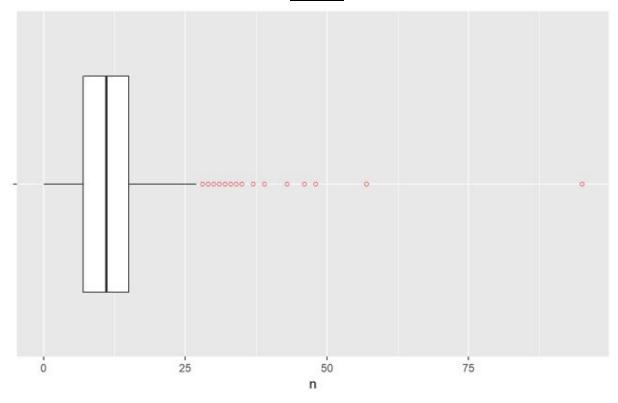
$$= e^{\hat{\beta}_0} e^{\hat{\beta}_1 x_1} \dots e^{\hat{\beta}_n x_n}$$

Note this is has a multiplicative effect instead of an additive one and results are reported in a percent change format instead of a change in the log count. Any coefficient values above 1 will represent an increase, below 1 will represent a decrease. For example a value of 1.45 would represent an expected increase of 45% and a value of 0.75 would represent and expected decrease of 25% versus the base case.

The exponentiated coefficients

Year	1.0462		
pickSpring	0.9803		
pickSummer	1.0027	Hour15	1.5322
Hour1	0.9529	Hour16	1.5784
Hour2	0.9017	Hour17	1.5763
Hour3	0.6939	Hour18	1.5285
Hour4	0.6050	Hour19	1.4659
Hour5	0.6103	Hour20	1.4064
Hour6	0.7082	Hour21	1.3319
Hour7	0.9155	Hour22	1.2289
Hour8	1.0718	Hour23	1.0888
Hour9	1.1978	Temp	1.0046
Hour10	1.3148	precipT	1.0155
Hour11	1.4098	broncosy	0.9174
Hour12	1.4378	M_ThTRUE	0.9703
Hour13	1.4557	FriTRUE	1.0125
Hour14	1.4713	Temp:precipT	0.9977

Outliers:



outliers ## 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 37 39 43 46 48 57 95 ## 42 22 15 16 8 5 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

Future Work

This data can be used in the future (along with traffic and response time data) to estimate the number of ambulances required in each hour of each week. This can help any agency to make their staffing model as efficient as possible.

Looking for patterns in wins or losses of the local sports teams is possible. Checking for patterns with the lunar cycle could help to support or disprove some myths among EMS providers.

Data sources

We collected data from the following sources:

- Denver Health Paramedics
- NOAA
- Denver Nuggets
- Denver Broncos
- Baseball-reference.com

Appendix

R Code

K-fold validation and stepwise selection

set.seed(125) #for reproducibility

```
training.samples <- CallVolume$n %>%
createDataPartition(p = 0.8, list = FALSE) # Here 80% of the data used for training
```

train_control <- trainControl(method = "cv", number = 10) #split the data into 10 random samples

```
step_model <- train(n ~ Year + Hour + pick + Temp + precip + broncos + nuggets + M_Th + Fri + Temp * precip, data = CallVolume, method = "leapBackward",
```

tuneGrid = data.frame(nvmax = 1:9),

trControl = train_control

#This spits out models with a maximum of

9 variables

step_model\$results #This gives the RMSE and MAE numbers of the model

summary(step_model\$finalModel) #Helps selecting the best model

coef(step_model\$finalModel, 9) #This spits out the model's coefficients

Packages needed: tidyverse, caret, leaps, and MASS.