

Online search trends and word-related emotional response during COVID-19 lockdown in Italy: a cross-sectional online study

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Background. The strong and long lockdown adopted by the Italian government to limit COVID-19 spreading represents the first threat-related mass isolation in the history that can be in-depth studied by scientists to understand individuals' emotional response to a pandemic.

Methods. We investigated the effects on individuals' mental wellbeing of this long-term isolation by means of an online survey on 71 Italian volunteers. They completed the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule and Fear of COVID-19 Scale and judged valence, arousal, and dominance of words either related or unrelated to COVID-19, as identified by Google search trends.

Results. Emotional judgments changes from normative data varied depending on word type and individuals' emotional state, revealing early signals of individuals' mental distress to COVID-19 confinement. All individuals judged COVID-19-related words to be less positive and dominant. However, individuals with more negative feelings and COVID-19 fear also judged COVID-19-unrelated words to be less positive and dominant. Moreover, arousal ratings increased for all words among individuals with more negative feelings and COVID-19 fear but decreased among individuals with less negative feelings and COVID-19 fear.

Discussion. Our results show a rich picture of emotional reactions of Italians to tight and 2-month long confinement, identifying early signals of mental health distress. They are an alert to the need for intervention strategies and psychological assessment of individuals potentially needing mental health support following the COVID-19 situation.

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19

20 Abstract

21 **Background.** The strong and long lockdown adopted by the Italian government to limit COVID-
22 19 spreading represents the first threat-related mass isolation in the history that can be in-depth
23 studied by scientists to understand individuals' emotional response to a pandemic.

24 **Methods.** We investigated the effects on individuals' mental wellbeing of this long-term
25 isolation by means of an online survey on 71 Italian volunteers. They completed the Positive and
26 Negative Affect Schedule and Fear of COVID-19 Scale and judged valence, arousal, and
27 dominance of words either related or unrelated to COVID-19, as identified by Google search
28 trends.

29 **Results.** Emotional judgments changes from normative data varied depending on word type and
30 individuals' emotional state, revealing early signals of individuals' mental distress to COVID-19
31 confinement. All individuals judged COVID-19-related words to be less positive and dominant.
32 However, individuals with more negative feelings and COVID-19 fear also judged COVID-19-
33 unrelated words to be less positive and dominant. Moreover, arousal ratings increased for all
34 words among individuals with more negative feelings and COVID-19 fear but decreased among
35 individuals with less negative feelings and COVID-19 fear.

36 **Discussion.** Our results show a rich picture of emotional reactions of Italians to tight and 2-
37 month long confinement, identifying early signals of mental health distress. They are an alert to
38 the need for intervention strategies and psychological assessment of individuals potentially
39 needing mental health support following the COVID-19 situation.

40

41 **Introduction**

42 Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a novel and emerging infectious disease caused by a
43 new coronavirus strain named Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-
44 2) mainly transmitted by respiratory droplets and contact (Sohrabi et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020).

45 The COVID-19 has quickly spread worldwide since December 2019, infecting millions of
46 people and causing hundreds of thousands of deaths so that the World Health Organization
47 (WHO) has announced the COVID-19 outbreak a pandemic. In order to cut the rate of new
48 infections and flatten the COVID-19 contagion curve, health and political authorities imposed
49 mass home-confinement directives and unprecedented severe restrictions on daily living. Italy,
50 one of the worst-hit countries by the pandemic (at least in the first phase outside China), imposed
51 a strict lockdown for over two months.

52 While social isolation and quarantine are imperative to abate the virus spread, the effects of these
53 measures on the emotional wellbeing and mental health are just starting to be investigated.

54 Indeed, individuals are reporting that COVID-19 pandemic is increasing the levels of negative
55 emotions and decreasing those of positive ones, contributing to a number of negative
56 psychological, behavioral and health problems, such as, anxiety and depression (Rossi et al.,
57 2020), abuse of alcohol and drugs, trouble in concentrating, increased aggressive behavior,
58 maladaptive eating, and worse job performance (Kirzinger et al., 2020; Smith 2020).

59 The perception of a pandemic threat through invasive media communication, such as that related
60 to COVID-19, can induce fear-related emotions (Bavel et al., 2020).

61 The dimension theory of emotions (Osgood and Suci, 1955) assumes that emotive space is
62 defined along three dimensions: valence (indicating the way an individual judges a stimulus;
63 from unpleasant to pleasant), arousal (indicating the degree of activation an individual feels
64 towards a stimulus; from calm to excited) and dominance (indicating the degree of control an
65 individual feels over a given stimulus; from out of control to in control). Fear is characterized as
66 a negatively valenced emotion, accompanied by a high level of arousal (Witte, 1992; Witte,
67 1998) and a low dominance (Stevenson, Mikels, & James, 2007). This is generally in line with
68 previous results showing that participants judged stimuli related to the most feared medical
69 conditions as the most negative, the most anxiety-provoking and the least controllable (Warriner,
70 Kuperman and Brysbaert 2013). Fear is also characterized by extreme levels of emotional
71 avoidance of specific stimuli (Perin et al., 2015) and may be considered a unidirectional
72 precursor to psychopathological responses within the current context (Ahorsu et al., 2020).

73 Humans, indeed, possess a defensive system for fighting ecological threats (LeDoux, 2012;
74 Mobbs, Hagan, Dalgleish, Silston, & Prévost, 2015). Previous studies have reported that fear-
75 related emotions can lead individuals to engage in protective behaviors (e.g., improving health
76 knowledge) and often maladaptive behaviors (e.g., stigmatization and discrimination) (Rogers &
77 Prentice-Dunn, 1997; Rutter et al., 2014; Witte, Meyer, and Martell 2001).

78 A meta-analysis reported that targeting fears can be valuable in some situations (Witte and Allen
79 2000): when individuals believe they are able to defend themselves, strong fear can lead them to

80 the adaptive danger control behavior; on the contrary, when individuals feel helpless to act,
81 strong fear can lead to maladaptive control actions such as defensive avoidance or reactance
82 (Bavel et al. 2020; Witte and Allen 2000). More importantly, dealing with fear in a pandemic
83 situation could be easier for some people than others. Indeed, individual differences have been
84 associated with behavioral responses to the pandemic status (Carvalho, Pianowski, & Gonçalves,
85 2020).

86 To mitigate the COVID-19 effects on individuals' mental health, it is compelling to evaluate
87 their emotional response to this emergency. Internet searches is a direct tool to address this issue.
88 Indeed, it has been reported that the COVID-19 affected the content that people explored online
89 (Effenberger et al., 2020), and online media and platforms offer essential channels where people
90 convey their feelings and emotions and seek health-related information (Kalichman et al., 2003;
91 Reeves, 2001). In particular, Google Trends is an available data source of real-time internet
92 search pattern, which has been demonstrated to be a valid indicator of people's desires and
93 intentions (Payne, Brown-Iannuzzi, and Hannay 2017; Pelham et al. 2018). Thus, the amounts of
94 COVID-19-related internet searches revealed by Google Trends are an indicator of how people
95 feel about concepts related to the COVID-19 pandemic. A shift in online search trends reflects a
96 change in participants' interests and attitudes towards a specific topic. Based on the topic, the
97 context (i.e., the reasons causing this change), and this mutated interest per se, it is possible to
98 predict people's behavior and affective response towards the topic in question.

99 In this study, we aim to understand how emotional reaction and online search behavior has
100 changed in response to the COVID-19 lockdown in the Italian population. Studying the
101 emotional response of Italian is important because Italy was the first Western country to
102 experience a large number of COVID-19 cases and to adopt the strongest national lockdown for
103 over 2-month duration (it started on March 10th, one day before the WHO has announced the
104 COVID-19 pandemic status, and ended on May 18th) (Stella, Restocchi, & De Deyne, 2020).
105 With this regard, we expect that an ongoing pandemic threat to the individuals' health may elicit
106 a change in the online behavior and emotional reactions, especially for individuals that feel the
107 current situation with more fear and negative emotional state.

108 Findings might inform about the real-time estimation of the COVID-19 pandemic impact on
109 participants' emotional response and will provide accurate insights on the mental wellbeing of
110 the population. This new knowledge could provide some guidelines for more punctual
111 intervention strategies for individuals in need of mental health support following the COVID-19
112 situation.

113

114 **Materials & Methods**

115 We report how we determined our sample size, all data exclusions, all inclusion/exclusion
116 criteria, all manipulations, and all measures in the study. All inclusion/exclusion criteria were
117 established prior to data analysis. All data and materials are available from our project repository
118 on the Open Science Framework (<https://osf.io/32xab>). No part of the study, including the
119 analyses, was pre-registered.

120 Selection of experimental stimuli

121 We used Google Trends (<https://trends.google.com/trends/>) to assess internet activity related to
122 the COVID-19 epidemic in Italy in the first four months of 2019 and 2020. The period before
123 Italy's first confirmed COVID-19 patient (February 21st, 2020) was included as a baseline to
124 assess the COVID-related change in the temporal pattern of online searches. Indeed, Google
125 Trends determines the normalized proportion of searches for user-specified terms among all
126 searches performed using Google for a given location and time period, expressed as the relative
127 search volume (RSV) with a datapoint for each day, scaled on a [0, 100] range where 100 is the
128 maximum search interest for the time and location selected. Moreover, data from 2019 were used
129 to control for potential unspecific seasonal trends or idiosyncratic temporal patterns in RSV data
130 (for example, the word “freedom” -*libertà* in Italian- shows a peak on April 25th, the Liberation
131 Day in Italy).

132 The following terms were used: “coronavirus”, “COVID”, “COVID-19”, and “virus”. We also
133 extracted the RSV for the 1121 words included in the Italian adaptation of the English affective
134 norms (ANEW; Montefinese, Ambrosini, Fairfield, & Mammarella, 2014) by using the gtrends
135 R package (Massicotte and Eddelbuettel, 2016) for R (R Core Team, 2019). RSV data for one
136 word (mildew) were not available. We retrieved RSV data from January 1st to April 27th (most
137 current data available at the time of data retrieval), for both 2019 and 2020 years.

138 The experimental stimuli were selected among the Italian ANEW words by assessing to what
139 degree the temporal dynamics in their search trends was specifically related to that of the search
140 trend for the COVID-19 terms. We aimed to identify the Italian ANEW words that consistently
141 showed the greater change in internet activity due to the COVID-19 epidemic, while controlling
142 for unspecific RSV trends. This was done by taking four different analytical approaches based on
143 a multiverse analysis (Steenen, Tuerlinckx, Gelman, & Vanpaemel, 2016).

144 First, for each year, a COVID-related RSV time series (COVID-RSV) was computed by
145 averaging the RSV time series for the four COVID-related terms. Pearson's correlation
146 coefficients (r) were then computed between the COVID-RSV and those for the Italian ANEW
147 words (ANEW-RSV). These r values thus reflect the strength of the association between the
148 COVID-RSV and each ANEW-RSVs for both the 2019 and 2020. Next, we compared the r
149 values for 2020 and 2019 by performing Steiger's Z tests for non-overlapping correlations based
150 on dependent groups (Steiger, 1980), thus obtaining a Z value Z_{Pears} for each ANEW word.

151 Second, we computed differential RSV time series by subtracting the COVID-RSV and ANEW-
152 RSVs for 2019 from those for 2020 and computed their Pearson's correlation coefficients (r_{diff}).
153 Both Z and r_{diff} values reflect the 2020-specific change in the strength of the association between
154 the COVID-RSV and each ANEW-RSVs.

155 The same procedure described in the previous paragraph was performed after rank-
156 transformation of all original RSV data to compute non-parametric Spearman's correlation
157 coefficients ρ and ρ_{diff} , as well as the Z_{Spear} value from the Steiger's tests comparing ρ values for
158 2020 and 2019. This was done to control for both non-normality of our data and potential outlier
159 observations. We thus obtained four differential correlation measures (r_{diff} , ρ_{diff} , Z_{Pears} , and Z_{Spear})
160 reflecting the (signed) degree of the specific impact of the COVID-related interest on the search
161 trends for each ANEW word.

162 Based on these correlational measures, we selected three groups of stimuli, each composed by 20
163 words, as described below. This number of stimuli was the largest that can be reliably rated by
164 each participant during a single online session in a reasonable amount of time (based on pilot
165 testing and Montefinese et al.'s normative study (2014), which used 56-57 stimuli for each

166 participant), ensuring the reliability of the ratings and yielding the maximum possible power.
167 The first group (REL+) consisted in the words showing the highest similarity (i.e., the largest
168 positive relation) between their search trends and the search trend for the COVID-related terms.
169 By contrast, the second group (REL-) consisted in the words showing the lowest similarity (i.e.,
170 the largest negative relation) between their search trends and the search trend for the COVID-
171 related terms. In other words, the COVID-19 epidemic in Italy, and the consequent increase in
172 interest for the COVID-related terms, was related to a similar increase of interest for the REL+
173 words and a decrease of interest for the REL- words. The third group (UNREL) consisted in the
174 words for which the search trend was unrelated to the search trend for the COVID-related terms.
175 The REL+ and REL- words were selected as those consistently showing, respectively, the
176 highest and the lowest r_{diff} , ρ_{diff} , Z_{Pears} , and Z_{Spear} values. Specifically, we first selected the words
177 that were in the top (or bottom, respectively) 2.5% of the distribution for at least three out of the
178 four differential correlation values, and then selected the words with the largest differential
179 correlation values that were in the top (or bottom, respectively) 2.5% of the distribution for at
180 least two out of the four differential correlation values. The UNREL words were selected as
181 those showing the smallest differential correlation values. For all the three groups, the selection
182 was limited to nouns and verbs.

183 Figure 1 shows the differential RSV time series for the COVID-related terms and one exemplar
184 stimuli for each of the REL+ (fever, *febbre* in Italian), REL- (hotel), and UNREL ([to] disturb,
185 *disturbare* in Italian) groups. This figure illustrates the clear COVID-related increase of online
186 searches for the REL+ word “fever”, likely due to health concerns, as well as the clear COVID-
187 related decrease of online searches for the REL- word “hotel”, likely due to a more limited
188 mobility suddenly imposed to Italians during the COVID-19 lockdown.

189 The selected experimental stimuli are available at Open Science Framework (see Supplemental
190 Material <https://osf.io/2mc3k>, Table S1).

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< Please, insert Figure 1 around here >

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194 Procedure

195 An online survey was conducted using Google Forms (<https://www.google.com/forms/about/>) to
196 collect affective ratings during the lockdown caused by the COVID-19 epidemic in Italy. The
197 first section of the form consisted of the informed consent, including a basic description of the
198 study, followed by section asking participants to specify their gender, age, and education level.
199 The next sections of the form consisted in the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS,
200 Terraciano, McCrae, & Costa, 2003) and Fear of COVID-19 Scale (FCV-19S, Ahorsu et al.,
201 2020) questionnaires to evaluate participants’ positive and negative affective state (assessed,
202 respectively, with the PANAS+ and PANAS- subscales of the PANAS) and fear of COVID-19,
203 which we expected to modulate participants’ affective ratings. Finally, in the last section of the
204 form participants were asked to provide their affective ratings for the 60 experimental stimuli,
205 which were presented in a random order. Specifically, participants were instructed to rate how
206 they felt when reading each word along the three affective dimensions of valence, arousal, and
207 dominance by using the 9-point self-assessment manikin (Lang, 1980). The format and
208 instructions for the affective rating task were the same as those used in a previous work
209 (Montefinese et al., 2014).

210 Data were collected in the period from May 4th to May 17th, 2020, the last day of full lockdown
211 in Italy, from 71 adult native Italian speakers (56 females and 13 males; mean (SD) age = 26.2

212 (7.9) years; mean (SD) education = 15.3 (3.2) years). There were no other specific eligibility
213 criteria. Participants consisted of a convenience sample recruited via online advertisements
214 through social networks or identified via researchers' personal networks. It is important to note
215 that in the present study affective ratings were provided for each word by twice as many
216 participants, on average, as compared not only to the Italian ANEW norms (Montefinese et al.,
217 2014), but also to affective norms in general (e.g., Warriner, 2013), so assuring an adequate
218 reliability and generalizability of our affective ratings. It is also important to note that most of
219 our research questions involved by-items statistical analyses, so the number of participants did
220 not directly impact on the statistical power of our analysis.

221 A first sensitivity power analysis was conducted in G*Power for a mixed ANOVA on current
222 and normative ratings with three groups of 20 words, assuming a correlation between repeated
223 measures of .80 (as estimated conservatively from a previous study, Montefinese et al., 2014).
224 This analysis revealed that our sample size (60 words) was large enough to detect a small effect
225 size (Cohen's $d = .12$, corresponding to $\eta^2_p = .014$) with a power of .80. We also used the method
226 introduced by Westfall and colleagues (2014) to perform a sensitivity power analysis for a
227 stimuli-within-condition linear mixed-effects model, assuming participants, stimuli, and residual
228 variance partitioning coefficients of .1, .15, and .75, respectively (as estimated conservatively
229 from some recent unpublished studies with a similar design from our research group). This
230 analysis revealed that our sample size (71 participants and 60 words) was large enough to detect
231 a small-medium effect size ($d = .30$) with a power of .80.

232 The procedure used in the study is in accordance with the ethical standards of the 2013
233 Declaration of Helsinki for human studies of the World Medical Association. The project has
234 been approved by the Ethical Committee for the Psychological Research of the University of
235 Padova (approved protocol reference number: 3563).

236 **Data Analysis**

237 We performed a series of analysis to investigate 1) the relation between the lexical and affective
238 variables for the words we used and the COVID-dependent changes in their online searches; 2)
239 the reliability of the present affective ratings; 3) the impact of the COVID-19 lockdown in Italy
240 on affective ratings; 4) the effect of participants' emotional profile on affective ratings.

241 A first set of analyses was conducted to investigate whether the magnitude of the specific impact
242 of the COVID-related interest on the search trends for Italian ANEW words could be explained
243 by their lexical and affective variables taken from Italian ANEW norms (Montefinese et al.,
244 2014). To this aim, we first computed the zero-order parametric and non-parametric correlations
245 between the four differential correlation measures (r_{diff} , ρ_{diff} , Z_{Pears} , and Z_{Spear}), on the one side,
246 and the valence, arousal, dominance, familiarity, concreteness, and word frequency, on the other
247 side. The differential correlation values were first transformed to improve the normality of their
248 distribution by performing a natural log-transformation on their absolute values. We also
249 performed stepwise multiple regression analyses with each transformed differential correlation
250 value as the dependent variable and the lexical and affective variables as predictors. We used a
251 tolerance cutoff of .6 to minimize multicollinearity and maximize precision of the regression
252 parameter estimates.

253 We also assessed the reliability of the present affective ratings by correlating them with those of
254 the Italian ANEW norms (Montefinese et al., 2014) and by computing split-half correlations
255 corrected with the Spearman-Brown formula after 10000 randomizations.

256 We then investigated the impact of the lockdown imposed by the COVID-19 epidemic on
257 affective ratings. To this aim, we compared the affective ratings collected in the present sample

258 with those collected in the normative sample for the same stimuli. First, for each affective
259 dimension, we performed a two-tailed paired t-test contrasting the mean ratings from the present
260 and normative samples; we also performed two-tailed Welch's t-tests contrasting the individual
261 ratings for each word, followed by an internal meta-analysis to estimate combined effect sizes.
262 Moreover, we investigated whether the lockdown-dependent differences in affective ratings were
263 modulated by the specific impact of the COVID-related interest on the search trends for our
264 stimuli. For each affective dimension, we performed a by-items Welch's ANOVA on the raw
265 difference in the affective ratings between the present and the normative samples, with Stimulus
266 Type (REL+, REL-, UNREL) as a between-items factor. Post-hoc comparisons were performed
267 using Welch's t tests.
268 Lastly, we investigated whether participants' affective state and fear of COVID-19 modulated
269 their affective ratings. To this aim, for each affective dimension we performed three linear
270 mixed-effects model (LMM) analyses with the raw difference in the affective ratings as the
271 dependent variable, three parameters for 1) the fixed effects of Stimulus Type, 2) either the
272 PANAS-, PANAS+, or FCV-19S (centered), and 3) their interaction, and by-subjects and by-
273 items random intercepts.

274

275 Results

276 All data and materials necessary to replicate our analyses are available on the Open Science
277 Framework (<https://osf.io/32xab>), including participants' demographic variables and scores for
278 the FCV-19S and the PANAS- and PANAS+ subscales of the PANAS (Supplemental Material
279 available online at <https://osf.io/2mc3k>, Table S2), as well as a STROBE checklist (Table
280 S6). Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for the scales and affective ratings collected in the
281 present study, as well as for the affective ratings from the normative study (Italian ANEW
282 norms, Montefinese et al., 2014) for the same words we used here.

283

284 < Please, insert Table 1 around here >

285

286 All the results were very similar across the four differential correlation measures we used,
287 suggesting that deviations from normality and potential outliers did not bias substantially our
288 results. For the sake of brevity, we report here the results for the Z_{Spear} measure, which assures
289 the greatest protection against potential biases.

290 Impact of lexical and affective variables on COVID-dependent changes of ANEW search 291 trends

292 All the correlations were significant ($p < .001$), but (at best) moderate in size (for all the results,
293 see Table S3 in the Supplemental Material, <https://osf.io/2mc3k>).

294 The final model for the multiple regression analysis included four predictors ($F(4, 1108) = 52.6$,
295 $p < .001$, $R^2 = 15.95\%$; seven cases were not included due to missing word frequency data; see
296 Supplemental Material, <https://osf.io/8hpek>). Results showed that the specific impact of the
297 COVID-related interest on the search trends was greater for the Italian ANEW words with higher
298 word frequency ($b = 0.067$, 95% confidence interval $CI_{95\%} = [0.050, 0.085]$; $t = 7.46$; $p < .001$),
299 concreteness ($b = 0.095$, $CI_{95\%} = [0.073, 0.012]$; $t = 8.48$; $p < .001$), and valence ($b = 0.041$,
300 $CI_{95\%} = [0.023, 0.059]$; $t = 4.53$; $p < .001$), as well as for the Italian ANEW words with lower
301 arousal ($b = -0.054$, $CI_{95\%} = [-0.095, -0.012]$; $t = -2.52$; $p = .012$).

302 Reliability analysis on affective ratings

303 The reliability analysis showed very high correlations between the Italian ANEW norms
304 (Montefinese et al., 2014) and the affective ratings collected in the present sample, especially for
305 the valence (.98, .81, and .79 for valence, arousal, and dominance, respectively) and the median
306 split-half correlations were even higher (.99, .93, and .97, for valence, arousal, and dominance,
307 respectively; range = [.97, .99], [.74, .97], and [.93, .99]).

308 Lockdown impact on affective ratings

309 The analyses revealed that the lockdown imposed by the COVID-19 epidemic affected
310 participants' affective ratings. Indeed, as compared to the normative sample, our participants
311 rated the experimental stimuli with lower valence (mean difference $M_{diff} = -0.625$, $CI_{95\%} = [-$
312 $0.746, -0.503]$; $t(59) = -10.27$; $p < .001$; $d = -1.325$, $CI_{95\%} = [-1.670, -0.974]$), arousal ($M_{diff} = -$
313 0.220 , $CI_{95\%} = [-0.363, -0.077]$; $t(59) = -3.08$; $p = .003$; $d = -0.397$, $CI_{95\%} = [-0.659, -0.133]$), and
314 dominance ($M_{diff} = -0.635$, $CI_{95\%} = [-0.808, -0.461]$; $t(59) = -7.32$; $p < .001$; $d = -0.945$, $CI_{95\%} =$
315 $[-1.247, -0.638]$). These results were confirmed by the Welch's t-tests performed on each word,
316 which revealed significant differences for 26, 7, and 27 words (corresponding to 43.33%,
317 11.67%, and 45% of the words) for valence, arousal and dominance, respectively (Supplemental
318 Material <https://osf.io/2mc3k>, Table S4; see also Figure S1), as also suggested by the results of
319 the internal meta-analysis. Most of these significant differences reflected lower affective ratings
320 in the current sample, with an apparent difference in their distribution across the three types of
321 stimuli (REL+, REL-, UNREL; see Supplemental Material <https://osf.io/2mc3k>, Figure S1).
322 Indeed, for the valence, the combined effect sizes d for REL+, REL-, and UNREL words were,
323 respectively, -0.340 ($CI_{95\%} = [-0.403, -0.277]$), -0.354 ($CI_{95\%} = [-0.471, -0.237]$), and -0.178
324 ($CI_{95\%} = [-0.265, -0.092]$), with a significant difference across stimuli types ($Q^*(2) = 7.93$, $p =$
325 $.019$). For the arousal, the combined effect sizes d for REL+, REL-, and UNREL words were,
326 respectively, $.001$ ($CI_{95\%} = [-0.068, .069]$), -0.063 ($CI_{95\%} = [-0.159, 0.034]$), and -0.176 ($CI_{95\%} =$
327 $[-0.248, -0.105]$), with a significant difference across stimuli types ($Q^*(2) = 7.37$, $p = .025$). For
328 the dominance, the combined effect sizes d for REL+, REL-, and UNREL words were,
329 respectively, -0.333 ($CI_{95\%} = [-0.445, -0.221]$), -0.205 ($CI_{95\%} = [-0.330, -0.079]$), and -0.175
330 ($CI_{95\%} = [-0.267, -0.083]$), with no significant difference across stimuli types ($Q^*(2) = 4.82$, $p =$
331 $.090$).
332 These results were confirmed by the Welch's ANOVAs (see Table 2; see also Supplemental
333 Material <https://osf.io/prx4s>). Indeed, the COVID-related decrease in valence was significantly
334 different across Stimulus Types, with a smaller decrease for UNREL words as compared to both
335 REL- ($t(36.7) = -2.71$; $p = .010$; $d = -0.858$, $CI_{95\%} = [-1.525, -0.172]$) and REL+ ($t(34.8) = -2.30$;
336 $p = .028$; $d = -0.723$, $CI_{95\%} = [-1.378, -0.057]$) ones, which in turn did not differ between each
337 other ($t(31.2) = 0.23$; $p = .818$; $d = .073$, $CI_{95\%} = [-0.548, 0.693]$). Moreover, the COVID-related
338 decrease in arousal was significantly different across Stimulus Types, but this time with a
339 significantly larger decrease for UNREL words as compared to REL- ($t(37.6) = 3.09$; $p = .004$; d
340 $= 0.977$, $CI_{95\%} = [0.274, 1.166]$), but not REL+ words ($t(33.6) = 1.61$; $p = .116$; $d = 0.510$, $CI_{95\%}$
341 $= [-0.137, 1.144]$) ones, and no significant differences between REL- and REL+ words ($t(35.5) =$
342 0.96 ; $p = .342$; $d = 0.305$, $CI_{95\%} = [-0.327, 0.928]$). Finally, the COVID-related decrease in
343 dominance did not significantly differ across Stimulus Types, with similar decreases (all $|t|s <$
344 1.72 ; $ps > .096$; $|d|s < 0.541$).

345

346

347

< Please, insert Table 2 around here >

348 To sum up the results of these analysis, they provided converging evidence revealing COVID-
349 dependent changes of affective ratings, with lower valence especially for REL- and REL+ words,
350 lower arousal especially for UNREL words, and lower dominance regardless of the word group.

351 **Effect of participants' emotional profile on affective ratings**

352 The results of LMM analyses for the three affective dimensions are shown in Table 3 (see also
353 Table S5 in Supplemental Material, <https://osf.io/2mc3k>).

354 For the valence, the LMM analyses (see Supplemental Material <https://osf.io/hbnuc>) confirmed
355 that the decrease in valence ratings was significantly different across Stimulus Type and revealed
356 that this effect was modulated by participants' PANAS- and FCV-19S scores. Indeed, the
357 decrease in valence ratings was larger for participants with higher PANAS- scores ($F(1, 69) =$
358 $17.51, p < .001$) and this effect was significantly modulated by Stimulus Types ($F(2, 4128) =$
359 $6.42, p = .002$): the impact of PANAS- on the decrease in valence was smaller for both REL- and
360 REL+ words, for which the decrease in valence was evident also for participants' with lower
361 PANAS- scores; by contrast, the decrease in valence for UNREL words was evident in
362 participants with higher PANAS- scores only (Figure 2A). A similar pattern was observed for the
363 model assessing the impact of participants' FCV-19S scores, with a significant two way
364 interaction ($F(2, 4128) = 15.06, p < .001$) as shown in Figure 2C.

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< Please, insert Table 3 around here >

367

368 For the arousal, the LMM analyses (see Supplemental Material <https://osf.io/j4kym>) revealed
369 that participants' ratings were positively related to both their PANAS- ($F(1, 69) = 12.32, p <$
370 $.001$; Figure 2D) and FCV-19S ($F(1, 69) = 5.40, p = .023$) scores, and this latter effect was
371 significantly modulated by Stimulus Types ($F(2, 4128) = 3.20, p = .041$): the impact of FCV-19S
372 on arousal ratings was larger for both REL- and REL+ words, for which participants with higher
373 FCV-19S scores tended to show an increase in arousal ratings, as compared to UNREL ones
374 (Figure 2F). By contrast, participants' arousal ratings were negatively related to their PANAS+
375 scores ($F(1, 69) = 4.40, p = .040$), especially for the REL- words as compared to the UNREL
376 ones ($F(2, 4128) = 3.86, p = .021$; Figure 2E).

377 For the dominance, the LMM analyses (see Supplemental Material <https://osf.io/5w7pc>) revealed
378 that participants' ratings were related positively to their PANAS+ scores ($F(1, 69) = 10.98, p <$
379 $.001$; Figure 2H), but negatively to both their FCV-19S ($F(1, 69) = 7.07, p = .010$; Figure 2I) and
380 PANAS- ($F(1, 69) = 10.72, p = .002$) scores, and this latter effect was significantly modulated by
381 Stimulus Types ($F(2, 4128) = 7.45, p < .001$): the impact of PANAS- on the decrease in
382 dominance was smaller for both REL- and REL+ words, for which the decrease in dominance
383 was evident also for participants' with lower PANAS- scores; by contrast, the decrease in
384 dominance for UNREL words was evident in participants with higher PANAS- scores only
385 (Figure 2G-I). A similar pattern was observed for the model assessing the impact of participants'
386 FCV-19S scores, as shown in Figure 2I, but the two way interaction did not reach the
387 significance level ($F(2, 4128) = 2.26, p = .105$).

388

389

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390

391 **Discussion**

392 The present study exploited Google Trends data to understand how online search behavior and
393 emotional reactions to common concepts have changed in response to the COVID-19 lockdown

394 in the Italian population. First, we found that the concepts more often searched online by the
395 individuals during the lockdown were those with a higher frequency of use, those more concrete
396 and positive, as well as those less arousing. These results suggest that intrinsic lexical-semantic
397 properties per se were related to the COVID-related lockdown effect on individuals' online
398 search interest.

399 We also asked participants to evaluate valence, arousal, and dominance of concepts (represented
400 by Italian words) using the Self-Assessment Manikin (SAM) in a Web survey procedure. This
401 type of approach informs on the relation between current context and individuals' emotions and
402 mental distress mostly from the perspective that emotions of the isolated individuals are
403 conveyed mainly in the linguistic modality. Participants' ratings resulted highly reliable,
404 especially the valence, corroborating previous findings (Warriner et al., 2013; Montefinese et al.
405 2014). Indeed, the concept of "valence" is more straightforward since it is founded on ancestral
406 motivational brain circuits that developed to ensure individual survival by reacting to appetitive
407 and aversive environmental cues (Lang & Bradley, 2010). Accordingly, it has been shown that
408 the valence dimension exists in all cultures (Russell, 1991).

409 Interestingly, we found that lockdown imposed by the COVID-19 epidemic had a substantial
410 impact on participants' emotional responses, with lower affective judgments compared to the
411 normative sample, especially for valence and dominance. In other words, when facing common
412 concepts during COVID-related confinement, individuals experienced more negative feelings as
413 well as feelings of being less aroused and less in control.

414 The results concerning the valence and dominance dimensions are consistent with the expected
415 individuals' stronger feelings of fear and reduced sense of agency (and a consequent subjective
416 perception of being in an out-of-control situation) in the current context, that is, an imminent
417 threat to the humanity health (Stevenson et al., 2007; Warriner et al., 2013).

418 Feelings of fear and reduced sense of agency might be the source of similar results found on
419 previous studies using semantic and emotional network analysis on social discourse in Italian
420 tweets at the end of the first lockdown (Stella et al., 2020; Stella, 2020). Stella (2020) showed
421 that Italian participants tended to re-share a greater number of messages expressing fearful ideas,
422 probably triggered by the strong affinity of the tweets' content and the feeling of individuals
423 following the sudden raises in the COVID-19 contagion curve after the reopening. Fear is also
424 the emotional concept most frequently produced by Italian participants in relation to the COVID-
425 19 concept in a word association task (i.e., participants listed concepts coming in mind in
426 response to a given concept) (Mazzucca et al., 2020).

427 However, the result reported on the arousal dimension was quite unexpected, as the lockdown
428 was expected to make individuals more activated in general. This apparent counterintuitive result
429 was better qualified when considering the stimulus type in the analysis. The pattern of results
430 was indeed driven by a decrease of arousal in participants for concepts unrelated to the COVID-
431 19 topic (e.g., orgasm, ocean), reflecting a loss of interest and activation in COVID-unrelated
432 topics during the COVID-19 pandemic. A semantic network analysis of tweets posted in relation
433 to the COVID-19 pandemic during a period of social restrictions found psychophysiological

434 numbing in individuals across 19 countries: Twitter users increasingly fixate on mortality, but in
435 a decreasingly emotional and increasingly analytic tone (Dyer & Kolic, 2020). Importantly, our
436 results indicate that the individuals' subjective emotional profile modulated their lockdown-
437 related changes in affective judgements of COVID-related and -unrelated concepts. Indeed,
438 participants that felt the ongoing situation with less fear and a less negative affective state tended
439 to rate only the COVID-related concepts with less valence and dominance, and all the concepts
440 with less arousal. Concepts related to most feared medical conditions are also the most negative,
441 the least controllable, and the most anxiety provoking (Warriner et al., 2013), thus the affective
442 reaction of these participants is understandable, also considering the limitations imposed by the
443 lockdown; moreover, it could even be considered as somewhat adaptive, as it may promote the
444 engagement in social distancing and restrictive behavior and, thus, the avoidance of situations
445 that increase the risk of contagion.

446 Conversely, the participants with a more negative affective state presented the same pattern (i.e.,
447 less valence and dominance) for the COVID-unrelated concepts as well, but they were also more
448 aroused by all the concepts. Their affective response was thus unspecific and potentially
449 maladaptive (Ruiter et al., 2014; Witte et al., 2001). Other studies have shown that negative
450 effects of epidemic crisis and threat to the humanity such as higher anxiety and lower wellbeing
451 affected individuals' mental health (Kachanoff et al., 2020; Duncan, Schaller and Park, 2009;
452 Pappas et al., 2009). By means of network analysis, Stella and colleagues (2020) detected
453 emotions of anger, fear, and anxiety through social media in the Italian population following
454 social distancing. When testing the effects of fear induction through film clips or virtual reality
455 experience on participants' emotional reactivity, several studies revealed that in fear and threat
456 conditions participants reported feeling less in control in combination with more arousal and
457 negative valence (Fernández-Aguilar et al., 2020; Palomba, Sarlo, Angrilli, Mini & Stegagno,
458 2000; Thompson et al., 2018).

459 **Conclusions**

460 Our results comprise initial evidence on the association between personality traits and social
461 distancing during the COVID-19 pandemic. They show a rich picture of emotional reactions of
462 Italians to tight and 2-month long confinement, identifying early signals of mental health
463 distress. Taken together with early surveys carried out on Italian samples on emotional response
464 to COVID-19 pandemic (Bischetti, Canal and Bambini 2020; Rossi et al. 2020), they are an alert
465 to the need for intervention strategies and psychological assessment of individuals potentially
466 needing mental health support following the COVID-19 situation. While online surveys and
467 questionnaires may directly address this issue, they are limited by the difficulty and the cost of
468 multiple measures across time. Instead, the analysis of emotional dimension of language and
469 words used in the web and in social chats allows non-invasive multiple measure across time of
470 affective condition of population and represents an indirect but useful marker of psychiatric
471 sufferance and mental distress.

472 Nevertheless, methodological limitations of our study must be acknowledged. First, we used
473 Google Trends for the selection of our stimuli, but it only captures the search behavior of people

474 who use Google and other search engines were thus excluded from this investigation. Second,
475 our study employed an online task limited to Italian participants only. Consequently, we are not
476 able to exclude that people from different nations and cultures or from a different social status
477 (without internet) might have been impacted differently by COVID-19. Third, we focused on two
478 self-report measures and did not employ a multidimensional approach. More research is thus
479 necessary to see if our initial findings replicate on people with different cultures and languages,
480 socioeconomic status and with a multidimensional approach.

481

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Table 1 (on next page)

Descriptive statistics

1 **Table 1. Descriptive statistics**

	Affective ratings											
	PANAS-	PANAS+	FCV-19S	VAL	REL-	REL+	UNREL	ARO	DOM	VAL	ARO	DOM
<i>Present sample (n = 71)</i>												
M	19.99	28.08	13.56	5.80	5.17	4.98	5.58	5.47	4.88	4.06	5.63	4.26
SD	7.47	6.68	5.46	0.58	0.76	0.55	0.49	0.85	0.62	0.48	0.66	0.62
min	10	16	7	4.45	3.35	3.75	4.45	3.5	3.55	3.05	4.2	2.95
max	37	48	29	7.05	6.65	6.3	6.9	7.1	6.4	5.2	6.8	5.5
<i>Normative data (mean n = 34.5)^a</i>												
M				6.52	5.18	5.82	6.33	5.65	5.44	4.45	6.10	4.76
SD				1.56	0.92	0.72	2.04	0.85	1.11	2.21	0.87	1.04
min				1.72	2.82	4.76	2.25	4.06	3.30	1.79	4.83	2.76
max				8.67	6.97	7.50	8.56	7.39	7.18	8.24	7.88	7.09

- 2 *Notes:* ^a, data computed from the Italian ANEW norms (Montefinese et al., 2014). PANAS-, negative
3 subscale of the PANAS; PANAS+, positive subscale of the PANAS; FCV-19S, fear of COVID-19 scale; VAL,
4 valence; ARO, arousal; DOM, dominance

Table 2 (on next page)

Results of the Welch's ANOVAs on rating differences and related descriptive statistics

1 **Table 2. Results of the Welch's ANOVAs on rating differences and related descriptive statistics**

	Welch's ANOVA					REL+		REL-		UNREL	
	<i>F</i>	df1	df2	<i>p</i>	η^2_p	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Valence	4.31	2	36.67	0.021	0.190	-0.76	0.57	-0.72	0.34	-0.40	0.41
Arousal	4.80	2	37.22	0.014	0.205	-0.18	0.64	-0.01	0.49	-0.46	0.44
Dominance	1.52	2	37.41	0.232	0.075	-0.56	0.72	-0.85	0.71	-0.50	0.56

2

Table 3 (on next page)

Results of the LMM analyses, omnibus tests for fixed effects.

1 **Table 3. Results of the LMM analyses, omnibus tests for fixed effects.**

<i>Model</i> (Effect)	Valence				Arousal				Dominance			
	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
PANAS-												
StimType	3.89	2	57	.026	3.73	2	57	.030	1.53	2	57	.224
PANAS-	17.51	1	69	<.001	12.32	1	69	<.001	10.72	1	69	.002
StimType*PANAS-	6.42	2	4128	.002	1.44	2	4128	.238	7.45	2	4128	<.001
PANAS+												
StimType	3.89	2	57	.026	3.73	2	57	.030	1.53	2	57	.224
PANAS+	0.68	1	69	.413	4.40	1	69	.040	10.98	1	69	.001
StimType*PANAS+	0.13	2	4128	.877	3.86	2	4128	.021	1.05	2	4128	.351
FCV-19S												
StimType	3.89	2	57	.026	3.73	2	57	.030	1.53	2	57	.224
FCV-19S	1.03	1	69	.314	5.40	1	69	.023	7.07	1	69	.010
StimType*FCV-19S	15.06	2	4128	<.001	3.20	2	4128	.041	2.26	2	4128	.105

2 *Notes:* StimType, stimulus type; df, degrees of freedom.

3

Figure 1

Search trends for exemplar experimental stimuli.

The line plots represent the differential RSV time series for the COVID-related terms (black solid line) and for an exemplar stimulus for each group of words selected: fever (green solid line, for the REL+ group) and hotel (red dashed line, for the REL- group), which showed respectively the largest positive and negative correlation with the data for the COVID-related terms, and disturb (purple dotted line, for the UNREL group), which showed the smallest absolute correlation with the data for the COVID-related terms. The differential RSV time series were normalized in the [0, 1] range for visualization purposes.

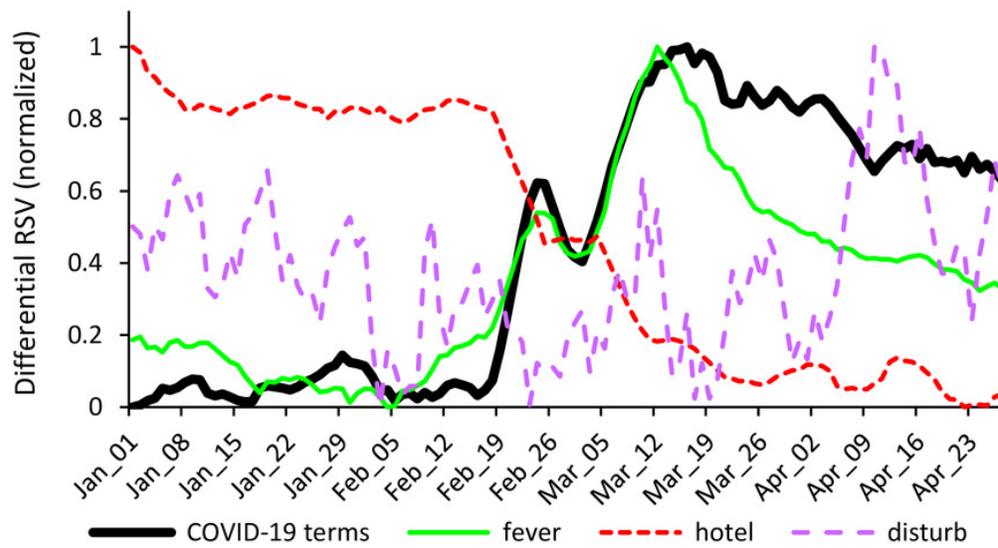


Figure 2

Results of the LMM analyses, two-way interactions.

The line plots show the COVID-related differences (Δ) in affective ratings (Valence, top row; Arousal, middle row; Dominance, bottom row) as a function of both Stimulus Type (REL-, green dashed line; REL+, light blue dotted line; UNREL, orange solid line) and participants' affective state as measured by the PANAS- (left column), PANAS+ (middle column), and FCV-19S (FCV, right column) scores. The shaded regions represent the standard error of the mean.

