UC Irvine

UC Irvine Previously Published Works

Title

Google Trends Analysis of Otologic Symptom Searches Following COVID-19

Permalink

https://escholarship.org/uc/item/2784r0d5

Journal

Iranian Journal of Otorhinolaryngology, 36(3)

ISSN

2251-7251

Authors

Kim, Joshua K Tawk, Karen Kim, Jonathan M et al.

Publication Date

2024-05-01

DOI

10.22038/ijorl.2024.75617.3532

Peer reviewed

Iranian Journal of Otorhinolaryngology, Vol.36(3), Serial No.134, May-2024



Google Trends Analysis of Otologic Symptom Searches Following COVID-19

Joshua K. Kim^{1,2}, Karen Tawk², Jonathan M. Kim², Hamid R. Djalilian^{2,3}, *Mehdi Abouzari²

Abstract

Introduction:

COVID-19 infection was accompanied by otologic symptoms, a pattern that was captured early by Google Trends. The objective of this study is to investigate searches for otologic symptoms and identify correlations with the pandemic onset.

Materials and Methods:

Search interest for otologic symptoms was gathered using Google Trends from two years before and two years following the pandemic start date. A two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test was used to identify significant changes and effect size.

Results:

In total, search interest for 14 terms was collected, with significant changes identified in 11. Six terms showed increased search interest, with the most significant rises observed for headache (r=0.589, p<0.001), dizziness (r=0.554, p<0.001), and tinnitus (r=0.410, p<0.001). Search interest decreased for five terms, with the most notable declines found in searches for migraine headache (r=0.35, p<0.001) and phonophobia (r=0.22, p=0.002). No significant changes were seen in ear pressure (p=0.142), neck pain (p=0.935), and sudden hearing loss (p=0.863) searches.

Conclusion:

COVID-19 infection is often accompanied otologic symptoms and holds a diagnostic role. Fluctuating search interest may be attributed to a true increase in cases, media trends, or people's desires to stay informed. Google Trends robustly captured trends in search interest and presented itself as a valuable epidemiological tool.

Keywords: Google Trends; Pandemic; Search Interest; Otologic Symptoms; Search Trends

Received date: 15 Oct 2023 Accepted date: 16 Mar 2024

Department of Otolaryngology–Head and Neck Surgery, University of California, Irvine 333 City Blvd. West, Suite 525, Orange, CA 92868. E-mail: mabouzar@hs.uci.edu

^{*}Please cite this article; Kim JK, Tawk K, Kim JM, Djalilian HR, Abouzari M. Google Trends Analysis of Otologic Symptom Searches Following COVID-19. Iran J Otorhinolaryngol. 2024;36(3):475-482. Doi: 10.22038/IJORL.2024.75617.3532

¹School of Medicine, Duke University, Durham, NC, United States.

²Department of Otolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery, University of California, Irvine, CA, United States.

³Department of Biomedical Engineering, University of California, Irvine, CA, United States.

^{*}Corresponding author:

Introduction

The World Health Organization declared COVID-19 a pandemic in March 2020 (1). Affected patients presented with various symptoms, including shortness of breath, muscle pain, and headaches (2). Occasionally, otolaryngological symptoms were observed (3,4). Official guidelines included these symptoms, such as otalgia, tinnitus, dizziness, and aural fullness (5,6). A handful of studies have noted the association of COVID-19 with changes in hearing status and proposed various mechanisms. For example, low-frequency hearing loss was speculated to occur when the outer hair cells in the cochlea were damaged (7). Infected patients sometimes presented with sudden sensorineural hearing loss (8,9), attributed to endothelial cell dysfunction or micro-thrombosis of auditory centers due to viral infection (10,11). In some cases, vaccination was linked to auditory impairment, such as tinnitus (12). Headache symptoms were regularly observed in patients who received the vaccine, and could be linked to hearing loss (13-15). Despite these reports, establishing a definitive correlation between COVID-19 and otologic symptoms was difficult (16). External factors like feelings of loneliness, financial worries, or sadness caused quarantining exacerbated auditory complications in patients (17). It was unclear if a causal relationship existed between COVID-19 and any auditory-related complications due to the limited scope of reports and confounding factors (5,18).

Google Trends is a public database that reports the relative interest in a search term. It has been gaining popularity in various sectors, including economics, epidemiology, and medicine (19-21). If properly used, Google Trends data provides unique insights into regional trends or events. In the United States, traffic for Lyme searches disease-related was reportedly heightened in areas where Lyme disease was endemic (20). Google Trends was also illuminating in regional cases of influenza, both in China and the United States (22,23). Google Trends is a powerful tool despite its limited documentation and its susceptibility to media (24,25).Google Trends showed trends immense potential during the pandemic. Initially, hyposmia or anosmia was infrequently charted during standard medical history taking and not identified as a symptom early in the pandemic. As COVID-19 cases rose, loss of smell was recognized as an occasional symptom. Google Trends showed a correlation between COVID-19 cases and search interest in keywords relating to loss of smell (26). Thus, trends may have been helpful in identifying loss of smell as a manifestation of COVID-19 infection well before any association was made. Tangentially related analyses in the field of otolaryngology have used Google Trends to infer how COVID-19 affected interest in otolaryngologic terms or procedures (27,28). Google Trends has shown correlations to procedural interest (29,30), with searches showing direct correlations to the timing and location of viral cases (31). Beyond correlation, search interest has proven instrumental in surveilling symptoms, serving as a barometer for public health (32). Discrete and complex patterns of COVID-19 spread and mortality were also reflected in search interest (33).

In this study, we specifically investigated auditory-related reported symptoms COVID-19 to gain insight into whether the public experienced these symptoms reactively sought information during the pandemic. We also wanted to understand whether any correlation existed between symptoms. No current studies have focused on the search patterns of otologic symptoms around the pandemic. Understanding which symptoms most frequently coincide with COVID-19 infection may have clinical implications, such as in detection, contact tracing, and management of COVID-19 infection.

Materials and Methods

Google Trends was utilized to gather search data related to otologic symptoms. All "Web search" results from the United States were collected without any category restrictions, and searches with low-volume regions were excluded. This is done to minimize noise and ensure that search trends are accurate. Google Trends search interest is normalized within each region, and in low search volume regions, this process may generate noise or inaccuracies in trends, interfering with data analysis. The relative interest for searches was gathered weekly from March 11, 2018, to March 11, 2022, covering two years before and two years

after the pandemic declaration by the World Health Organization (1). To construct a comprehensive baseline for search interest, data was also cataloged four months before March 11, 2018. This strategic timeframe selection was crucial for our analysis, as it allowed us to document natural fluctuations and trends in search behavior in the absence of significant global health events. By establishing this prepandemic baseline, we were equipped to conduct a more precise and insightful comparison of search behaviors before and after the onset of COVID-19.

When queried, Google Trends supplies the relative interest in a term, which indicates the search popularity of that term. The relative interest is a normalized value calculated by dividing the search interest for a term by the total searches made in that timeframe and geographic region and then scaling it from 0 to 100. Google Trends data is normalized for each term separately, so comparing the actual mean difference $(\Delta \overline{x})$ among terms is not necessarily informative. Nonetheless, the sign of the mean difference is highly pertinent, as it reports the direction of change. Positive mean differences indicated that search interest increased, and negative values suggest a decrease. The effect size calculated using Cohen's d reflects the size

of an increase or decrease in search interest (34). No data points were missing for any terms. Analysis was conducted to understand how search interest changed over time. The data was divided into the baseline, pre-, and postpandemic periods. The baseline dataset included search interest between January 1, 2018, and March 10, 2018; the pre-pandemic timeframe was set from the weeks of March 11, 2018, to March 8, 2020, and the post-pandemic data was constrained by the weeks of March 15, 2020, to March 13, 2022. To determine whether a significant difference existed in the mean between the two periods, a two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test with a continuity correction was used. The mean difference, effect size, and 95% confidence interval values for both measures were reported. Rho values were categorized as small if below 0.3, moderate if between 0.3 and 0.5, and large if exceeding 0.5 (35).

The analysis was conducted in R version 4.2.0 (The R Foundation for Statistical Computing) using the stats and rstatix packages (36,37), with p<0.05 indicating significance. Data collection was expedited with the gtrendsR package (38).

Results

In total, relative search interest for 14 terms was collected and analyzed (Table 1).

Table 1: Mean (\bar{x}) and standard deviation (SD) of searches for each term in the era before the pandemic, immediately prior to the pandemic start, and following the pandemic.

Term	Before Pandemic Era $(\overline{x}\pm SD)$	Pre-Pandemic $(\overline{x}\pm SD)$	Post-Pandemic ($\overline{x}\pm SD$)
Aural Fullness	53.44±30.75	38.42±25.55	28.84 ± 19.21
Ear Pressure	71.67±3.61	66.01±7.76	64.61±9.92
Headache	67.78±3.49	61.70 ± 4.00	70.61 ± 9.22
Hearing Loss	77.44±4.22	79.81±8.18	74.27±7.36
Migraine Headache	76.22±4.52	69.19±6.47	73.30±5.71
Neck Pain	88.44±3.00	87.70±3.78	87.69 ± 4.92
Otalgia	67.00±7.21	67.65±14.16	62.38±12.98
Phonophobia	30.78±7.74	32.10±11.51	38.73±15.02
Photophobia	58.44±7.40	61.20±12.79	67.42±11.20
Sudden Hearing Loss	59.56±14.99	61.75±12.11	62.64 ± 15.09
Tinnitus	23.78±1.39	22.08±3.02	26.34±8.52
Dizziness	74.67±3.64	72.31±3.83	78.71±6.04
Motion Sickness	55.22±5.74	66.52±12.94	61.07 ± 14.41
Vertigo	79.89±3.48	80.51±4.81	82.21±6.25

A Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine whether a significant difference in mean existed between search interest two years before and after the pandemic.

Significant changes were found in 11 terms. Increased search interest was observed in six terms (Table 2).

Table 2: Two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test between relative search interest two years before and after the pandemic start date, with a mean difference $(\Delta \overline{x})$ and the effect size (r) reported.

Symptoms	P-Value	$\Delta \overline{x}$ (CI 95%)	r (CI 95%)
Aural Fullness	p=0.006	-7.00 (-17.00, -1.00)	0.19 (0.06, 0.31)
Ear Pressure	p=0.142	-2.00 (-4.00, 1.00)	0.10 (0.00, 0.24)
Headache	p<0.001	7.00 (6.00, 9.00)	0.59 (0.49, 0.67)
Hearing Loss	p<0.001	-6.00 (-8.00, -3.00)	0.33 (0.21, 0.45)
Migraine Headache	p<0.001	4.00 (3.00, 6.00)	0.35 (0.23, 0.46)
Neck Pain	p = 0.935	0.00 (-1.00, 1.00)	0.01 (0.00, 0.15)
Otalgia	p=0.003	-6.00 (-9.00, -2.00)	0.20 (0.06, 0.34)
Phonophobia	p = 0.002	6.00 (2.00, 9.00)	0.22 (0.08, 0.35)
Photophobia	p<0.001	6.00 (3.00, 10.00)	0.25 (0.12, 0.37)
Sudden Hearing Loss	p=0.863	0.00 (-3.00, 4.00)	0.01 (0.00, 0.16)
Tinnitus	p<0.001	3.00 (2.00, 5.00)	0.41 (0.29, 0.52)
Dizziness	p<0.001	6.00 (5.00, 8.00)	0.55 (0.45, 0.65)
Motion Sickness	p=0.021	-4.00 (-8.00, -1.00)	0.16 (0.03, 0.28)
Vertigo	p<0.001	2.00 (1.00, 4.00)	0.23 (0.08, 0.36)

Large increases in search interest were observed for headache (r=0.589, p<0.001), dizziness (r=0.554, p<0.001), and tinnitus (r=0.410, p<0.001). Migraine headaches (r=0.35, p<0.001) had a moderate increase. Smaller increases were noted in phonophobia (r=0.22, p=0.002) and vertigo (r=0.23, p<0.001). Decreased search interest was found for five terms. A moderate decrease was recorded for hearing loss (r=0.33, p<0.001). Phonophobia (r=0.22, p=0.002), otalgia (r=0.20, p=0.003), and aural fullness (r=0.19, p=0.006) exhibited small decreases.

Ear pressure (p=0.142), neck pain (p=0.935), and sudden hearing loss (p=0.863) showed no significant changes. When considering the baseline search interest relative to the two years preceding the pandemic, ear pressure demonstrated a small increase in interest (p=0.007, r=0.25), and migraine headache showed a moderate increase (p<0.001, r=0.31) compared to the pre-pandemic timeframe. Motion sickness manifested a small decrease (p=0.003, r=0.27), with all other terms showing no significant change (Table 3).

Table 3: Two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test between relative search interest before the pandemic era in the early pandemic era, with mean difference $(\Delta \overline{x})$ and effect size (r) reported.

Symptoms	P-Value	$\Delta \overline{x}$ (CI 95%)	r (CI 95%)
Aural Fullness	p=0.148	18.00 (-2.00, 36.00)	0.14 (0.01, 0.32)
Ear Pressure	p=0.007	6.00 (2.00, 10.00)	0.25 (0.13, 0.36)
Headache	p<0.001	7.00 (4.00, 9.00)	0.35 (0.20, 0.47)
Hearing Loss	p=0.303	-3.00 (-8.00, 3.00)	-0.10 (-0.22, -0.01)
Migraine Headache	p<0.001	7.00 (3.00, 11.00)	0.31 (0.16, 0.44)
Neck Pain	p=0.414	1.00 (-2.00, 3.00)	0.08 (0.00, 0.23)
Otalgia	p=0.850	-1.00 (-9.00, 7.00)	-0.02 (-0.17, 0.00)
Phonophobia	p=0.842	-1.00 (-8.00, 6.00)	-0.02 (-0.16, 0.00)
Photophobia	p=0.603	-2.00 (-11.00, 5.00)	-0.05 (-0.19, 0.00)
Sudden Hearing Loss	p=0.498	-3.00 (-13.00, 7.00)	-0.06 (-0.25, 0.00)
Tinnitus	p=0.082	2.00 (0.00, 4.00)	0.16 (0.05, 0.27)
Dizziness	p=0.092	2.00 (0.00, 5.00)	0.16 (0.01, 0.33)
Motion Sickness	p=0.003	-9.00 (-16.00, -3.00)	-0.27 (-0.41, -0.10)

Vertigo p=0.724 0.00 (-3.00, 2.00) -0.03 (-0.20, 0.00)

Discussion

The search interest for most migraine and migraine-related symptoms increased, including dizziness, headache, aural fullness, and tinnitus (Figure 1).

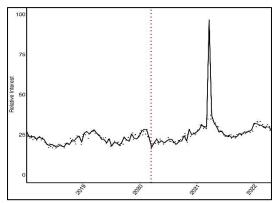


Fig 1: Scatter plot for relative search interest in tinnitus. A spline function illustrates general trends, with the dotted red line indicating the pandemic start date.

Some possible explanations for this observed increase might be an increase in people experiencing these symptoms, efforts to be informed about the pandemic (39), and media coverage (25). Many of the symptoms that showed an increase in search interest were strongly associated with COVID-19 infection (40-42). For instance, search interest for headaches and migraine headaches rose, as both were prevalent and widely reported symptoms of COVID-19 infection (40). It is believed that these headaches were caused directly by the virus by raising temperatures, promoting the activity of proinflammatory cytokines, sensitizing the meningeal periphery, or activating the trigeminovascular system (43,44). Headache was also linked to anosmia or ageusia, two highly publicized symptoms (45,46). Therefore, the increased reports of headache in conjunction with media coverage could have led to headache having the most significant increase in search interest.

Dizziness often accompanies viral infection (41), a phenomenon consistent with the observed large increase in search interest. COVID-19 may impair the brainstem and vestibulocollic arc, which impairs communication on the arc to provoke dizziness (47), although respiratory

distress, hypoglycemia, or other physiologic statuses may indirectly contribute (48). Therefore, the precise mechanism of action, which suggests cases of dizziness increased in response to the pandemic, may underlie this increase in search interest. Tinnitus also exhibited a large increase in search interest and was widely associated with COVID-19 infection or vaccination (49,50). Proposed mechanisms include damage to cochlea outer hair cells or inflammation of cochleae, which is mediated by viral entry via ACE2, which is abundant in neuronal cells (51). Should the virus be transmitted nasally, its spike protein may facilitate passage through the blood-brain barrier. where it mav upregulate proinflammatory mediators and enter brain parenchyma, causing damage that may manifest as hearing complications (51). COVID-19 infection does not necessarily cause new presentation of tinnitus and may instead exacerbate existing tinnitus (52). The increase in search interest for tinnitus may be attributed to the reported cases associated with vaccination or infection (42). Searches for vertigo showed a modest increase in search interest, and while the association between viral infection and vertigo is contention. associations have demonstrated in vaccination (53,54). Viral spike proteins may access and disable cochlear hair cells, vestibular hair cells, or afferent auditory or vestibular nerve cells (55), which may cause vertigo. Vertigo was associated with COVID-19, but a mild increase in search interest may be a testament to the uncertainties that cloud the precise mechanism; this same observation can be extended to searches for dizziness.

Search interest also decreased for a select number of symptoms. Cases of hearing loss were published, with authors suggesting associations with COVID-19 infection (51,56) and presenting reasonable mechanisms (56). Yet hearing loss maintains a contentious relationship with viral infection, with studies positing that the increase in hearing loss was not statistically significant (57,58), not adequately supported with audiological testing (59), or exhibited a decreased incidence (60). Sudden hearing loss showed no significant fluctuation in search interest, which is consistent with these studies.

Aural fullness was another symptom that demonstrated a mild decrease in search interest. While this symptom was frequently reported in infected children (50), it generally had consistently lower incidence rates and was not widely investigated in the literature (6,18). This limited coverage in literature and media may have contributed to shifting attention towards more popular symptoms, such as fatigue, difficulty thinking, or loss of smell and taste (61). Notably, less frequently used terms, such as anosmia and ageusia, were found to have search patterns that mirrored media coverage (62). Aural fullness overlaps with other symptoms, such as otalgia, leading to depression in search interest for this specific term.

These results show that Google Trends is a powerful tool and has supported multiple studies by offering data with high validity in salient topics (63). Investigating search trends may yield clinically useful information and may contribute towards the predictive modeling of symptoms, aid in clinical decision-making and management, and help in clinical diagnoses. Google Trends is subject to several limitations. Terms that the public is less familiar with are less likely to be searched, such as in the case of headache, when compared to phonophobia. The data is also highly sensitive to the precise wording used, as demonstrated by the significant decrease observed for hearing loss, which was not mirrored in searches for sudden hearing loss. The former term is ubiquitous, which may have contributed to the considerable increase in searches. Google Trends does not necessarily indicate actual reported or diagnosed cases of a symptom. It is also subject to public perception, media coverage, and user understanding or knowledge. Finally, increases were observed when comparing the pre-COVID era to the two years preceding the pandemic. demonstrates the inherently dynamic nature of public engagement, information, and interest in medical information. Variables in search behavior not only represent genuine interest in symptoms, but also a complex interplay of factors, including seasonal health concerns, health news, and changes in societal awareness.

Conclusion

Otologic symptoms were critical in the detection and diagnosis of COVID-19. As infections increased during the pandemic,

searches for common symptoms also increased significantly. This increase may be due to more reports of otologic symptoms, people's desire to stay informed, or media trends. Google Trends effectively captured rises and declines in search interest, making it a valuable epidemiological tool that provides insight into the public perception and understanding of the pandemic.

References

- **1.** Cucinotta D, Vanelli M. WHO Declares COVID-19 a Pandemic. Acta Biomed. 2020; 91(1):157-160.
- **2.** Aiyegbusi OL, Hughes SE, Turner G, et al. Symptoms, complications and management of long COVID: a review. J R Soc Med. 2021;114(9):428-442.
- **3.** Elibol E. Otolaryngological symptoms in COVID-19. Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol. 2021; 278(4): 1233-1236.
- **4.** Chern A, Famuyide AO, Moonis G, Lalwani AK. Bilateral Sudden Sensorineural Hearing Loss and Intralabyrinthine Hemorrhage in a Patient With COVID-19. Otol Neurotol. 2021;42(1):e10-e14.
- **5.** Beukes E, Ulep AJ, Eubank T, Manchaiah V. The Impact of COVID-19 and the Pandemic on Tinnitus: A Systematic Review. J Clin Med. 2021; 10(13).
- **6.** Gosavi S, Nagarajan S, Shah NJ, Thomas NAT, Kumar KR, Sangole V. ENT Symptomology in Active COVID-19 Patients in our Tertiary Care Centre. Indian J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 2022; 74(Suppl 2):3092-3097.
- **7.** Chirakkal P, Al Hail AN, Zada N, Vijayakumar DS. COVID-19 and Tinnitus. Ear Nose Throat J. 2021;100(2_suppl):160S-162S.
- **8.** Beckers E, Chouvel P, Cassetto V, Mustin V. Sudden sensorineural hearing loss in COVID-19: A case report and literature review. Clin Case Rep. 2021;9(4):2300-2304.
- **9.** Satar B. Criteria for establishing an association between Covid-19 and hearing loss. Am J Otolaryngol. 2020;41(6):102658.
- **10.** Varga Z, Flammer AJ, Steiger P, et al. Endothelial cell infection and endotheliitis in COVID-19. Lancet. 2020;395(10234):1417-1418.
- **11.** Harenberg J, Jonas JB, Trecca EMC. A Liaison between Sudden Sensorineural Hearing Loss and SARS-CoV-2 Infection. Thromb Haemost. 2020; 120(9):1237-1239.
- **12.** Parrino D, Frosolini A, Gallo C, De Siati RD, Spinato G, de Filippis C. Tinnitus following COVID-19 vaccination: report of three cases. Int J Audiol. 2022;61(6):526-529.
- **13.** Baden LR, El Sahly HM, Essink B, et al. Efficacy and Safety of the mRNA-1273 SARS-CoV-2 Vaccine. N Engl J Med. 2021;384(5):403-416.

- **14.** Polack FP, Thomas SJ, Kitchin N, et al. Safety and Efficacy of the BNT162b2 mRNA Covid-19 Vaccine. N Engl J Med. 2020;383(27):2603-2615.
- **15.** Abouzari M, Goshtasbi K, Chua JT, et al. Adjuvant Migraine Medications in the Treatment of Sudden Sensorineural Hearing Loss. Laryngoscope. 2021;131(1):E283-E288.
- **16.** Wichova H, Miller ME, Derebery MJ. Otologic Manifestations After COVID-19 Vaccination: The House Ear Clinic Experience. Otol Neurotol. 2021; 42(9):e1213-e1218.
- **17.** Beukes EW, Baguley DM, Jacquemin L, et al. Changes in Tinnitus Experiences During the COVID-19 Pandemic. Front Public Health. 2020; 8: 592878.
- **18.** Bhatta S, Sharma S, Sharma D, et al. Study of Hearing Status in COVID-19 Patients: A Multicentered Review. Indian J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 2022;74(Suppl 2):3036-3042.
- **19.** Vosen S, Schmidt T. Forecasting private consumption: survey-based indicators vs. Google trends. Journal of Forecasting. 2011;30(6):565-578.
- **20.** Seifter A, Schwarzwalder A, Geis K, Aucott J. The utility of "Google Trends" for epidemiological research: Lyme disease as an example. Geospat Health. 2010;4(2):135-137.
- **21.** Jun S-P, Yoo HS, Choi S. Ten years of research change using Google Trends: From the perspective of big data utilizations and applications. Technological Forecasting and Social Change. 2018; 130:69-87.
- **22.** Kang M, Zhong H, He J, Rutherford S, Yang F. Using Google Trends for influenza surveillance in South China. PLoS One. 2013;8(1):e55205.
- **23.** Carneiro HA, Mylonakis E. Google trends: a webbased tool for real-time surveillance of disease outbreaks. Clin Infect Dis. 2009;49(10):1557-1564.
- **24.** Nuti SV, Wayda B, Ranasinghe I, et al. The use of google trends in health care research: a systematic review. PLoS One. 2014;9(10):e109583.
- **25.** Cervellin G, Comelli I, Lippi G. Is Google Trends a reliable tool for digital epidemiology? Insights from different clinical settings. J Epidemiol Glob Health. 2017;7(3):185-189.
- **26.** Walker A, Hopkins C, Surda P. Use of Google Trends to investigate loss-of-smell-related searches during the COVID-19 outbreak. Int Forum Allergy Rhinol. 2020;10(7):839-847.
- **27.** Pier MM, Pasick LJ, Benito DA, Alnouri G, Sataloff RT. Otolaryngology-related Google Search trends during the COVID-19 pandemic. Am J Otolaryngol. 2020;41(6):102615.
- **28.** Williams CYK, Ferreira AF, Townson AT, Pace A. 1603 A Google Trends Analysis of Interest in Ear, Nose and Throat Surgery During The COVID-19 Pandemic. British Journal of Surgery. 2021;108(Supplement_6).
- **29.** Lem M, Kim JK, Pham JT, Tang CJ. Effect of the COVID-19 Pandemic on Global Interest in Plastic Surgery. JPRAS Open. 2023;37:63-71.

- **30.** Lem M, Pham JT, Kim JK, Tang CJ. Effect of the COVID-19 Pandemic on Nonsurgical Cosmetic Procedure Interest. The American Journal of Cosmetic Surgery. 2022.
- **31.** Husnayain A, Fuad A, Su EC. Applications of Google Search Trends for risk communication in infectious disease management: A case study of the COVID-19 outbreak in Taiwan. Int J Infect Dis. 2020;95:221-223.
- **32.** Kurian SJ, Bhatti AUR, Alvi MA, et al. Correlations Between COVID-19 Cases and Google Trends Data in the United States: A State-by-State Analysis. Mayo Clin Proc. 2020;95(11):2370-2381.
- **33.** Abbas M, Morland TB, Hall ES, El-Manzalawy Y. Associations between Google Search Trends for Symptoms and COVID-19 Confirmed and Death Cases in the United States. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2021;18(9).
- **34.** Ialongo C. Understanding the effect size and its measures.Biochem Med(Zagreb).2016;26(2):150-163.
- **35.** Akoglu H. User's guide to correlation coefficients. Turk J Emerg Med. 2018;18(3):91-93.
- **36.** R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing [computer program]. Version 4.2.0: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2022.
- **37.** rstatix: Pipe-Friendly Framework for Basic Statistical Tests [computer program]. 2021.
- **38.** Massicotte P, Eddelbuettel D. gtrendsR: Perform and Display Google Trends Queries. 2022.
- **39.** Luhnen J, Frese T, Mau W, et al. Public information needs and preferences on COVID-19: a cross-sectional study. BMC Public Health. 2023; 23(1):394.
- **40.** Jung YH, Ha EH, Park J, Choe KW, Lee WJ, Jo DH. Neurological and Psychiatric Manifestations of Post-COVID-19 Conditions. J Korean Med Sci. 2023; 38(11):e83.
- **41.** Saniasiaya J, Kulasegarah J. Dizziness and COVID-19. Ear Nose Throat J. 2021;100(1):29-30.
- **42.** Finsterer J, Edmonds R. Persisting, unilateral tinnitus 22 days after first dose of an mRNA-based SARS-CoV-2 vaccine. J Family Med Prim Care. 2022;11(6):3330-3332.
- **43.** Caronna E, Ballve A, Llaurado A, et al. Headache: A striking prodromal and persistent symptom, predictive of COVID-19 clinical evolution. Cephalalgia. 2020;40(13):1410-1421.
- **44.** Trigo J, Garcia-Azorin D, Planchuelo-Gomez A, et al. Factors associated with the presence of headache in hospitalized COVID-19 patients and impact on prognosis: a retrospective cohort study. J Headache Pain. 2020;21(1):94.
- **45.** Vargas-Gandica J, Winter D, Schnippe R, et al. Ageusia and anosmia, a common sign of COVID-19? A case series from four countries. J Neurovirol. 2020; 26(5):785-789.

- 46. Rocha-Filho PAS, Magalhaes JE. Headache associated with COVID-19: Frequency, characteristics and association with anosmia and ageusia. Cephalalgia. 2020;40(13):1443-1451.
- 47. Tan M, Cengiz DU, Demir I, et al. Effects of Covid-19 on the audio-vestibular system. Am J Otolaryngol. 2022;43(1):103173.
- 48. Korres G, Kitsos DK, Kaski D, et al. The Prevalence of Dizziness and Vertigo in COVID-19 Patients: A Systematic Review.Brain Sci.2022;12 (7).
- 49. Leong S, Teh BM, Kim AH. Characterization of otologic symptoms appearing after COVID-19 vaccination. Am J Otolaryngol. 2023;44(2):103725.
- 50. Alde M, Di Berardino F, Ambrosetti U, et al. Audiological and vestibular symptoms following SARS-CoV-2 infection and COVID-19 vaccination in children aged 5-11 years. Am J Otolaryngol. 2023;44(1):103669.
- 51. Kaliyappan K, Chen YC, Krishnan Muthaiah VP. Vestibular Cochlear Manifestations in COVID-19 Cases. Front Neurol. 2022;13:850337.
- 52. Jafari Z, Kolb BE, Mohajerani MH. Hearing Loss, Tinnitus, and Dizziness in COVID-19: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. Can J Neurol Sci. 2022;49(2):184-195.
- 53. Karimi-Galougahi M, Naeini AS, Raad N, Mikaniki N, Ghorbani J. Vertigo and hearing loss during the COVID-19 pandemic - is there an association? Acta Otorhinolaryngol Ital. 2020; 40(6):463-465.
- 54. Di Mauro P, La Mantia I, Cocuzza S, et al. Acute Vertigo After COVID-19 Vaccination: Case Series and Literature Review. Front Med (Lausanne). 2021:8:790931.
- 55. Jeong M, Ocwieja KE, Han D, et al. Direct SARS-CoV-2 infection of the human inner ear may underlie COVID-19-associated audiovestibular dysfunction. Commun Med (Lond). 2021;1(1):44.

- **56.** Chen X, Fu YY, Zhang TY. Role of viral infection in sudden hearing loss. J Int Med Res. 2019;47(7):2865-2872.
- 57. Parrino D, Frosolini A, Toninato D, Matarazzo A, Marioni G, de Filippis C. Sudden hearing loss and vestibular disorders during and before COVID-19 pandemic: An audiology tertiary referral centre experience. Am J Otolaryngol. 2022;43(1):103241.
- 58. Africa RE, Westenhaver ZK, Zimmerer RE, McKinnon BJ. Evaluation of Disturbances in Hearing, Tinnitus, and Dizziness as Signs of COVID-19 Infection.Otol Neurotol.2023; 44(2): 126-133.
- 59. Thrane JF, Britze A, Fjaeldstad AW. Incidence and duration of self-reported hearing loss and tinnitus in a cohort of COVID-19 patients with sudden chemosensory loss: A STROBE observational study. Eur Ann Otorhinolaryngol Head Neck Dis. 2022; 139(3):125-128.
- **60.** Doweck I, Yanir Y, Najjar-Debbiny R, Shibli R, Saliba W. Sudden Sensorineural Hearing Loss During the COVID-19 Pandemic. JAMA Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 2022;148(4):373-375.
- 61. Basch CH, Park E, Kollia B, Quinones N. Online News Coverage of COVID-19 Long Haul Symptoms. J Community Health. 2022;47(2):306-310.
- 62. Sousa-Pinto B, Anto A, Czarlewski W, Anto JM, Fonseca JA, Bousquet J. Assessment of the Impact of Media Coverage on COVID-19-Related Google Trends Data: Infodemiology Study. J Med Internet Res. 2020;22(8):e19611.
- 63. Mellon J. Internet Search Data and Issue Salience: The Properties of Google Trends as a Measure of Issue Salience. Journal of Elections, Public Opinion and Parties. 2013;24(1):45-72.