

Self voting classification model for online meeting app review sentiment analysis and topic modeling

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Online meeting applications (apps) have emerged as a potential solution for conferencing, education and meetings, etc. during the COVID-19 outbreak and are used by private companies and governments alike. A large number of such apps compete with each other by providing a different set of functions towards users' satisfaction. These apps take users' feedback in the form of opinions and reviews which are later used to improve the quality of services. Sentiment analysis serves as the key function to obtain and analyze users' sentiments from the posted feedback indicating the importance of efficient and accurate sentiment analysis. This study proposes the novel idea of self voting classification (SVC) where multiple variants of the same model are trained using different feature extraction approaches and the final prediction is based on the ensemble of these variants. For experiments, the data collected from the Google play store for online meeting apps are used. Primarily, the focus of this study is to use a support vector machine (SVM) with the proposed SVC approach using both soft voting (SV) and hard voting (HV) criteria, however, decision tree, logistic regression, and k nearest neighbor have also been investigated for performance appraisal. Three variants of models are trained on a bag of words, term frequency-inverse document frequency, and hashing features to make the ensemble. Experimental results indicate that the proposed SVC approach can elevate the performance of traditional machine learning models substantially. The SVM obtains 1.00 and 0.98 accuracy scores, using HV and SV criteria, respectively when used with the proposed SVC approach. Topic-wise sentiment analysis using the latent Dirichlet allocation technique is performed as well for topic modeling.

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16 ABSTRACT

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18 and meetings, etc. during the COVID-19 outbreak and are used by private companies and governments
19 alike. A large number of such apps compete with each other by providing a different set of functions
20 towards users' satisfaction. These apps take users' feedback in the form of opinions and reviews which
21 are later used to improve the quality of services. Sentiment analysis serves as the key function to
22 obtain and analyze users' sentiments from the posted feedback indicating the importance of efficient
23 and accurate sentiment analysis. This study proposes the novel idea of self voting classification (SVC)
24 where multiple variants of the same model are trained using different feature extraction approaches and
25 the final prediction is based on the ensemble of these variants. For experiments, the data collected
26 from the Google play store for online meeting apps are used. Primarily, the focus of this study is to
27 use a support vector machine (SVM) with the proposed SVC approach using both soft voting (SV) and
28 hard voting (HV) criteria, however, decision tree, logistic regression, and k nearest neighbor have also
29 been investigated for performance appraisal. Three variants of models are trained on a bag of words,
30 term frequency-inverse document frequency, and hashing features to make the ensemble. Experimental
31 results indicate that the proposed SVC approach can elevate the performance of traditional machine
32 learning models substantially. The SVM obtains 1.00 and 0.98 accuracy scores, using HV and SV criteria,
33 respectively when used with the proposed SVC approach. Topic-wise sentiment analysis using the latent
34 Dirichlet allocation technique is performed as well for topic modeling.

35 INTRODUCTION

36 Online meeting applications (apps) have emerged as a potential solution for meetings, online education,
37 discussion forums, etc. during the COVID-19 pandemic. Many companies and governments alike initiated
38 the concept of working from home. Similarly, educational institutes start remote classes online, business
39 meetings are organized virtually and this has become possible using online meetings apps such as Google
40 Meet, Zoom, Microsoft team viewer, etc. Reports show that 75% of employees depend on online video
41 conference technology amid the COVID-19 pandemic (25). Similarly, 30% travel expenses have been
42 dropped down and 11000 US dollars (USD) have been saved by companies per employee using these
43 online video conference plate forms (25). Online meeting apps have been presented both for computers
44 and mobile devices, the major part of which constitute smartphones. A large number of online meeting
45 apps are available on the Google play store and new apps are begin contrived and developed by different

46 companies. The rise in the development of meeting apps is attributed to significant growth of 8.1% in
47 2020 amid the traveling and office working constraints during the COVID-19 outbreak (business insights).
48 This growth is expected to reach a total of 12.99 billion USD by 2028 which is currently 6.28 billion USD
49 (business insights).

50 Available online meeting apps provide a rich variety of functions to facilitate online meetings, however,
51 such apps are not without their demerits which often come from the bugs in the app programming.
52 Similarly, the level of satisfaction for one app varies from the other regarding user-friendliness, functions,
53 cost, etc. User gives reviews about apps' features and discusses the issues they face while using such apps.
54 Such reviews/opinions contain the sentiments of users and are helpful to point out the limitations and
55 suggest additional features to increase the level of quality and user satisfaction. However, finding and
56 prioritizing such views require a systematic analysis of the app's reviews using a suitable approach.

57 This study presents a systematic approach to perform sentiment analysis and topic modeling of
58 online meeting app reviews to find people's opinions regarding the use of such apps. For this purpose, a
59 supervised machine learning framework is utilized and the following contributions are made

- 60 • The study performs sentiment analysis of tweets for online meeting apps using a novel self-voting
61 ensemble model. The self-voting model combines three variants of the same model, however, the
62 features fed to each model are different. Performance is analyzed using both the hard voting and
63 soft voting criteria.
- 64 • For performance analysis, support vector machine (SVM), decision tree (DT), logistic regression
65 (LR), and k nearest neighbor (KNN) models are used with three different feature extraction
66 approaches including term frequency-inverse document frequency (TF-IDF), the bag of words
67 (BoW), and hashing.
- 68 • For experiments, a large dataset of online meeting apps tweets has been collected. Dataset is labeled
69 using the valence aware dictionary for sentiment reasoning (VADER) while for topic modeling,
70 the latent Dirichlet allocation (LDA) approach is used. Performance is evaluated using accuracy,
71 precision, recall, and F1 score. In addition, a comparison of the proposed model is carried out with
72 the state-of-the-art approaches.

73 The rest of the paper is structured as follows: Section 'Related Work' discusses research works related
74 to app reviews and hybrid approaches. The proposed research methodology for app reviews sentiment
75 analysis and its related contents are presented after that. It is followed by the discussion of results. In the
76 end, the conclusion is given in the last section.

77 RELATED WORK

78 Reviews analysis has become one of the most widely researched areas over the past few years due to
79 the popularity of social media platforms. In addition, many service providers provide online services
80 and ask customers for feedback or views regarding the quality of services. Such reviews have significant
81 importance to determine the quality of the services/products. However, it requires analyzing the text/views
82 for user conceptions and perceptions. Especially the negative sentiment reviews contain more important
83 points for improving the quality. Keeping in view the importance of text analysis, a large body of work is
84 available regarding sentiment analysis.

85 The study (22) investigates the Shopify app reviews using supervised machine learning models. The
86 authors perform sentiment analysis for the Shopify app using the reviews dataset with a hybrid approach
87 comprising logistic regression (LR), TF-IDF features, and chi-square (χ^2) features. The χ^2 is used
88 to select the important features for training while LR classifies the reviews into happy and unhappy
89 and obtains a 79% accuracy score. Similarly, the authors use the word vector approach for app reviews
90 sentiment analysis in (5). Experiments to show the effectiveness of vector-based features for sentiment
91 analysis show that an 85.77% F1 score is obtained using Naive Bayes (NB). The study (16) performs
92 sentiment analysis on an Irish health service executive's COVID-19 contact tracing app. Manual sentiment
93 analysis on 1287 reviews extracted from Google and Apple play stores is performed.

94 Some studies also worked on employee reviews to evaluate employees' sentiments regarding the
95 company's policies. For example, (20) performs employee reviews classification using a supervised
96 machine learning approach. The authors utilize multilayered perceptron (MLP) to achieve an 83%

97 accuracy score. Review annotation plays a critical role in the performance of classification models and
98 occasionally contradictions are found in the human and machine learning models annotation. The use
99 of lexicon-based approaches has been investigated for data annotation and its impact on the models'
100 performance (24). For example, study (27) uses the reviews regarding the online food delivery apps
101 Swiggy, Zomato, and UberEats for sentiment analysis. The study shows the suitability of lexicon-based
102 approaches for sentiment classification.

103 Investigating the suitability of features is an important aspect of sentiment analysis. Often, the
104 change in the feature engineering method leads to a change in models' performance (9; 28). The study
105 (15) proposed an approach for employee reviews classification and evaluation. It uses an extra trees
106 classifier (ETC) and bag of words (BoW) feature for employee reviews classification. The study uses both
107 numerical and text features for employee reviews classification and achieved 100% and 79% accuracy
108 scores, respectively. The study (26), proposed a sentiment classification approach. They combined
109 CNN and Bidirectional LSTM (Conv-BiLSTM) for tweets sentiment classification. Conv-bi-LSTM
110 with Word2Vec performs significantly with 91.13% accuracy. Another study (7), proposed a hybrid
111 model CNN-LSTM for consumer sentiment analysis. They deployed the proposed model on qualitative
112 user-generated content for sentiment analysis and achieved 91.3% accuracy.

113 Studies show that the performance of the ensemble and hybrid models is superior to that of single
114 models for sentiment analysis (8). For example, (17) uses a hybrid model of bi-LSTM models to obtain
115 higher accuracy for sentiment classification. Similarly, (18) adopts a hybrid model of regression vector
116 voting classifier for toxic sentiments classification. Keeping in view the performance of ensemble
117 classifiers and voting mechanisms, this study adopts the voting approach for the proposed ensemble model.
118 However, contrary to previous studies that use voting from different models, this study proposes the novel
119 use of self-voting criteria for sentiment analysis of online meeting apps.

120 PROPOSED APPROACH

121 This study utilizes a machine learning approach for the sentiment classification of online meeting app
122 reviews. This analysis can help online meeting apps owner to improve the app quality to attract more
123 users. We analyze the sentiments of users so that the app owners can get insights on important features of
124 apps and improve them in the light of users' sentiments.

125 The architecture of the proposed approach is shown in Figure 1. For the proposed approach, initially,
126 the dataset is collected from the Google play store using the Google app reviews crawler. The collected
127 dataset contains app reviews related to online meeting apps in their raw form and contains unnecessary
128 and redundant information. To clean reviews text, several preprocessing steps are applied to reduce the
129 complexity of the text. Afterward, the dataset is annotated using the lexicon-based technique VADER. For
130 models' training, feature extraction is performed. For this purpose, three feature extraction techniques are
131 investigated including TF-IDF, BoW, and hashing. The performance of many machine learning models
132 is analyzed including SVM, DT, LR, KNN, and RF. In the end, the models are evaluated in terms of
133 accuracy, precision, recall, and F1 score. In addition to sentiment analysis, this study also performs the
134 topic modeling using the LDA model.



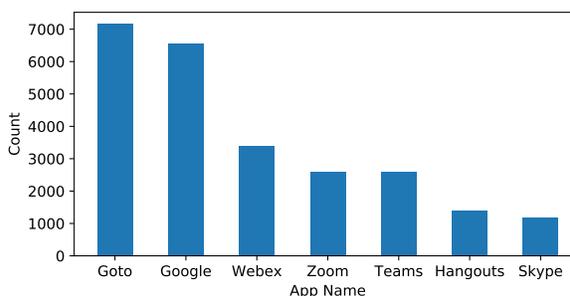
Figure 1. Steps followed in the adopted methodology.

135 Dataset Description

136 The dataset is extracted from the Google play store for several online meeting apps including 'Google
 137 Meet', 'Goto Meeting', 'Zoom Meeting', 'Skype', 'Hangouts', 'Microsoft Teams', and 'Webex Meeting'.
 138 These apps have been selected regarding their overall rating on the Google play store. The app's reviews
 139 are extracted for the period of 12 October 2018 to 7 December 2021. This study considers only the
 140 reviews given in the English language. The reviews are collected using the Google play scraper library.
 141 The collected dataset contains the review id, user name, the content of reviews, score by user for the app,
 142 thumbs up count, review created version, and data for the review posted. The reviews contain opinions of
 143 users regarding particular positive and negative features of an app. Besides criticism, such reviews also
 144 contain suggestions for improvement or the addition of new features. These reviews are very helpful for
 145 app companies to make changes according to user sentiments. Sample data from the collected dataset is
 146 shown in Table 1. The number of reviews varies for each app and the distribution of reviews is provided
 147 in Figure 2.

Table 1. Dataset attributes and their description.

No.	reviewId	userName	content
0	gp:AOqp,...	Rick S	Only works intermittently,...
1	gp:AOqp,...	Angela Tudorii	I've been using Skype for,...
2	gp:AOqp,...	Adriana Rodriguez	Horrible! Have not been ...
3	gp:AOqp,...	Chloe	Took FOREVER to sign in,...
score	thumbsUpCount	reviewCreatedVersion	at
4	323	8.78.0.164	11/14/2021 6:42
2	238	8.78.0.164	11/14/2021 7:17
4	64	8.78.0.164	11/28/2021 22:34
1	33	8.78.0.164	11/25/2021 7:15

**Figure 2.** Distribution of reviews for each app.

148 Preprocessing Steps

149 Preprocessing is an important part of text analysis which helps to reduce the complexity of feature
 150 vectors and improves models' performance (12). The extracted dataset contains irrelevant and redundant
 151 information which can be removed to reduce the feature complexity without affecting the models'
 152 performance. Several preprocessing steps are used to clean data such as removal of numbers, removal of
 153 punctuation, conversion to lowercase, stemming, and removal of stopwords.

- 154 • **Removal of numbers:** Occasionally user reviews contain numbers that do not contribute to
 155 sentiment classification. These numbers are removed using the Python function `isalpha()` which
 156 ensures that only characters are forwarded for further preprocessing.
- 157 • **Removal of punctuation:** Text contain lots of punctuation marks that help humans understand
 158 the intended meaning. However, punctuation is not useful for sentiment analysis using machine
 159 learning models. The punctuation marks are removed to reduce feature complexity.
- 160 • **Convert to lowercase:** This preprocessing step helps to reduce the complexity of the feature vector.
 161 Feature extraction techniques consider lower and upper case words as unique words. For example,
 162 'User', 'user', and 'USER' convey the same meaning for humans but feature extraction techniques
 163 treat them as unique words. Conversion to lowercase helps to reduce complexity.
- 164 • **Stemming:** Stemming is another very helpful preprocessing step to reduce the feature complexity.
 165 It changes different forms of the same word to its root form. For example, 'go', 'going' and 'goes'
 166 are changed to their basic form 'go'. Porter stemmer library is used for this purpose.
- 167 • **Removal of Stopwords:** Text contain lots of stopwords to improve text readability for humans, for
 168 machine learning approaches, they are useless. Consequently, removing the words such as 'is', 'an',
 169 'the', 'and' etc. helps to reduce the feature set and improve classification performance.

170 Sample text data from the collected dataset, before and after the preprocessing steps is shown in Table

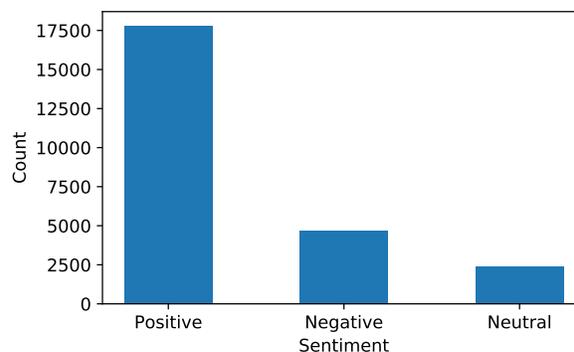
171 2.

Table 2. Preprocessing results on sample reviews

Reviews	After Preprocessing
I would prefer to see the app show any video calls in a minimized window on mobile devices like it would in the past.	prefer see app show any video call minimizi window movile devic past
I think they're actively trying to make it worse.	think activi try make worse

172 Valence Aware Dictionary for Sentiment Reasoning

173 VADER is used for sentiment extraction from text data. VADER analyzes the polarity and sensitivity
174 of sentiment in the text and finds the sentiment score by adding the intensities of each word in the text
175 (6). The sentiment score range varies between -4.0 to +4.0, where -4 is the most negative and +4 is the
176 most positive sentiment score. The midpoint 0 represents a neutral sentiment. Figure 3 shows the ratio of
177 positive, negative, and neutral sentiments in the dataset extracted using VADER.

**Figure 3.** Distribution of sentiments for the collected dataset.

178 Latent Dirichlet Allocation

179 LDA is a modeling technique used to extract topics from a text corpus. Latent means 'hidden' which
180 shows that it is used to extract hidden topics in data (2). LDA is based on Dirichlet distributions and
181 processes and uses two metrics for topic modeling. Probability distribution of topics in documents and
182 probability distribution of words in topics are used for topic modeling (1).

183 Feature Engineering

184 The feature extraction techniques are required for training the machine learning models. This study uses
185 three feature extraction techniques to train the models.

186 **Bag of Words** The BoW is the simplest technique used for feature extraction from text data (20). BoW
187 technique counts the appearance of each unique term from the corpus and makes a vector for the machine
188 learning models. Depending upon the number of occurrences of different words, text similarity can be
189 determined using the BoW feature vector. BoW features are extracted using the CountVectorizer Sci-Kit
190 learn library.

191 **Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency** TF-IDF is a widely used feature selection technique in
192 text classification domain (22). Contrary to simple frequency count in BoW, TF-IDF makes a weighted
193 feature. TF counts the frequency while IDF calculates the weights of each term in the corpus. IDF
194 considers less frequent words more important and assigns them higher weights. TF, IDF, and TF-IDF are
195 calculated using

$$tf = TF_{p,q} \quad (1)$$

196 where tf is the term frequency of term p in document q .

$$idf = \log \frac{N_r}{D_p} \quad (2)$$

197 where N_r is the number of documents in a corpus and D_p is the number of documents containing the
198 term p . TF-IDF can be obtained by multiplying tf and idf .

199 **Hashing** Hashing is another text feature extraction technique that converts text corpus into a matrix of
200 token occurrences (10). It is a memory-efficient algorithm that requires low memory for a large dataset. It
201 does not store a vocabulary dictionary in memory and is very suitable for large datasets.

202 Machine Learning Models

203 This study uses four machine learning models including SVM, DT, LR, and KNN to validate the proposed
204 self-voting approach. These models are used with their best hyperparameters setting according to the
205 dataset. To select the best hyperparameters values ranges are obtained from the literature and fine-tuned to
206 obtain the best performance (17; 13). The hyperparameter setting and tuning range are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Optimized hyperparameters setting for machine learning models.

Model	Hyper-parameters	Tuning Range
DT	max_depth = 300	max_depth = {2 to 500}
SVM	kernel = 'linear', C = 1.0	kernel = {'linear', 'poly', 'sigmoid'}, C = {1.0 to 5.0}
LR	Solver = saga, C = 1.0, multi_class = multinomial	Solver = {saga, sag, liblinear}, C = {1.0 to 5.0}, multi_class = {ovr, multinomial}
KNN	n_neighbors = 5	n_neighbors = {2 to 8}

207 Self-Voting Classifier

208 This study proposes a novel voting classifier, called a self-voting classifier. Traditional ensemble models
209 follow a group voting mechanism, using heterogeneous models where the output of multiple models is
210 combined using soft or hard voting criteria. Since the performance of different models vary, combining
211 the prediction of multiple models improves the classification performance (23; 19; 18). Contrary to the
212 group voting from heterogeneous models, this study adopts the self-voting ensemble where the output
213 of the three different variants of SVM is combined to make the final prediction. Since the performance
214 of a model varies with respect to the features fed for training, the idea is to feed multiple features to the
215 same model and combine them to make the ensemble. Three SVM variants have been trained on different
216 feature vectors including BoW, TF-IDF, and hashing features. The performance of self voting approach is
217 investigated both using the soft and hard voting criteria.

218 Figure 4 shows the process followed for soft voting (SV) where the probabilities predicted from
219 each SVM variant is considered to calculate the average prediction probability of each class. SVM-SV
220 approach follows these steps. First, TF-IDF features are used for training the SVM using 3.

$$tfidf = tf_{p,q} * \log\left(\frac{N_r}{D_q}\right) \quad (3)$$

221 where $tfidf$ gives weights for terms in the corpus using the TF-IDF.

$$tfidf_{set} = \begin{pmatrix} F_1 & F_2 & \dots & F_m \\ tfidf_{1x1} & tfidf_{1x2} & \dots & tfidf_{1xm} \\ tfidf_{2x1} & tfidf_{2x2} & \dots & tfidf_{2xm} \\ \cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\ tfidf_{nx1} & tfidf_{nx2} & \dots & tfidf_{n xm} \end{pmatrix} \quad (4)$$

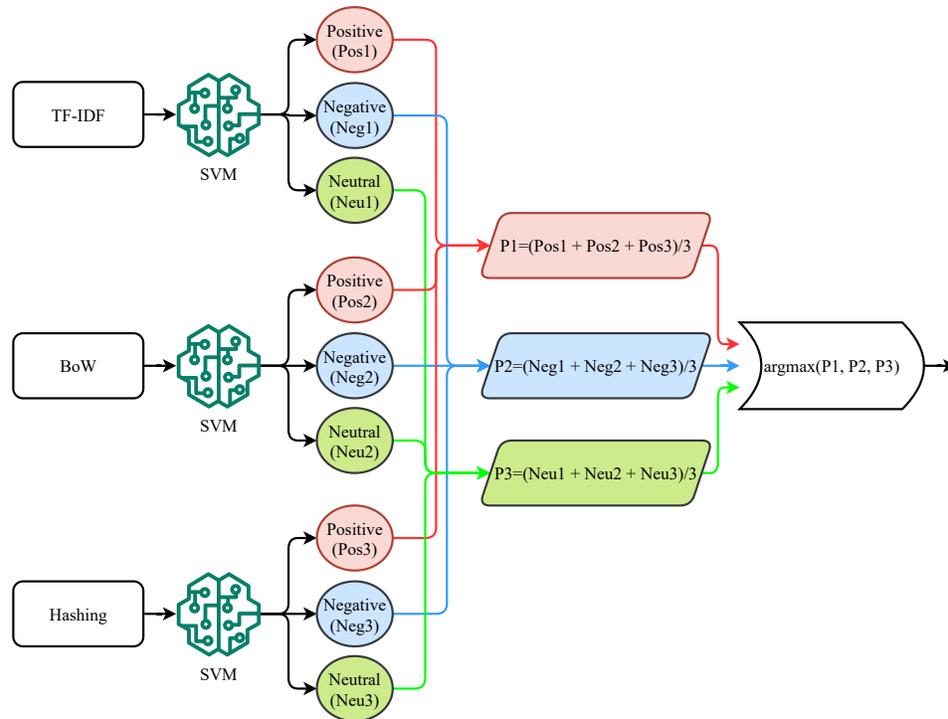


Figure 4. Soft voting mechanism used for the proposed approach.

222 The $tfidf_{set}$ is a feature set extracted using the TF-IDF technique and m is the number of features.
 223 The unique words that belong to (N_r) number of reviews can be represented as

$$f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n \in N_r \text{ and } N=n \quad (5)$$

224 Similar to TF-IDF, two SVM variants are trained on BoW and hashing features, respectively.

$$bow = Count(t, N_{r,i}) \quad (6)$$

225 where BoW is the count of term t in a review $N(r,i)$ where $N(r,i) \in N_r$ and below bow_{set} is a feature
 226 set extracted using the BoW technique.

$$bow_{set} = \begin{pmatrix} F_1 & F_2 & \dots & F_m \\ bow_{1x1} & bow_{1x2} & \dots & bow_{1xm} \\ bow_{2x1} & bow_{2x2} & \dots & bow_{2xm} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ bow_{nx1} & bow_{nx2} & \dots & bow_{n xm} \end{pmatrix} \quad (7)$$

227 For hashing features, the feature set can be defined as

$$h = hash(str) = str[0] + str[1]pn^1 + \dots + str[n]pn^n \quad (8)$$

228 where h is the value of a string (str) calculated using hashing vectorizer function, pn is a prime
 229 number, $str[i]$ is a character code, q is the index value and p is the value for the number of str strings.

$$hash_{set} = \begin{pmatrix} F_1 & F_2 & \dots & F_m \\ h_{1x1} & h_{1x2} & \dots & h_{1xm} \\ h_{2x1} & h_{2x2} & \dots & h_{2xm} \\ \cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & & \cdot \\ h_{nx1} & h_{nx2} & \dots & h_{n xm} \end{pmatrix} \quad (9)$$

230 Using the $tfidf_{set}$, bow_{set} , and $hash_{set}$ feature sets, three SVM variants are trained as follows

$$svm_{t1} = SVM(tfidf_{set}) \quad (10)$$

$$svm_{t2} = SVM(bow_{set}) \quad (11)$$

$$svm_{t3} = SVM(hash_{set}) \quad (12)$$

231 where svm_{t1} , svm_{t2} , and svm_{t3} are trained SVM using each feature set and can be combined to make
232 the final prediction using SV criteria.

$$pos_{p1}, neg_{p1}, neu_{p1} = svm_{t1}(TD_{features}) \quad (13)$$

$$pos_{p2}, neg_{p2}, neu_{p2} = svm_{t2}(TD_{features}) \quad (14)$$

$$pos_{p3}, neg_{p3}, neu_{p3} = svm_{t3}(TD_{features}) \quad (15)$$

233 where pos_p , neg_p , and neu_p are probabilities for positive, negative, and neutral target classes, respec-
234 tively and $TD_{features}$ are features for test samples.

$$p1 = \frac{pos_{p1} + pos_{p1} + pos_{p1}}{3} \quad (16)$$

$$p2 = \frac{pos_{p2} + pos_{p2} + pos_{p2}}{3} \quad (17)$$

$$p3 = \frac{pos_{p3} + pos_{p3} + pos_{p3}}{3} \quad (18)$$

235 where $p1$, $p2$, and $p3$ are probabilities for positive, negative, and neutral classes using TF-IDF, BoW,
236 and Hashing features, respectively. SVM-SV uses argmax function in the end to find the class with the
237 highest probability.

$$finalprediction = argmax\{p1, p2, p3\} \quad (19)$$

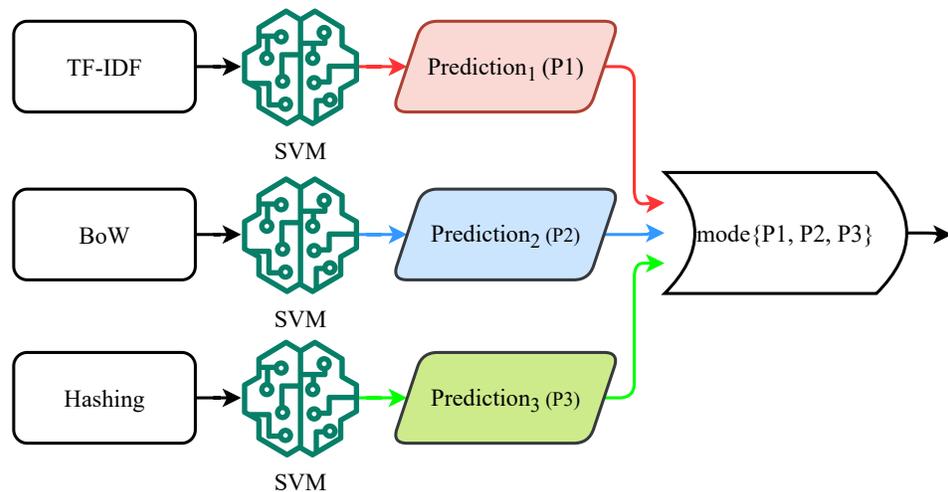


Figure 5. Hard voting mechanism used for the proposed approach.

238 For hard voting (HV), the predicted class from each SVM variant is considered for the final prediction,
 239 as shown in Figure 5. SVM-HV method uses majority voting criteria to make the final prediction. Each
 240 SVM variant predicts a target class (positive, negative, or neutral) using each feature set and then the
 241 SVM-HV performs voting on the predicted class. In case of a tie in voting, a higher weight is awarded to
 242 the minority class in the dataset which is the neutral class for this dataset.

$$p1 = SVM(tfidf_{set}) \quad (20)$$

$$p2 = SVM(bow_{set}) \quad (21)$$

$$p3 = SVM(hash_{set}) \quad (22)$$

243 where $p1$, $p2$, and $p3$ are predictions by SVM variants with different feature sets. The majority voting
 244 function is used on these predictions to make the final prediction. In the case of tie *final prediction* ϵ *minority class*.

$$final\ prediction = mode\{p1, p2, p3\} \quad (23)$$

Algorithm 1 Proposed SVM-SV algorithm

Input: Apps Reviews

Output: Positive|Negative|Neutral

```

1: Def Model_Training():
2:    $SVM_T \leftarrow SVM(TF-IDF\_Features)$ 
3:    $SVM_B \leftarrow SVM(BoW\_Features)$ 
4:    $SVM_H \leftarrow SVM(Hashing\_Features)$ 
5: for  $i$  in Test_Corpus do
6:    $P1 \leftarrow SVM_T(i)$ 
7:    $P2 \leftarrow SVM_B(i)$ 
8:    $P3 \leftarrow SVM_H(i)$ 
9:    $SVM - SV(Pred) \leftarrow mode\{P1, P2, P3\}$ 
10: end for
11: Positive|Negative|Neutral  $\leftarrow SVM - SV$  prediction

```

245 Algorithm 1 shows the step to propose SVM-SV model. Here SVM_T is trained SVM using TF-IDF
 246 features while SVM_B and SVM_H are trained SVM using BoW and Hashing features. P1, P2, and P3 are
 247 the prediction by trained SVM models on test data.

Algorithm 2 Proposed SVM-HV algorithm

Input: Apps Reviews

Output: *Positive|Negative|Neutral*

```

1: Def Model_Training():
2:    $SVM_T \leftarrow SVM(TF-IDF\_Features)$ 
3:    $SVM_B \leftarrow SVM(BoW\_Features)$ 
4:    $SVM_H \leftarrow SVM(Hashing\_Features)$ 
5: for  $i$  in Test_Corpus do
6:    $Pos1 \leftarrow SVM_T(i)$ 
7:    $Neg1 \leftarrow SVM_T(i)$ 
8:    $Neu1 \leftarrow SVM_T(i)$ 
9:    $Pos2 \leftarrow SVM_B(i)$ 
10:   $Neg2 \leftarrow SVM_B(i)$ 
11:   $Neu2 \leftarrow SVM_B(i)$ 
12:   $Pos3 \leftarrow SVM_H(i)$ 
13:   $Neg3 \leftarrow SVM_H(i)$ 
14:   $Neu3 \leftarrow SVM_H(i)$ 
15:   $Prob\_Pos \leftarrow \frac{(Pos1+Pos2+Pos3)}{3}$ 
16:   $Prob\_Neg \leftarrow \frac{(Neg1+Neg2+Neg3)}{3}$ 
17:   $Prob\_Neu \leftarrow \frac{(Neu1+Neu2+Neu3)}{3}$ 
18:   $SVM-HV(Pred) \leftarrow argmax\{Prob\_Pos, Prob\_Neg, Prob\_Neu\}$ 
19: end for
20: Positive|Negative|Neutral  $\leftarrow SVM-HV$  prediction
  
```

248 Algorithm 2 shows the steps to propose the SVM-HV model. Here, Pos_i , Neg_i , and Neu_i are
 249 probabilities by each model for positive, negative, and neutral target classes. While $Prob_Pos$, $Prob_Neg$,
 250 and $Prob_Neu$ are the average probabilities using all models' probabilities.

251 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

252 This section presents and discusses the performance of machine learning models for app reviews sentiment
 253 analysis. The performance of the proposed SVC-SV and SVC-HV is evaluated in terms of accuracy,
 254 precision, recall, and F1 score.

255 Experimental Setup

256 For experiments, this study used an Intel Core i7 11th generation machine with the Windows operating
 257 system. To implement the proposed approach, Jupyter notebook is used with the Python language and
 258 Sci-kit learn, TensorFlow, NLTK, and Pandas libraries are used. Data splitting is done for model training
 259 and testing in ratios of 80% and 20%, respectively. The dataset contains three target classes including
 260 positive, negative, and neutral. The number of samples in the dataset after the data split is given in Table
 261 4.

Table 4. Number of records for training and testing datasets.

Target	Training Set	Testing Set	Total
Positive	14,224	3,592	17,816
Negative	3,727	943	4,670
Neutral	1,949	440	2,389
Total	19,900	4,975	24,875

262 **Results for Sentiment Classification**

263 Table 5 shows the results of SVM with BoW, TF-IDF, and hashing features. It also contains the results of
 264 proposed approaches SVC-SV and SVC-HV. SVM performs significantly better with TF-IDF and hashing
 265 features and obtained a 0.98 accuracy score with each approach. On the other hand, BoW features do
 266 not show good results and SVM has a 0.95 accuracy score. The performance with TF-IDF and hashing
 267 features is more significant because of the significant feature sets generated by these techniques. TF-IDF
 268 assigns weight to each feature and shows better results as compared to simple term count from the BoW
 269 technique. Similarly, hashing generates a less complex feature set for model training which helps to
 270 increase models' performance. SVC-SV is also good, similar to other features with SVM, however, SVC
 271 under hard voting under majority voting criteria outperforms all other approaches with a 1.00 accuracy
 272 score. This significant performance is primarily based on the combination of multiple variants of SVM
 273 trained on different features. It can be observed that different SVM variants show different per class
 274 accuracy for positive, negative, and neutral classes. For example, SVM with TF-IDF is good for the
 275 neutral class while using hashing feature is good to obtain the best performance for the positive class.
 276 Combining these variants trained on different features helps to obtain the best performance in all the
 277 classes as the SVM variants complement each other.

Table 5. Results using different feature engineering approaches with SVM.

Model	Accuracy	Target	Precision	Recall	F1 Score
BoW	0.95	Negative	0.90	0.90	0.90
		Neutral	0.85	0.93	0.89
		Positive	0.98	0.97	0.98
		Avg.	0.91	0.94	0.92
TF-IDF	0.98	Negative	0.98	0.97	0.97
		Neutral	0.96	0.96	0.96
		Positive	0.99	0.99	0.99
		Avg.	0.98	0.97	0.97
Hashing	0.98	Negative	0.97	0.93	0.95
		Neutral	0.90	0.96	0.93
		Positive	0.99	0.99	0.99
		Avg.	0.95	0.96	0.96
SVC-SV using SVM	0.98	Negative	0.99	0.93	0.96
		Neutral	0.96	0.95	0.95
		Positive	0.98	1.00	0.99
		Avg.	0.98	0.96	0.97
SVC-HV using SVM	1.00	Negative	1.00	1.00	1.00
		Neutral	1.00	1.00	1.00
		Positive	1.00	1.00	1.00
		Avg.	1.00	1.00	1.00

278 The self-voting approach has been validated using several machine learning models including DT,
 279 KNN, and LR. Table 6 shows the results using the DT model in terms of accuracy, precision, recall, and
 280 F1 score. Other than the self-voting approach, DT shows the best result when used with BoW features
 281 and obtains a 0.87 accuracy score as compared to TF-IDF and hashing features. DT is a simple rule-based
 282 model and can perform better using a simple feature set such as extracted by the BoW. DT with TF-IDF
 283 and hashing has marginally low performance with a 0.86 accuracy score for each feature set. The best
 284 performance is obtained when it is used with SVC-HV with a 0.88 accuracy score. Besides accuracy,
 285 precision, recall, and F1 score values are also superior to that of other features’.

Table 6. Performance of DT with different feature engineering approaches.

Model	Accuracy	Target	Precision	Recall	F1 Score
BoW	0.87	Negative	0.74	0.69	0.71
		Neutral	0.72	0.82	0.77
		Positive	0.93	0.93	0.93
		Avg.	0.79	0.81	0.80
TF-IDF	0.86	Negative	0.72	0.68	0.70
		Neutral	0.69	0.77	0.73
		Positive	0.92	0.92	0.92
		Avg.	0.78	0.79	0.78
Hashing	0.86	Negative	0.72	0.68	0.70
		Neutral	0.69	0.77	0.73
		Positive	0.92	0.92	0.92
		Avg.	0.78	0.79	0.78
SVC-SV using DT	0.85	Negative	0.65	0.70	0.67
		Neutral	0.69	0.72	0.71
		Positive	0.92	0.90	0.91
		Avg.	0.76	0.77	0.76
SVC-HV using DT	0.88	Negative	0.74	0.70	0.72
		Neutral	0.74	0.80	0.77
		Positive	0.93	0.93	0.93
		Avg.	0.80	0.81	0.80

286 Table 7 shows the performance results of the LR model using BoW, TF-IDF, hashing features, and the
 287 SVC approach. LR shows better performance as compared to DT, however, its performance is inferior to
 288 SVM. LR performance with the SVC approach is more significant as compared to an individual feature
 289 but SVC-SV achieved a 0.95 accuracy score which is the highest as compared to results using other
 290 features.

Table 7. Performance of DT using different feature engineering approaches.

Model	Accuracy	Target	Precision	Recall	F1 Score
BoW	0.94	Negative	0.92	0.84	0.88
		Neutral	0.81	0.78	0.80
		Positive	0.96	0.98	0.97
		Avg.	0.90	0.87	0.88
TF-IDF	0.94	Negative	0.95	0.86	0.90
		Neutral	0.92	0.72	0.80
		Positive	0.94	0.99	0.97
		Avg.	0.94	0.86	0.89
Hashing	0.94	Negative	0.94	0.81	0.87
		Neutral	0.85	0.79	0.82
		Positive	0.95	0.99	0.97
		Avg.	0.91	0.86	0.89
SVC-SV using LR	0.95	Negative	0.94	0.85	0.89
		Neutral	0.87	0.79	0.83
		Positive	0.95	0.99	0.97
		Avg.	0.92	0.88	0.90
SVC-HV using LR	0.94	Negative	0.94	0.84	0.89
		Neutral	0.87	0.77	0.82
		Positive	0.95	0.99	0.97
		Avg.	0.92	0.87	0.89

291 KNN is another model that is used for experiments deployed with the proposed SVC approach.
 292 Experimental results given in Table 8 indicate that the proposed approach shows significant improvements
 293 over other approaches. On average, the performance of KNN is not good as compared to SVM, DT, and
 294 LR as it has accuracy scores of 0.75, 0.76, and 0.76 when used with BoW, TF-IDF, and hashing features,
 295 respectively. KNN tends to show poor performance with large datasets as compared to linear models
 296 such as SVM and LR which are more suitable for large feature sets, such as the dataset used in this study.
 297 Using the proposed SVC approach, the accuracy score of KNN is improved to 0.78 from 0.76.

Table 8. Performance of KNN with SVC and different features.

Model	Accuracy	Target	Precision	Recall	F1 Score
BoW	0.75	Negative	0.70	0.33	0.45
		Neutral	0.33	0.64	0.43
		Positive	0.86	0.87	0.86
		Avg.	0.63	0.61	0.58
TF-IDF	0.76	Negative	0.65	0.42	0.51
		Neutral	0.32	0.37	0.34
		Positive	0.83	0.90	0.86
		Avg.	0.60	0.56	0.57
Hashing	0.76	Negative	0.65	0.40	0.50
		Neutral	0.39	0.40	0.39
		Positive	0.84	0.92	0.88
		Avg.	0.63	0.57	0.59
SVC-SV using KNN	0.78	Negative	0.77	0.34	0.47
		Neutral	0.41	0.45	0.43
		Positive	0.82	0.93	0.87
		Avg.	0.67	0.57	0.59
SVC-HV using KNN	0.78	Negative	0.68	0.41	0.51
		Neutral	0.39	0.44	0.41
		Positive	0.84	0.92	0.88
		Avg.	0.64	0.59	0.60

298 Performance of Deep Learning Models on Apps Reviews Dataset

299 In comparison with our proposed approach using the machine learning models, this study also deploys
 300 some state of the arts deep learning models. For this purpose, long short-term memory (LSTM) (17),
 301 gated recurrent unit (GRU) (4), convolutional neural networks (CNN) (11), and recurrent neural networks
 302 (RNN) are used. The architecture of these models is presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Architecture of deep learning models used for experiments.

LSTM	GRU
Embedding(5000,100, input_length)	Embedding(5000,100, input_length)
Dropout(0.2)	Dropout(0.2)
LSTM(128)	GRU(128)
Dropout(0.2)	Dense(16)
Dense(3, activation='softmax')	Dense(3, activation='softmax')
CNN	RNN
Embedding(5000,100, input_length)	Embedding(5000,100, input_length)
Conv1D(128, 4, activation='relu')	Dropout(0.2)
MaxPooling1D(pool_size=4)	SimpleRNN(100)
Flatten()	Dense(16)
Dense(16)	Dense(3, activation='softmax')
Dense(3, activation='softmax')	
loss='categorical_crossentropy', optimizer='adam', epochs=100	

303 The models use dropout layers, dense layers, and embedding layers as common among all models.
 304 The dropout layer is used to reduce the probability of model over-fitting and reduces the complexity of
 305 model learning by dropping neurons randomly. The embedding layer takes input and converts each word
 306 in reviews into vector form for model training. The dense layer is used with 3 neurons and a Softmax
 307 activation function to generate the desired output. Models are compiled with categorical cross-entropy
 308 function because of multi-class data and 'adam' optimizer is used for parameters optimization (29). In the
 309 end, all models are fitted with 100 epochs and a batch size of 64.

310 Experimental results using deep learning models are given in Table 10. Results show that LSTM
 311 and GRU outperform other deep learning models with 0.92 and 0.91 accuracy scores, respectively. The
 312 performance of LSTM and GRU shows that the recurrent architecture model shows significantly better
 313 performance than other models on text data. RNN is also better compared to CNN which has the
 314 lowest accuracy of 0.81. The mechanism of eliminating unused information and storing the sequence of
 315 information makes recurrent applications a strong tool for text classification tasks. On the other hand,
 316 CNN requires a large feature set to perform better which in the case of this study does not seem so.

Table 10. Performance comparison of deep learning models.

Model	Accuracy	Target	Precision	Recall	F1 Score
LSTM	0.92	Negative	0.83	0.83	0.83
		Neutral	0.81	0.76	0.79
		Positive	0.95	0.96	0.96
		Avg.	0.87	0.85	0.86
GRU	0.91	Negative	0.82	0.79	0.81
		Neutral	0.81	0.73	0.77
		Positive	0.94	0.96	0.95
		Avg.	0.86	0.83	0.84
CNN	0.81	Negative	0.67	0.68	0.67
		Neutral	0.52	0.38	0.44
		Positive	0.87	0.90	0.89
		Avg.	0.69	0.65	0.67
RNN	0.87	Negative	0.73	0.75	0.74
		Neutral	0.77	0.70	0.73
		Positive	0.93	0.93	0.93
		Avg.	0.81	0.79	0.80

317 Comparison with Other Studies

318 The performance of the proposed approach is compared with other recent studies on sentiment analysis.
 319 In this regard, the state-of-the-art models from previous studies are deployed on the current dataset and
 320 the results are compared. First, the study (19) used an ensemble model which is the combination of
 321 LR and stochastic gradient descent classifier (SGDC) for sentiment classification. The ensemble model
 322 is deployed on the current dataset and it obtained a 0.90 accuracy score. The study (21) used a hybrid
 323 approach for sentiment classification related to COVID-19 tweets. The study used an extra tree classifier
 324 and feature union technique for sentiment classification. The study (22) used a hybrid approach which
 325 is a combination of TF-IDF features, Chi-square feature selection technique, and LR model. The study
 326 (26) proposed a hybrid model ConvBiLSTM using CNN and BiLSTM networks for tweets sentiment
 327 classification and similarly, another study (7) proposed a hybrid model CNN-LSTM for sent for consumer
 328 sentiment analysis. Performance comparison results of these studies are provided in Table 11.

329 Statistical Significant T-test

330 A statistical T-test is performed to show the significance of the proposed approach. T-test accepts the null
 331 hypothesis if the compared values are statistically the same and reject the null hypothesis if the compared
 332 values are statistically different (14). We deploy the T-test on models' performance with each feature
 333 and the proposed self-voting. We evaluate performance in terms of T-statistic and critical value (CV).
 334 The T-statistic value is greater than the CV in all cases which means that for all cases the null hypothesis

Table 11. Comparative analysis of performance with other approaches.

Ref	Year	Approach	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1 Score
(22)	2021	LR + Chi2	0.91	0.89	0.80	0.84
(26)	2021	ConvBiLSTM	0.82	0.72	0.64	0.67
(7)	2021	CNN-LSTM	0.82	0.71	0.66	0.68
(19)	2019	LR+SGDC Model TF-IDF Features	0.90	0.83	0.82	0.82
(21)	2021	ETC Model(TF-IDF + BoW) FU	0.83	0.86	0.57	0.63
Curent study	2021	SVM + SVM + SVM (HV) and TF-IDF + BoW + Hashing Features	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	2021	SVM + SVM + SVM (SV) and TF-IDF + BoW + Hashing Features	0.98	0.98	0.96	0.97

³³⁵ is rejected. T-statistic results are shown in Table 12. These results show that all cases are statistically
³³⁶ different in comparison with the proposed approach.

Table 12. T-test evaluation values.

Techniques	T-statistic	CV	Null Hypothesis
BoW Vs HV	2.038	0	reject
BoW Vs SV	1.188	0	reject
TF-IDF Vs HV	3.000	0	reject
TF-IDF Vs SV	0.775	0	reject
Hashing Vs HV	3.000	0	reject
Hashing Vs SV	0.775	0	reject

³³⁷ LDA Topic Extraction and Topic Sentiment Visualization

³³⁸ This study also carried out topic modeling using the LDA approach. The topics are extracted from all app
³³⁹ reviews, as well as, each app review to show topic wise users' sentiments. We used the LDA model to
³⁴⁰ extract the top four topics from review data.

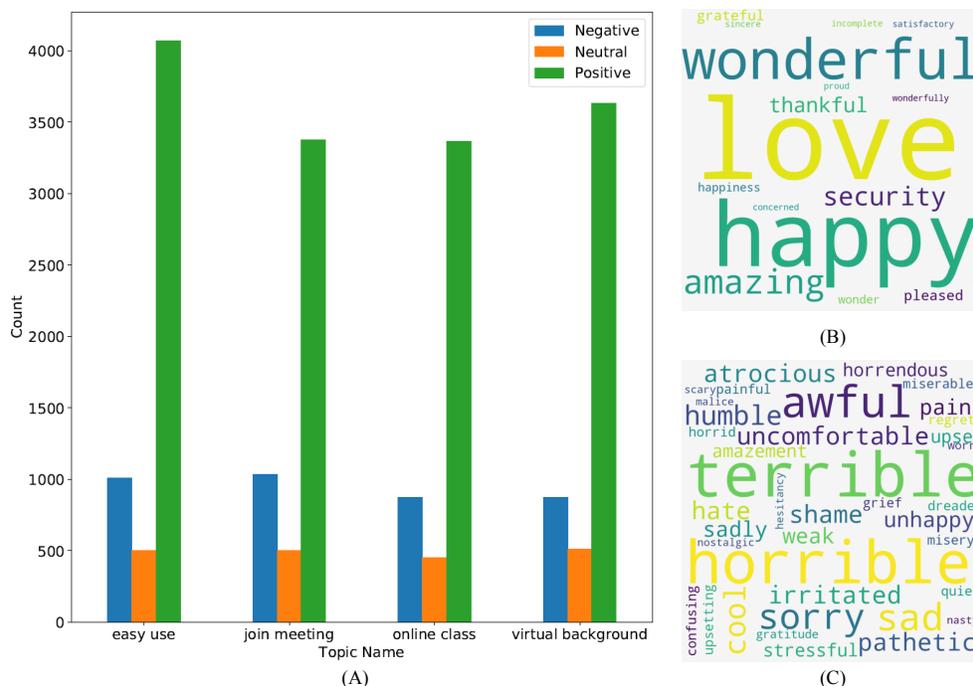


Figure 6. Topic sentiments and top words used for apps reviews, (a) Topic sentiments for all apps, (b) Positive words for all apps, and c(Negative words for all apps).

341 For topic modeling, the LDA is used with three hyperparameters including `n_components`, `random_state`, and `evaluate_every`. The `n_components` parameter is used with value 4 indicating that four
 342 topics will be extracted with this setting, `random_state` with value 10, and `evaluate_every` with value
 343 -1. The most commonly discussed topics are 'easy use', 'join meeting', 'online class', and 'virtual
 344 background'. We illustrate these topic counts and sentiments for each topic in Figure 6. It shows that the
 345 majority of the positive comments are posted for ease of use for the online meeting apps followed by the
 346 virtual background provided by these apps. Although the ratio of negative sentiments is approximately
 347 three times low as compared to positive sentiments, most of the negative sentiments are given for joining
 348 meetings and easy use attributes.
 349

350 The patterns of sentiments for different topic is almost similar for all the apps under discussion, the
 351 distribution of topics discussed may slightly vary. Similarly, the positive and negative words used for
 352 different apps may vary as well. For example, the negative words used for the Google Meet app are
 353 horrible, sad, weak, irritated, etc. as shown in Figure 7 which may be different for other apps.

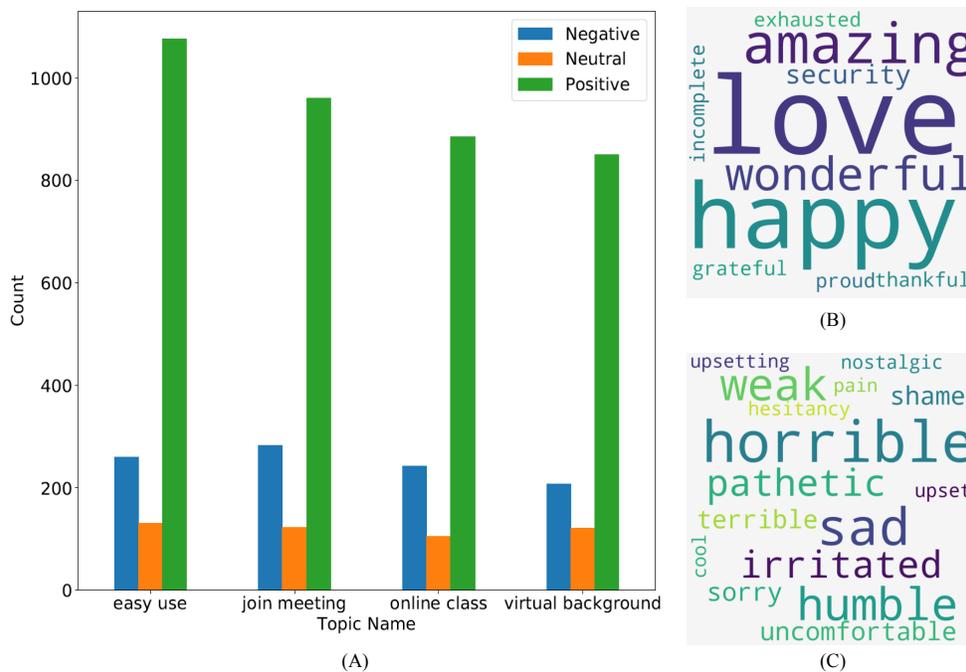


Figure 7. Discussed topic and commonly used words for Google Meet app reviews, (a) Topic sentiments for Google Meet app, (b) Positive words for Google Meet app, and (c) Negative words for Google Meet app

354 Figure 8 shows the sentiments for common topics discussed for the Zoom app. It indicates that the
 355 ratio of negative sentiments for topics is slightly less than the Google Meet app. Similarly, the number of
 356 positive words is less comparatively and negative words are slightly different such as sorry, awful, terrible,
 357 etc.

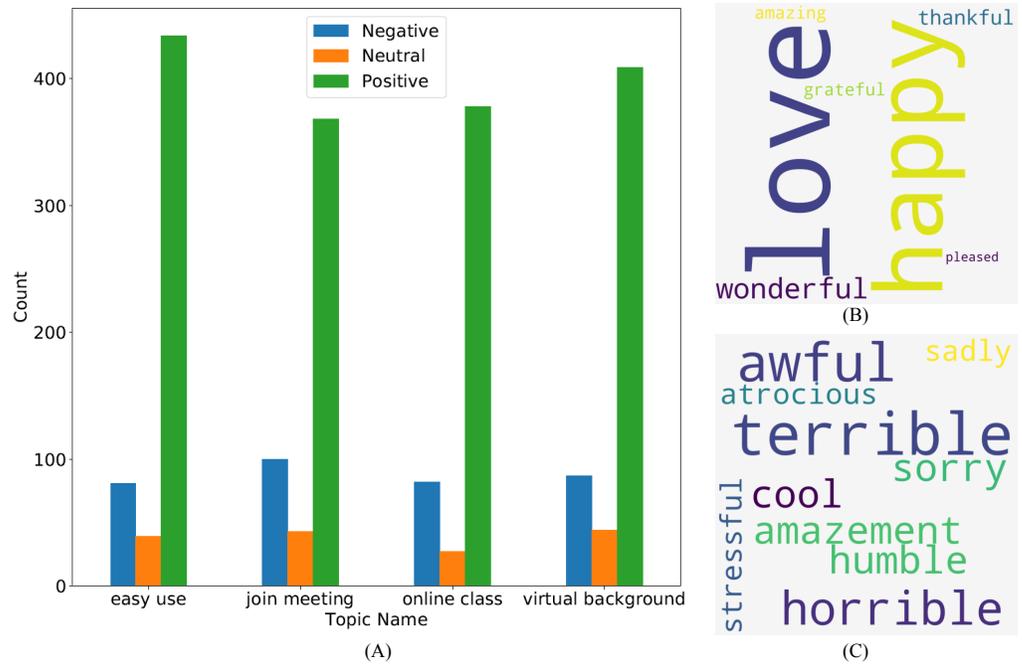


Figure 8. Zoom meeting app reviews, topic sentiments, and used words., (a) Topic sentiments for Zoom Meeting app, (b) Positive words for Zoom Meeting app, and (c) Negative words for Zoom Meeting app

358 Topic sentiments and negative and positive words used for the Goto meeting app are given in Figure 9
359 which indicates that the number of topic sentiments is substantially higher than Zoom and Google Meet
360 apps. The ratio of negative topic sentiments is also low than both Zoom and Google Meet apps. The
361 pattern of negative word usage is almost similar to other apps.

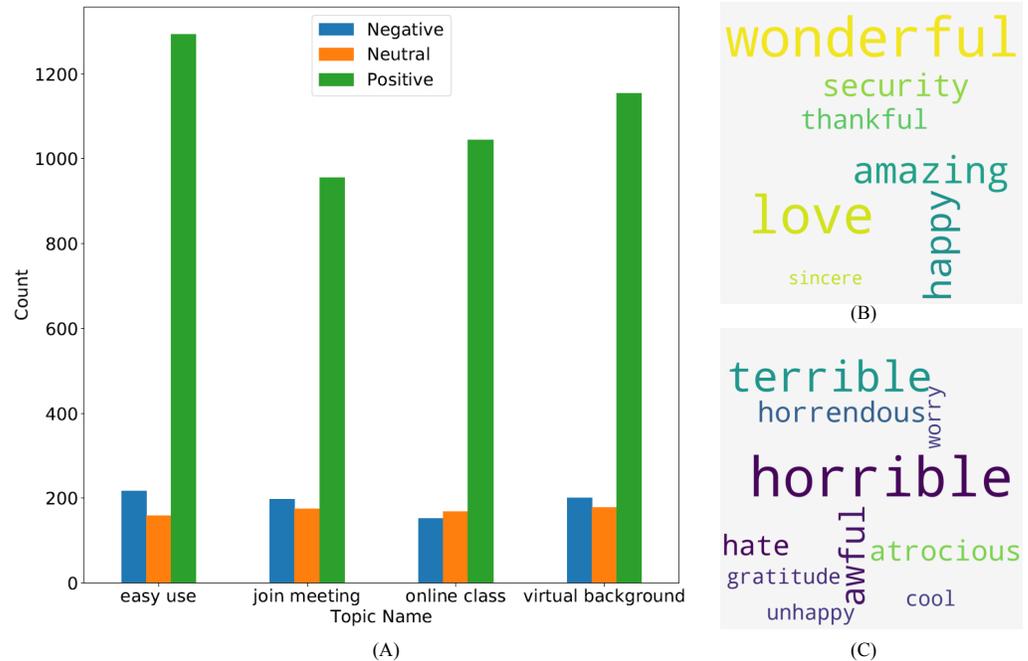


Figure 9. Goto meeting app reviews, topic sentiments, and used words, (a) Topic sentiments for Goto Meeting app, (b) Positive words for Goto Meeting app, and (c) Negative words for Goto Meeting app

362 Skype-related topic sentiments are provided in Figure 10. It shows that the topic sentiments are very
363 low as compared to other apps and the ratio of negative sentiments is substantially high. The patterns for
364 positive and negative words are similar to other apps.

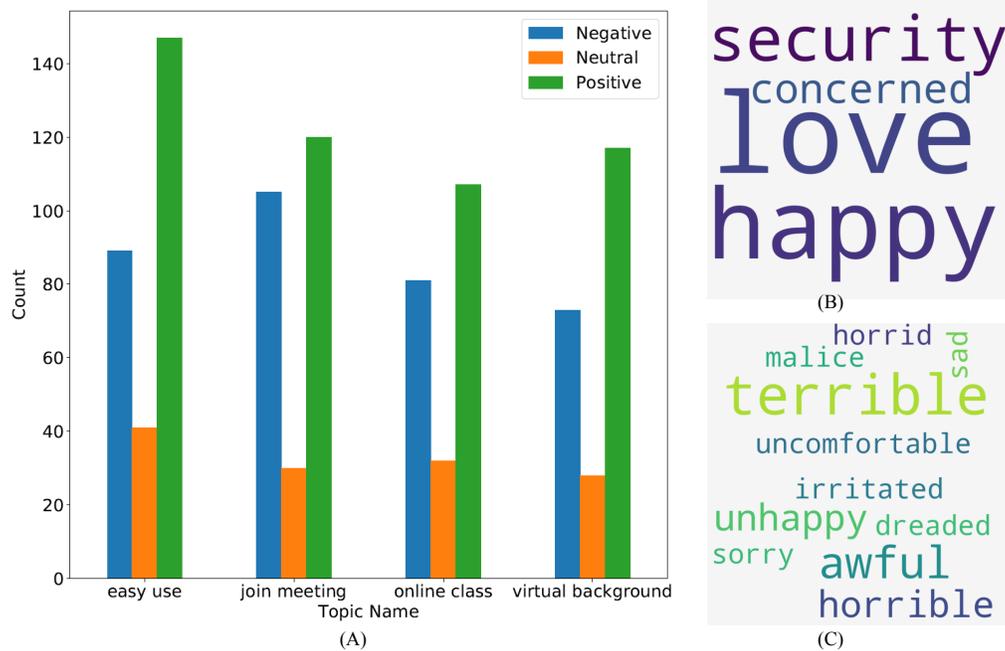


Figure 10. Skype app reviews, topic sentiments, and used words, (a) Topic sentiments for Skype app, (b) Positive words for Skype app, and (c) Negative words for Skype app

365 Figure 11 shows the patterns of positive and negative words, as well as, the sentiments for the most
366 commonly discussed topics for the Webex meeting app. Although the number of sentiments is low as
367 compared to other Zoom, and Google Meet apps, it shows a higher ratio of positive sentiments.

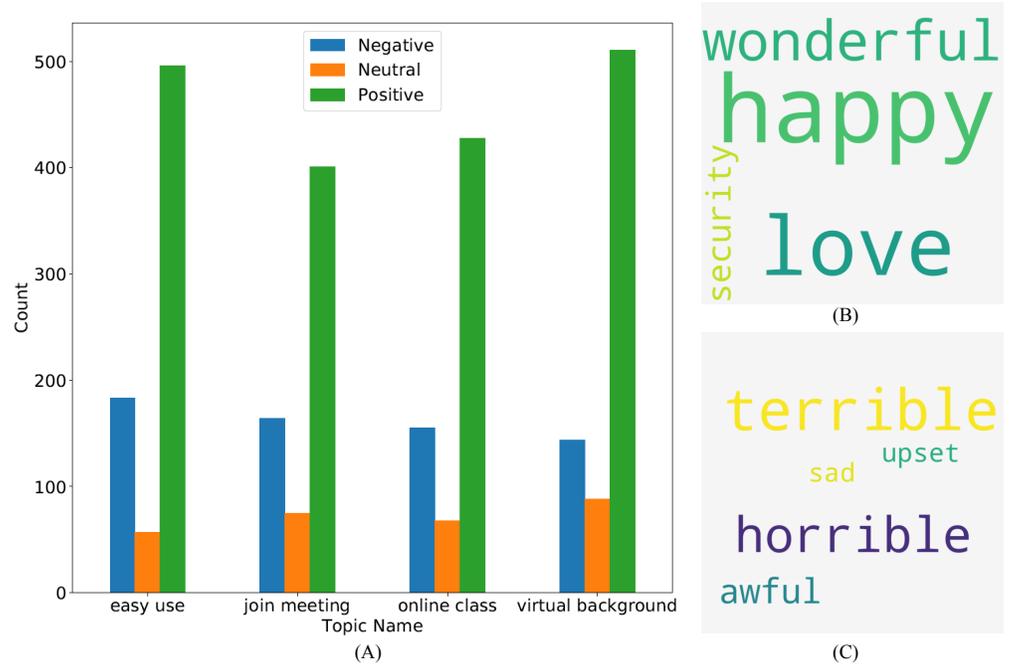


Figure 11. Webex meeting app reviews, topic sentiments, and used words, (a) Topic sentiments for Webex Meeting app, (b) Positive words for Webex Meeting app, and (c) Negative words for Webex Meeting app

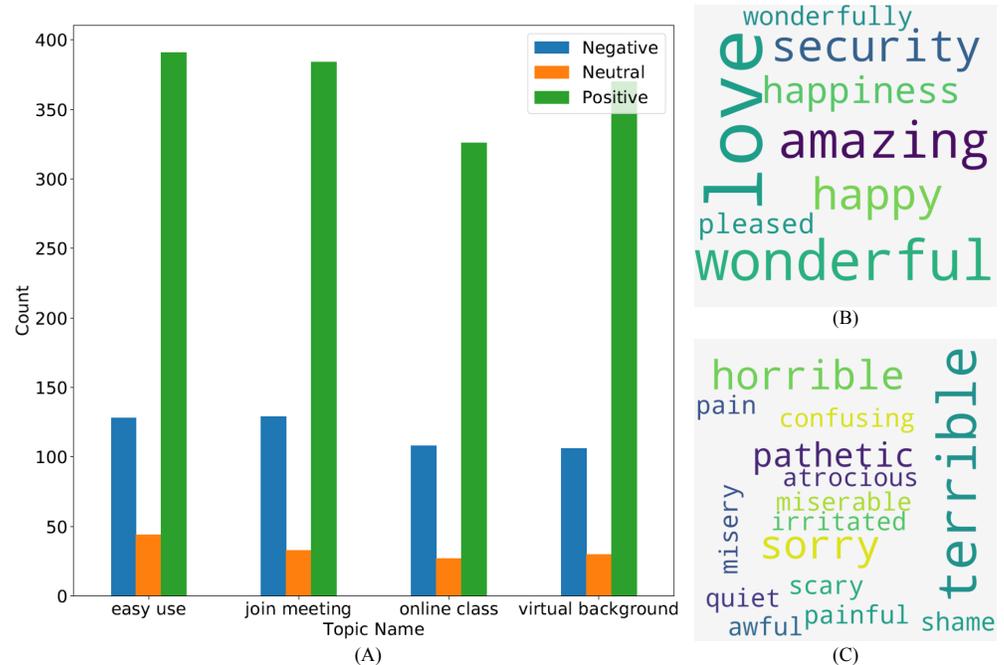


Figure 12. Microsoft team app reviews, topic sentiments, and used words, (a) Topic sentiments for Microsoft Meeting app, (b) Positive words for Microsoft Meeting app, and (c) Negative words for Microsoft Meeting app

368 In the end, the topics-related sentiments for the Microsoft team and Hangout apps are given in Figures
 369 12 and 13, respectively. They have a low number of sentiments and a low ratio of negative sentiments for
 370 the discussed topics. Similarly, the used negative words are also slightly different than other apps like
 371 nasty, regret, and uncomfortable for Hangouts and atrocious, scary, and confusion for the Microsoft team
 372 app.

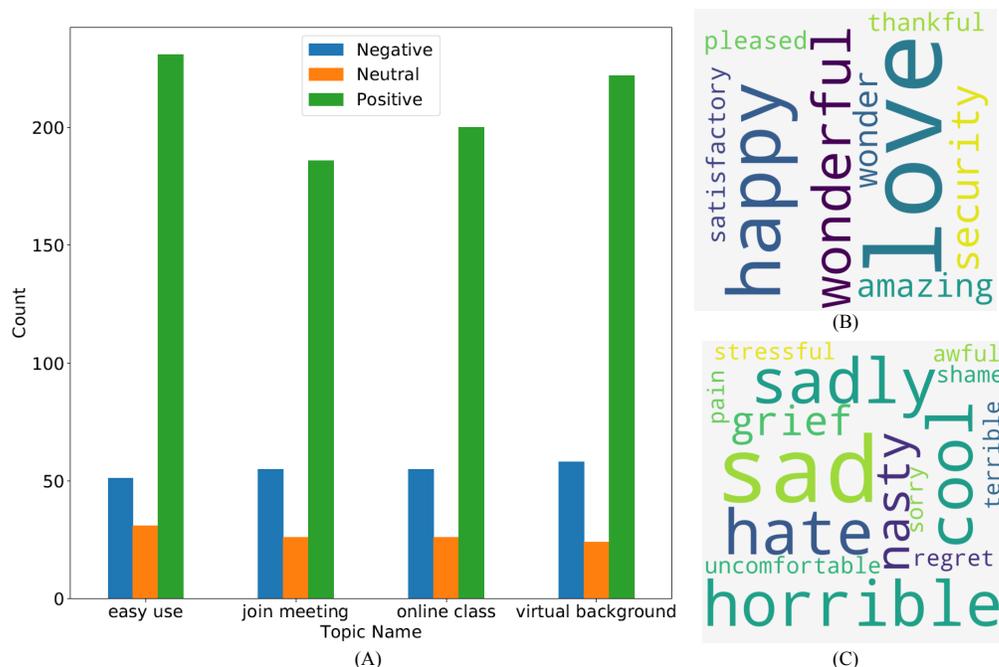


Figure 13. Hangouts Meeting app reviews, topic sentiments, and used words, (a) Topic sentiments for Hangouts Meeting app, (b) Positive words for Hangouts Meeting app, and (c) Negative words for Hangouts Meeting app

Discussions

Existing studies report the superior performance of ensemble models over stand-alone machine learning models. So, this study adopts an ensemble approach for sentiment analysis of online meeting apps which have been prevalent recently, especially during the COVID-19 breakout. Traditional ensemble models merge heterogeneous models to get the best of them for obtaining higher performance. Contrary to this approach, this study makes an ensemble model out of a single model. Empirical findings show that the same model shows different performance with respect to a feature vector used for training. So this study follows a feature-centric approach and different best-performing features are selected to train the same model. For this purpose, the SVM model is trained using TF-IDF, BoW, and hashing features for sentiment analysis. Experiments are performed using a large dataset of reviews for online meeting apps.

Results demonstrate that the self-voting model tends to improve the performance of stand-alone models. The performance of the models is enhanced regarding two important aspects. First, traditional ensembles use multiple models with a single feature vector for the most part. Although, the advantage of multiple models is obtained but the potential of multiple features is lost. Also, different models may not be suitable for the same data, and combining them may not be prudent. Secondly, it is more rational to use a single model with multiple features if it is performing well on data. Following this rationale, we utilized variants of a single model which are trained using different feature vectors and obtain superior performance. The performance of the self-voting models is much better than single models.

CONCLUSION

Online meeting apps have been widely used during the COVID-19 pandemic era where physical meetings and office work were restricted due to social distancing constraints. A large number of online meeting apps compete by offering a set of unique functions for higher user satisfaction and continue to improve their services in the light of user feedback. The feedback is often posted on the Google app store as views and comments and requires efficient analysis, where sentiment analysis comes in handy. For accurate sentiment analysis, this study presents a novel concept of self-voting where multiple variants of the same

398 model are trained; each fed with different features. For validation, SMV, DT, LR, and KNN are used
399 with BoW, TF-IDF, and hashing features on the dataset containing user reviews of online meeting apps.
400 Experimental results suggest that the self-voting classification approach elevates the performance of
401 traditional machine learning models. Contrary to stand-alone models, a self-voting ensemble is more
402 influential to obtain higher accuracy. For the task at hand, SVM obtains the accuracy score of 1.00 and
403 0.98 using hard voting and soft voting, respectively, with the proposed self-voting approach. Results
404 show that different features show different accuracy for individual classes like positive, negative, and
405 neutral. Combing the features for a single model is a better choice which substantially improves the
406 overall performance of a model. Performance comparison with existing studies shows that the proposed
407 approach outperforms these models. In future work, we intend to consider deep learning models in the
408 SVM approach and will also consider the imbalanced dataset problem in our future work.

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