Mulesoft product documentation

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Introduction

MuleSoft technical documentation is published at https://docs.mulesoft.com. It starts with a high level overview of the platform and it is categorized by each of the products. In this report we analyze the version of documentation published at August, 2017. The goal is to find those documents that trigger customers to raise tickets with technical support regarding documentation problems.

1 Data retrieval and data preparation

Mulesoft technical documentation source is available at

https://github.com/mulesoft/mulesoft-docs.

The source is downloaded as a zip file in a local environment. Once downloaded we proceed with data cleaning.

1.1 Data cleaning

The unarchived documentation source has the following folder structure: $product/version/\{text || images || code\}$.

For each product there could be several release versions. We will keep only the latest version and delete the previous versions. Otherwise there would be a lot of duplicate documents which will skew the results of our analysis.

Each text representation of the document is written in AsciiDoc format. We will work with this format to clean the data and retrieve data features.

The images and code are discarded. We will work only with text.

We will use Pandas dataframes to create the working dataset.

```
def create_dataframe(dir_path):
      corpus = []
      for root, dirs, files in os.walk(dir_path):
          for file_name in files:
               file_n = file_name.split('.')[0]
              if '.' not in file_name:
                   continue
               file_ext = file_name.split('.')[1]
               if file_ext != 'adoc' or file_n == '_toc':
                   continue
               full_file_path = os.path.join(root, file_name)
              with open(full_file_path) as file:
12
                   content = file.read()
13
                   corpus.append({"file":full_file_path , "text":
     content })
      return pd. DataFrame (corpus)
```

The above function recursively iterates through all folders and creates a row for each document file.

Source documentation could not be used as is for text analysis. It should be processed. More concretely we will:

- Remove asciidoc format tags.
- Remove web links.
- Remove code snippets (mostly xml configurations, probably some java code).
- Remove spaces and new lines (\n).
- Treat all the tokens that include period marks . in a special way by replacing those to underscores i.e. org.mulesoft.module to org_mulesoft_module, 3.8.1 to 3_8_1, etc. Those are meaningful tokens.

To achieve this goal we use regular expressions.

After tokenizing the text in documents it was established there are documents with a few words. Those documents have been removed when building a classification model.

1.2 Data wrangling

NLP requires the presence of a text corpus. First it is required to tokenize the text.

We will use SpaCy to:

- Remove stop words.
- Lemmatize the text.

And we use gensim for:

- Building phrases (word collocation).
- Create Bag of Words and tf-idf representation of documents.
- Topic analysis.
- Create text corpus.

2 Exploratory data analysis

The distribution of documents over the products is shown in (Figure 1). There is a big concentration of documents in *mule-user-guide* product. Which is actually the core product of the company. It is followed by *release-notes*. This section holds information about the changes in each version release of the product, known issues for each version, etc. For the purpose of this work we will omit this section. One more reason to exclude this section is the bias it creates.

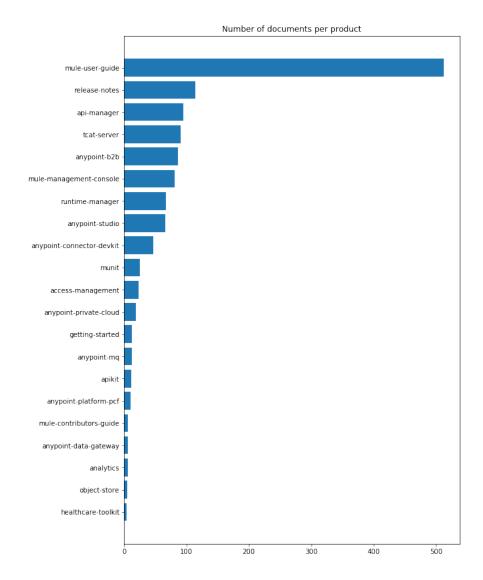


Figure 1: Number of documents per product.

Total number of documents is 1187 after removing release-notes.

Next, we create a bag-of-words representation of documents. Basically a bag-of-words is a 2-dimensional matrix. Each row is a document given by the index in dataframe. And each document is a collection of words, indexed in each of the columns. This representation of documents results in a sparse matrix. Each element of the matrix holds a value related to the count of the words in documents. To achieve this we use the following code to create a bag-of-words by counting the number of same words in each document.

1 from sklearn.feature_extraction.text import CountVectorizer

```
word_vectorizer = CountVectorizer( stop_words='english', min_df
=2, max_df=0.95, max_features=1000)
bow_lgram = word_vectorizer.fit_transform(corpus_df.stripped_txt
)
```

From bag-of-words we can calculate the proportion of words that can be found in x or less documents:

The result is given in (Figure 2).

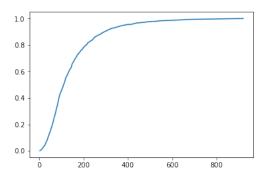


Figure 2: Word frequency proportion in documents.

A word cloud representation of a bag-of-word with CountVectorizer is shown in (Figure 3).

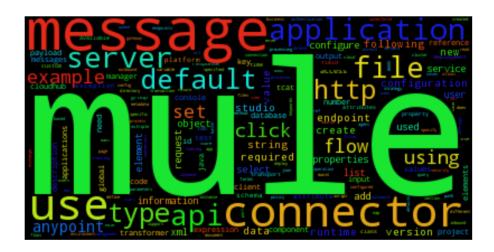


Figure 3: Word cloud with CountVectorizer.

Besides the straightforward count of words in a document, there is another more reliable estimate: term frequency - inverse document frequency (tf-idf) measure. Intuitively, this measure captures the relevance of a term in a given document. If the same term is very common and encountered in all documents, then its weight is decreased by using this measure. For a detailed explanation please refer to Tf-Idf.

When tf-idf is applied, a word cloud looks as in (Figure 4).

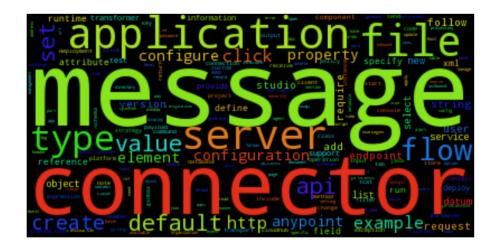


Figure 4: Word cloud with TfIdfVectorizer.

Both wordclouds share some significant words like: message, connector, file, server, flow, etc. These words are pretty common and important in MuleSoft documentation. The word emphasis on each of the wordclouds is different. Our priority will be on analysis performed on Tf-idf transformations.

As part of exploratory data analysis it is important to know the distribution of number of words especially if building prediction models. We will count the retained words after tokenization process is completed. The results are displayed at (Figure 5).

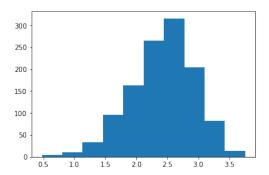


Figure 5: Document length distribution in log10 scale.

The mode of documents length histogram is at 2.5. Which means that most of the documents have approximately 200 tokenized words. There is a small amount of documents that is below 1. For our further investigation we will remove documents that have less than 10 words.

2.1 Reducing the number of features

There are 7372 words in 1176 documents. To reduce the number of components for building a predictive model we will apply PCA.

Cummulative sum of sorted eigenvalues is given in Figure 6.

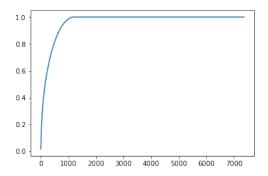


Figure 6: Cummulative variance of word components.

The number of components retaining 85% of variance is 562. Which means we can reduce the number of inputs to predictive model significantly from 7372 to 562.

2.2 Topic Modeling

The documentation is categorized by products. Earlier we mentioned the number of products is 20 (see Figure 1). Where the core product has 1/3 of documents. Assuming that the remaining number of documents is correctly classified, we would expect a total number of topics no less than 24.

For a better estimate we will try the following methods:

2.2.1 Latent Semantic Analysis

This method applies SVD to decompose Tf-idf corpus to document eigenvectors, singular values and term eigenvectors.

The intention is to find a number of topics based on the computed eigenvalues. We calculate the relative cumulative sum of eigenvalues and check visually.

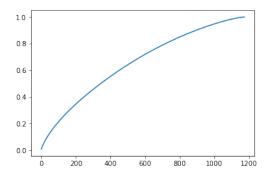


Figure 7: Cummulative sum of eigenvalues.

From Figure 7 there are no insignificant components. It is not possible to reduce the number of topics in this case. Will proceed with other alternatives.

2.2.2 Hierarchical Dirichlet Process

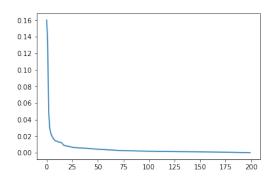


Figure 8: α probabilities calculated from HDP.

2.2.3 Latent Dirichle Allocation

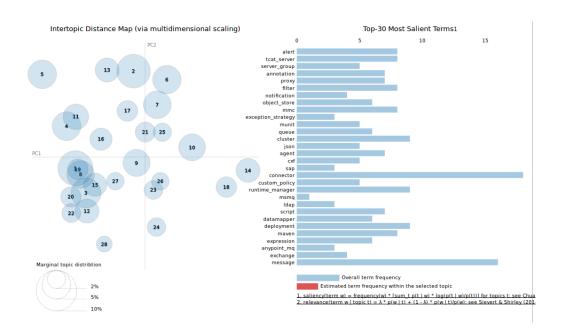


Figure 9: LDA topic modeling for 28 topics.

3 Predicting customer issues

The purpose of this work is to build a predictive model for a given document as input. The outcome is a binary number. If the outcome is 1 then the

document will most likely serve as a trigger for the customers to raise a support a case, otherwise it is 0.

- 3.1 Multinomial Naive Bayes and validation
- 3.1.1 Cross Validation Curves
- 3.1.2 Learning Curves
- 3.2 Support Vector Machines and validation
- 3.2.1 Cross Validation Curves
- 3.2.2 Learning Curves
- 4 Conclusions