OCEAN: ONLINE MULTI-MODAL ROOT CAUSE ANAL YSIS FOR MICROSERVICE SYSTEMS

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

Abstract

Root Cause Analysis (RCA) is essential for pinpointing the root causes of failures in microservice systems. Traditional data-driven RCA methods are typically limited to offline applications due to high computational demands, and existing online RCA methods handle only single-modal data, overlooking complex interactions in multi-modal systems. In this paper, we introduce OCEAN, a novel online multi-modal causal structure learning method for root cause localization. OCEAN employs a dilated convolutional neural network to capture long-term temporal dependencies and graph neural networks to learn causal relationships among system entities and key performance indicators. We further design a multi-factor attention mechanism to analyze and reassess the relationships among different metrics and log indicators/attributes for enhanced online causal graph learning. Additionally, a contrastive mutual information maximization-based graph fusion module is developed to effectively model the relationships across various modalities. Extensive experiments on three real-world datasets demonstrate the effectiveness and efficiency of our proposed method.

025 026 027

004

010 011

012

013

014

015

016

017

018

019

021

1 INTRODUCTION

 Root Cause Analysis (RCA) is crucial for identifying the underlying causes of system failures and ensuring the high performance of microservice systems (Wang et al., 2023a; Li et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2023c). Traditional manual root cause analysis is labor-intensive, costly, and error-prone, given the complexity of microservice systems and the extensive volume of data involved. Consequently, effective and efficient root cause analysis methods are vital for pinpointing failures in complex microservice systems and mitigating potential financial losses when system faults occur.

Previous studies in data-driven RCA, particularly those utilizing causal discovery techniques, have
primarily focused on constructing causal or dependency graphs (Ikram et al., 2022; Lu et al., 2017;
Li et al., 2021; Soldani & Brogi, 2022; Wang et al., 2023c; Zheng et al., 2024a). These graphs depict
the causal links between different system entities and key performance indicators (KPIs), thereby
enabling the tracing of underlying causes through these structures. For instance, Wang *et al.* (Wang
et al., 2023c) developed a hierarchical graph neural network method that automatically identifies
causal relationships both within and between networks to help pinpoint root causes.

Despite significant advances, most of these approaches are designed for offline use and face challenges with real-time implementation in microservice systems due to high computational demands. To address this, Wang *et al.* (Wang et al., 2023a) introduced an online RCA method that decouples state-invariant and state-dependent information and incrementally updates the causal graph. Li *et al.* (Li et al., 2022) developed a causal Bayesian network that leverages system architecture knowledge to mitigate potential biases toward new data. However, these online RCA methods are limited to handling single-modal data.

Recently, multi-modal data, such as system metrics and logs, are commonly collected from microservice systems, revealing the complex nature of system failures (Zheng et al., 2024a). For instance, failures such as "Database Query Failures" might be overlooked if only system metrics are considered, whereas issues like "Disk Space Full" are more effectively identified through combined analysis of metrics and logs. This underscores the importance of using multi-modal data for a thorough understanding of system failures. By integrating information from various sources, we can detect the abnormal patterns of system failures that might not be evident when analyzing single-modal data.

054 To bridge this gap, this paper aims to propose an online multi-modal causal structure learning method 055 for identifying root causes in microservice systems. Formally, given the system KPI data along with 056 multi-modal microservice data including metrics and log data, our objective is to develop an online 057 multi-modal causal graph that identifies the top k system entities most relevant to the system KPI. 058 Three major challenges exist in this task. (C1) Capturing Long-term Temporal Dependencies: Current auto-regressive based RCA methods (Wang et al., 2023a; Zheng et al., 2024a) are limited to capturing short-term temporal dependencies. However, some system faults, such as Distributed Denial 060 of Service (DDoS) attacks, may persist for extended periods. Effectively capturing these long-term 061 temporal dependencies is crucial for identifying various types of system faults. (C2) Capturing the 062 Correlation of Multi-dimensional Factors: Existing RCA approaches (Ikram et al., 2022; Wang 063 et al., 2023c; Zheng et al., 2024a) often analyze abnormal patterns from multiple factors individually, 064 such as CPU usage or memory usage from system metrics and frequency or golden signal from system 065 logs, overlooking potential relationships among these factors from both modalities. Furthermore, 066 these methods often consider all factors as equally important; however, in real applications, certain 067 factors prove to be considerably more crucial than others. It is vital, therefore, to reassess the 068 contributions of each factor to the learning of causal structures. (C3) Learning Multi-modal Causal Structures: Effectively capturing the relationships between different modalities in an online setting 069 is crucial. Simply combining causal graphs from individual modalities can be problematic, especially if one modality is of lower quality. 071

To tackle these challenges, we introduce OCEAN, Online Multi-modal Causal Structure LEArNing, for root cause identification in microservice systems. Specifically, we propose to encode long-term temporal dependencies using a dilated convolutional neural network (Yu & Koltun, 2016) and forecast future values based on the *p*-th lagged historical data. We further develop a multi-factor attention mechanism to analyze the correlations among various factors and reassess their importance for causal graph learning. Additionally, we propose a contrastive mutual information estimation technique to model the relationships of different modalities. Our contributions can be summarized as follows:

- 079
- 080 081

082

084

085

090

091 092

- We introduce a novel online framework for multi-modality root cause analysis.
- We propose employing a dilated convolutional neural network to capture long-term temporal dependencies and graph neural networks to model causal relations among system entities.
- We design a multi-factor attention mechanism to analyze the relationships among different factors and reassess their impact on online causal graph learning.
- We develop graph fusion techniques with contrastive multi-modal learning to model the relationships between different modalities and assess their importance.
- Extensive experiments on three real-world datasets demonstrate the effectiveness and efficiency of our proposed method.
- 2 PRELIMINARY AND RELATED WORK

Key Performance Indicator (KPI). In a microservice system, KPIs serve as invaluable metrics
 for assessing the effectiveness and productivity of the architecture (Podgórski, 2015). They play an
 indispensable role in monitoring and managing different aspects of microservices to uphold optimal
 performance levels. Common KPIs encompass latency and service response time. High values in
 these metrics typically indicate suboptimal system performance or potential system failure.

Entity Metrics. Entity metrics are the measurable time-series attributes that provide insights into the performance and status of services within a system (Bogner et al., 2017). These entities encompass various components such as physical machines, containers, virtual machines, and pods. In microservice architectures, typical entity metrics include CPU utilization, memory usage, disk I/O activity, packet transmission rate, and etc. These metrics are extensively employed to detect anomalous behavior and pinpoint potential causes of system failures in microservice environments (Wang et al., 2023a;b; Zheng et al., 2024a; Soldani & Brogi, 2023; Liu et al., 2021).

Root Cause Analysis. Current root cause analysis (RCA) methods can be categorized into two
 main branches: single-modal RCA methods and multi-modal RCA methods. Single-modal RCA
 methods primarily investigate causal relationships among system components using one type of data
 only (Sporleder et al., 2019; Duan et al., 2020; Meng et al., 2020; Soldani & Brogi, 2022; Aggarwal

108		
109	$oldsymbol{X}_M^0$	the historical metric data
110	$oldsymbol{X}_M^i$	the <i>i</i> -th batch of the system metric
111	$oldsymbol{X}^0_L$	the historical log data
112	$oldsymbol{X}_L^i$	the <i>i</i> -th batch of system log
113	T_1^-	the length of the historical metric time-series data
115	T_2	the length of the batch for the system metric
114	n-1	the number of system entities
115	${\mathcal T}$	the total number of batches
116	d_M	the number of different system metric features
117	d_L	the number of different system log features
118	y	the system Key Performance Indicator
119	$\mathcal{G} = \{\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{A}\}$	the causal graph
120	\mathcal{A}	the adjacency matrix in the causal graph

Table 1: Notation Table

121 et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021). For instance, Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2021) generate a service call graph 122 based on domain-specific software and rules, while Wang et al. (Wang et al., 2023c) construct causal 123 networks from time series data. However, these methods often exhibit suboptimal performance due 124 to their reliance on single-modal data. To enhance accuracy, recent research integrates multi-modal 125 data for RCA (Yu et al., 2023; Hou et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2024a). Nezha (Yu et al., 2023) and 126 PDiagnose (Hou et al., 2021) extract and combine information from each modality individually, 127 while MULAN (Zheng et al., 2024a) and MM-DAG (Lan et al., 2023) consider interactions among 128 modalities, constructing comprehensive causal graphs. Despite notable progress, these approaches are implemented offline, necessitating extensive data collection and retraining for new faults. Wang 129 et al. (Wang et al., 2023a) enable online root cause identification by decoupling state-invariant and 130 state-dependent information to learn a causal graph for root cause identification. However, their 131 focus remains on single-modal data. Recently, large language model (LLM)-based approaches have 132 emerged as a new research direction for learning causal relations in root cause identification, owing 133 to the success of LLMs in tackling complex tasks (Chen et al., 2024; Shan et al., 2024; Goel et al., 134 2024; Zhou et al., 2024; Roy et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024). For example, Chen et al. (Chen et al., 135 2024) introduce RCACopilot, an on-call system powered by LLMs to automate RCA for cloud 136 incidents. Similarly, Shan et al. (Shan et al., 2024) propose an approach that first identifies log 137 messages indicating configuration-related errors, then localizes suspected root-cause configuration 138 properties based on these log messages and LLM-generated configuration settings. While LLMs 139 could effectively learn temporal dependencies within the metric data of individual system entities, they often struggle to capture interdependencies—such as causal relationships between different system 140 entities—leading to higher computational costs. Unlike existing RCA methods, this paper addresses 141 the online multi-modal RCA problem by uniquely modeling long-term temporal dependencies while 142 simultaneously capturing the cross-modal correlation of multiple factors. 143

144

145 146 147

148

149

150

3 METHODOLOGY

In this section, we first present the problem statement and then introduce OCEAN, an online causal structural learning method designed to identify root causes using multi-modal data. We propose three modules to tackle the challenges outlined in the introduction: long-term temporal causal structure learning, multi-factor attention mechanism, and contrastive multi-modal learning. Subsequently, we identify potential root causes through the network propagation-based root cause identification module and establish stopping criteria. The overview of the proposed OCEAN is provided in Figure 1.

3.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Let $\mathcal{X}_M = \{\mathbf{X}_M^0, \mathbf{X}_M^1, ..., \mathbf{X}_M^T\}$ represent $\mathcal{T} + 1$ multi-variate time series data for entity metrics. Here, \mathbf{X}_M^0 is the historical metric data, and \mathbf{X}_M^i , $i \in [1, ..., \mathcal{T}]$, is the *i*th batch for the metric data, with T_1 denoting the length of historical metric data, T_2 the length of each batch, n-1 the number of system entities, and d_M the number of different system metric features. Similarly, $\mathcal{X}_L = \{\mathbf{X}_L^0, \mathbf{X}_L^1, ..., \mathbf{X}_L^T\}$ represents $\mathcal{T} + 1$ multi-variate time series data for system logs. Assuming preprocessing has converted the logs into multi-variate time series data (details of converting log data into time series can be found in Appendix C), \mathbf{X}_L^0 is the historical log data, and \mathbf{X}_L^i , $i \in [1, ..., \mathcal{T}]$, is the *i*th batch for system logs, where d_L is the number of different log attributes/features. Notice 175

176

177

191

192 193

199 200 201

202



Figure 1: The overview of the proposed framework OCEAN with four main modules: long-term temporal causal structure learning, representation learning with multi-factor attention, graph fusion with contrastive multi-modal learning, and network propagation-based root cause localization.

178 that in the offline setting, only the historical data is available for model training, but in the online 179 setting, the batch data is also available for the root cause analysis. The system KPI is denoted as $\mathbf{y} = \{\mathbf{y}^0, \mathbf{y}^1, ..., \mathbf{y}^T\}$, with \mathbf{y}^0 and $\mathbf{y}^i, i \in [1, ..., T]$, representing KPI data with lengths T_1 and T_2 , 181 respectively. Our goal is to construct a causal graph $\mathcal{G} = \{\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{A}\}$ to identify the top k system entities 182 most relevant to y. Here, \mathcal{V} represents the set of vertices, $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ denotes the adjacency matrix, 183 and n is the total number of entities plus the system KPI. To simplify, we replicate the KPI d_M times to match the number of metrics. This allows us to concatenate the system metric time-series data and KPI, yielding $\hat{X}_{M}^{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_{M} \times T_{1}}$ and $\hat{X}_{M}^{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_{M} \times T_{2}}$ for metric data. Similarly, we combine the system log time-series data and KPI, denoted as $\hat{X}_{L}^{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_{L} \times T_{1}}$ and $\hat{X}_{L}^{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_{L} \times T_{2}}$. Online 185 186 187 RCA is a crucial step in system diagnosis post online fault/failure detection, which falls beyond 188 the scope of this work. Here, we employ the Multivariate Singular Spectrum Analysis (MSSA) 189 model (Alanqary et al., 2021), a state-of-the-art method for online failure detection, to identify the triggers for the root cause analysis process. We summarize the notation in Table 1. 190

3.2 LONG-TERM TEMPORAL CAUSAL STRUCTURE LEARNING

To capture temporal causal relations among various system entities and KPIs, the Vector Autoregression Model (VAR) (Stock & Watson, 2001) is often employed (Wang et al., 2023a;b; Zheng et al., 2024a) due to its effectiveness in capturing dynamic interactions among variables in time series data. Specifically, given the two-way matrix $X_{M,i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times T_1}$ for the *i*th system metric, our objective is to minimize a VAR-based loss function as follows:

$$\hat{X}_{M,i}^{t} = W^{1} X_{M,i}^{t-1} + W^{2} X_{M,i}^{t-2} + \dots + W^{t-1} X_{M,i}^{1} + \epsilon$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{var} = \sum_{i=1}^{d_{M}} ||X_{M,i}^{t} - F(\hat{X}_{M,i}^{t}, \mathcal{A}, \theta)||^{2}$$
(1)

where $\hat{X}_{M,i}^t$ represents the prediction for the i^{th} system metric, $W^i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ denotes the weight matrix, $\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}^n$ signifies the error variable, $F(\cdot)$ represents the graph neural network (Kipf & Welling, 2017) parameterized by θ , \mathcal{A} is the learnable causal graph capturing the relationships among node entities and KPIs, and $X_{M,i}^t$ denotes the future value.

This model is also known as the *t*th order VAR-based model, where *t* defines the range of temporal dependencies it can capture. However, a recent study (Lin et al., 2020) indicates that as the time lag *t* increases, the autoregressive model becomes computationally expensive, making it challenging to capture long-term temporal dependencies in online settings. Similarly, many existing temporal modeling techniques, such as Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) and Transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017), also incur high computational costs, limiting their applicability for online root cause analysis (see Appendix A for detailed discussion).

To address this issue, we propose a module based on **dilated convolution** and **graph neural networks** to efficiently capture the long-term temporal dependencies and causal relations among system entities

and KPIs. Different from the VAR-based methods (Wang et al., 2023a;b; Zheng et al., 2024a) that take as input the 2-way matrix, we propose to capture the long-term temporal dependency via 3-way tensors. Specifically, given four 3-way tensors (*i.e.*, historical metric data \hat{X}_{M}^{0} , historical log data \hat{X}_{L}^{0} , the current batch of metric data \hat{X}_{M}^{i} and log data \hat{X}_{L}^{i}), we follow the idea of LSTM (Hochreiter & Schmidhuber, 1997) and Gated Temporal Convolutional Network (TCN) (Wu et al., 2019) to model the temporal dependency for the historical and current batches of time series for two modalities as follows:

223 224 225

226 227

$$g(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{f}) = \boldsymbol{x} * \boldsymbol{f} = \sum_{\tau=0}^{K-1} \boldsymbol{f}(\tau) \cdot \boldsymbol{x}(t - d \times \tau)$$
(2)

$$\boldsymbol{H}_{v}^{0} = \tanh(g(\hat{\boldsymbol{X}}_{v}^{0}, \boldsymbol{f}_{1})) \odot \sigma_{1}(g(\hat{\boldsymbol{X}}_{v}^{0}, \boldsymbol{f}_{2}))$$
(3)

$$\boldsymbol{H}_{v}^{i} = \tanh(g(\hat{\boldsymbol{X}}_{v}^{i}, \boldsymbol{f}_{3})) \odot \sigma_{1}(g(\hat{\boldsymbol{X}}_{v}^{i}, \boldsymbol{f}_{4}))$$

$$\tag{4}$$

 $\hat{\boldsymbol{O}}_{v}^{0} = MFL(\hat{\boldsymbol{H}}_{v}^{0}), \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}_{v}^{i} = MFL(\hat{\boldsymbol{H}}_{v}^{i})$ (5)

230 where $\mathbf{f} \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$ represents the 1-D kernel, d is the dilation factor controlling the skipping distance, \odot denotes the Hadamard product, $v \in \{M, L\}$, $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{(1+e^{-x})}$ is the sigmoid function, and 231 232 $tanh(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$ is the tanh function. f_1, f_2, f_3 , and f_4 are 1-D kernels of the dilated convolution networks. $H_v^0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_v \times T_3}$ and $H_v^i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_v \times T_4}$ represent the historical time series and the *i*th batch 233 234 of streaming time series for the modality v, respectively. T_3 and T_4 are the output dimensions of the 235 dilated convolution networks. Additionally, $MFL(\cdot)$ denotes the representation learning with multi-236 factor attention module, aiming to encode the correlation of different metrics into the representations 237 $\hat{O}_v^0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_v \cdot T_3}$ and $\hat{O}_v^i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_v \cdot T_4}$, which will be introduced in the next subsection. By stacking 238 dilated causal convolution layers, the model's receptive field grows exponentially, allowing for longer 239 time series with fewer layers and thereby reducing computation costs. We validate the efficiency 240 of dilated convolutional operations in our experiments (see Subsection 4.2) by comparing their 241 computational costs with those of VAR-based methods. 242

To learn the causal relationship among system entities, we aggregate information from neighbors via a graph neural network (i.e., GraphSAGE (Hamilton et al., 2017)) and mimic fault propagation through a message-passing mechanism:

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}_{v}^{0} = \sigma_{2}(\mathcal{A}_{old}(\hat{\boldsymbol{O}}_{v}^{0} \oplus \boldsymbol{N}_{v}^{0})\boldsymbol{W}^{1}), \text{ where } \boldsymbol{N}_{v}^{0}[j] = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{N}_{j}|} \sum_{k \in N_{j}} \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}_{v}^{0}[k]$$

$$\tag{6}$$

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}_{v}^{i} = \sigma_{2}((\mathcal{A}_{old} + \Delta \mathcal{A}_{v})(\hat{\boldsymbol{O}}_{v}^{i} \oplus \boldsymbol{N}_{v}^{i})\boldsymbol{W}^{2}), \text{ where } \boldsymbol{N}_{v}^{i}[j] = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{N}_{j}|} \sum_{k \in N_{j}} \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}_{v}^{i}[k]$$
(7)

where W^1 and W^2 are weight matrices, \oplus denotes concatenation, \mathcal{N}_j represents node entity j's neighbors, N_v^i aggregates neighbor information, \mathcal{A}_{old} is the previous batch's learned causal graph, and $\Delta \mathcal{A}_v \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a learnable adjacency matrix. Unlike \mathcal{A}_{old} , $\Delta \mathcal{A}_v$ captures unique patterns in the current streaming data batch. \hat{X}_v^0 (\hat{X}_v^i) predicts future values based on previous lagged data \hat{X}_v^0 (\hat{X}_v^i), leveraging temporal dependencies captured by dilated convolutional neural networks. Finally, we minimize forecasting errors as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{temporal} = \frac{1}{n(d_L + d_M)} \sum_{v} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{d_v} [||\hat{\boldsymbol{X}}_v^0[j,k] - \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}_v^0[j,k]||^2 + ||\hat{\boldsymbol{X}}_v^i[j,k] - \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}_v^i[j,k]||^2] \quad (8)$$

Notice that leveraging Eq. 8 and the message passing mechanism of GNNs in Eq. 6 allows the model to encode causality in the learned adjacency matrix $\tilde{A} = A_{old} + \Delta A_v$, such as $X \to y$, where X is a potential root cause and y is a Key Performance Indicator (KPI). Additionally, we add the trace exponential function $h(\tilde{A}) = (tr(e^{\tilde{A} \odot \tilde{A}}) - n) = 0$ as a regularization term to ensure that \tilde{A} is acyclic (Pamfil et al., 2020), where \odot denotes the Hadamard product of two matrices.

266 267

268

258 259 260

3.3 REPRESENTATION LEARNING WITH MULTI-FACTOR ATTENTION

In microservice systems, each system entity has multiple entity metrics and various log attributes/indicators, including CPU usage, memory usage, log frequency, log golden signal, etc. 270 Existing RCA methods analyze abnormal patterns from each factor (*i.e.*, metric or log indicator) 271 individually, neglecting potential relationships among them. However, the importance of factors 272 varies depending on the abnormal patterns. Hence, reassessing the contribution of each factor to 273 causal structure learning is crucial. To bridge this gap, we propose to explore the correlation of 274 different factors from two modalities and then assess the contribution of each factor to causal structure learning with the attention mechanism (Lu et al., 2016; Vaswani et al., 2017). Given two represen-275 tations H_L^0 and H_M^0 in Eq. 3, we compute the multi-factor similarity matrix $C_i^0 \in \mathbb{R}^{d_M \times d_L}$ for 276 historical representation of the j^{th} system entity to capture the correlation of different modalities and 277 278 the relationship among multiple metrics and log indicators as follows:

279 280

287

289 290

301

302 303 304

305 306

307

308

309

310

318

$$\boldsymbol{C}_{j}^{0} = \tanh\left(\boldsymbol{H}_{M}^{0}[j]\boldsymbol{W}^{3}(\boldsymbol{H}_{L}^{0}[j])^{T}\right)$$
(9)

where $W^3 \in \mathbb{R}^{T_3 \times T_3}$ is a weight matrix and $H_v^0[j]$ denotes the historical representation of the *j*th system entity for modality $v \in \{M, L\}$. Starting here, we will skip equations related to the *i*th batch of streaming data for brevity, unless their computation differs from historical data. This matrix measures the similarities between modalities and among multiple factors. By leveraging this similarity matrix, we aim to encode information from both modalities in the hidden representation H_v^0 and assess the importance of each factor across both modalities, formulated as:

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{Z}_L^0[j] &= anh{(oldsymbol{H}_L^0[j]oldsymbol{W}^4 + oldsymbol{H}_M^0[j]oldsymbol{C}_j^0oldsymbol{W}^5)} \ oldsymbol{Z}_M^0[j] &= anh{(oldsymbol{H}_M^0[j]oldsymbol{W}^5 + oldsymbol{H}_L^0[j](oldsymbol{C}_j^0)^Toldsymbol{W}^4)} \ oldsymbol{a}_L^0[j] &= ext{softmax}(oldsymbol{w}^6oldsymbol{Z}_L^0[j]), \quad oldsymbol{a}_M^0[j] &= ext{softmax}(oldsymbol{w}^6oldsymbol{Z}_L^0[j]), \end{aligned}$$

where $W^4 \in \mathbb{R}^{T_3 \times T_3}$ and $W^5 \in \mathbb{R}^{T_3 \times T_3}$ are two weight matrices and $w^6 \in \mathbb{R}^{T_4}$ and $w^7 \in \mathbb{R}^{T_4}$ are two weight vectors. Notice that $a_L^0[j]$ and $a_M^0[j]$ measure the importance of each factor by encoding information from both modalities, capturing rich relationships for multi-modal and multi-dimensional data. Using these attention vectors, we encode all information learned from multiple factors of two modalities into the weighted representation $\hat{H}_v^0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times T_3}$ by:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{H}}_{v}^{0}[j] = \sum_{k=1}^{d_{v}} \boldsymbol{a}_{v}^{0}[i,k] \cdot \boldsymbol{H}_{v}^{0}[j,k]$$
(11)

(10)

After encoding the relationship among different factors and two modalities into \hat{H}_v^0 and \hat{H}_v^i , we aim to recover the factors of two modalities by:

$$\boldsymbol{O}_{v}^{0} = \mathrm{MLP}^{0}(\hat{\boldsymbol{H}}_{v}^{0}), \boldsymbol{O}_{v}^{i} = \mathrm{MLP}^{1}(\hat{\boldsymbol{H}}_{v}^{i})$$
(12)

where MLP⁰ and MLP¹ are two multi-layer perceptrons (MLP) to recover the metrics, $O_v^0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_v \times T_3}$ and $O_v^i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_v \times T_4}$. Here, we reshape O_v^0 and O_v^i , so that $O_v^0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_v \cdot T_3}$ and $O_v^i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_v \cdot T_4}$. Overall, Eqs. 9, 10, 11 and 12 are combined to derive $MFL(\cdot)$ in Eq. 5. After we assess the contribution of each factor to the causal structure learning, we use $a_v[j,k]$ to reweigh the importance of different factors in the future value prediction task in Eq. 8 and further encourage that the representations \hat{H}_v^0 and \hat{H}_v^i should contain more information for the factor with a larger weight $a_v[j,k]$. Therefore, Eq. 8 can be updated as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{temporal} = \frac{1}{n(d_L + d_M)} \sum_{v} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{d_v} [\boldsymbol{a}_v^0[j,k] || \hat{\boldsymbol{X}}_v^0[j,k] - \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}_v^0[j,k] ||^2 \\ + \boldsymbol{a}_v^i[j,k] || \hat{\boldsymbol{X}}_v^i[j,k] - \tilde{\boldsymbol{X}}_v^i[j,k] ||^2]$$
(13)

3.4 GRAPH FUSION WITH CONTRASTIVE MULTI-MODAL LEARNING

To tackle the challenges of multi-modal learning (as discussed in challenge C3 in Section 1), we propose to maximize the relatedness between two modalities via contrastive mutual information maximization. Given the representations of historical data \hat{H}_v^0 and streaming data \hat{H}_v^i extracted from both metric and log data, we maximize the mutual information between these two modalities:

$$\mathcal{L}_{MI} = \mathcal{I}_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{H}_{M}^{0}, \boldsymbol{H}_{L}^{0}) + \mathcal{I}_{\phi}(\boldsymbol{H}_{M}^{i}, \boldsymbol{H}_{L}^{i})$$
(14)

324 where \mathcal{I}_{ϕ} is the mutual information parameterized by a neural network ϕ . Following InfoNCE style 325 contrastive loss (Oord et al., 2018), we approximate the mutual information with its lower bound as 326 follows: 327

$$\mathcal{I}_{\phi}(\hat{H}_{M}^{0}, \hat{H}_{L}^{0}) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \log \frac{\sin(\phi(\hat{H}_{M}^{0}[j]), \phi(\hat{H}_{L}^{0}[j]))}{\sum_{k} \sin(\phi(\hat{H}_{M}^{0}[j]), \phi(\hat{H}_{L}^{0}[k]))}$$
(15)

where $sim(a, b) = exp(\frac{ab^T}{|a||b|})$ is the exponential of cosine similarity measurement between two entity representations a and b.

To generate the causal graph for the current batch of data, simple addition may not work because it may result in dense and cyclical graphs. This issue might even exacerbate in the low-quality modality 334 scenario, as one modality might convey more important information than others. The low-quality 335 modality usually obscures the crucial patterns for causal graph learning if both modalities are treated 336 with equal importance. To address this issue, we propose to measure the importance of two modalities with the correlation of multiple metrics captured in Eq. 9. Based on the similarity map for the current 338 batch (*i.e.*, C_i^i), we further measure the importance of each modality and fuse two causal graphs: 339

$$s_{M} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{l=1}^{d_{M}} \exp(\sum_{k=1}^{d_{L}} C_{j}^{i}[l,k])}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{l=1}^{d_{M}} \exp(\sum_{k=1}^{d_{L}} C_{j}^{i}[l,k]) + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{d_{L}} \exp(\sum_{l=1}^{d_{M}} C_{j}^{i}[l,k])}$$
(16)

341 342 343

344

345 346

351

352 353

359

364

376

340

328 329

330 331

332

333

337

$$\mathcal{A} = (1 - s_M) \cdot (\mathcal{A}_{old} + \Delta \mathcal{A}_L) + s_M \cdot (\mathcal{A}_{old} + \Delta \mathcal{A}_M)$$
(17)

Optimization. The final objective function is written as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{sparse} = ||\Delta \mathcal{A}_L||_1 + ||\Delta \mathcal{A}_M||_1$$

$$\mathcal{L} = -\mathcal{L}_{MI} + \lambda_1 \mathcal{L}_{temporal} + \lambda_2 \mathcal{L}_{sparse} + \lambda_3 h(\mathcal{A})$$
(18)

347 where $|| \cdot ||_1$ is the sparsity constraint imposed on the adjacency matrix and \mathcal{L}_{sparse} aims to ensure 348 that the changes of the edges are expected to be sparse. The trace exponential function $h(\mathcal{A}) =$ $(tr(e^{\mathcal{A} \odot \mathcal{A}}) - n) = 0$ holds if and only if \mathcal{A} is acyclic (Pamfil et al., 2020), where \odot denotes the 349 Hadamard product of two matrices. λ_1 , λ_2 and λ_3 are the positive constant hyper-parameters. 350

3.5 NETWORK PROPAGATION-BASED ROOT CAUSE IDENTIFICATION

The propagation of malfunction effects from the root cause to adjacent entities implies that the 354 immediate neighbors of system KPIs may not necessarily be the root causes themselves. To identify 355 the root cause, we initially derive the transition probability matrix based on the causal graph \mathcal{G} and 356 then utilize a random walk with restart method (Tong et al., 2006) to simulate the spread patterns of 357 malfunctions as follows: 358

$$\boldsymbol{P_{ij}} = \frac{\beta \mathcal{A}_{j,i}}{\sum_{k=1}^{n} \mathcal{A}_{k,i}} \tag{19}$$

360 The transition probability matrix P is the normalized adjacency matrix signified by the coefficient 361 $\beta \in [0, 1]$. During the visiting exploration process, we may restart from the KPI node to revisit other system entities with the probability $c \in [0, 1]$. The equation for the random walk with restart is 362 formulated by: 363

$$\boldsymbol{r}_{t+1} = (1-c)\boldsymbol{P}\boldsymbol{r}_t + c\boldsymbol{r}_0 \tag{20}$$

where r_t represents the jumping probability at the t^{th} step, r_0 denotes the initial starting probability, and $c \in [0, 1]$ stands for the restart probability. Upon convergence of the jumping probability r_t , the 366 probability scores of the nodes are employed to rank the system entities and the top k entities are 367 selected as the most probable root causes for system failure. 368

Stopping Criterion. As the number of new data batches increases, the identified causal structure 369 and its associated root cause list may gradually converge. To prevent unnecessary consumption of 370 computing resources, we employ them as indicators for automatic termination of the online RCA 371 process. We use the rank-biased overlap metric (RBO) (Webber et al., 2010) to measure the similarity 372 between two root cause lists, effectively capturing the evolving trend of root cause rankings. Given 373 the rank lists from the previous and current batches, denoted as R_{t-1} and R_t respectively, we quantify 374 the similarity between these lists as follows: 375

$$\gamma = \operatorname{RBO}(R_{t-1}, R_t) \tag{21}$$

where $\gamma \in [0, 1]$. A higher value of γ indicates a greater similarity between the two root cause lists. 377 The online RCA process is terminated when the similarity score s surpasses a predefined threshold.

³⁷⁸ 4 EXPERIMENTS 379

380

381

382

383

In this section, we evaluate the effectiveness of our proposed OCEAN by comparing it with state-ofthe-art root cause analysis techniques. Additionally, we conduct a case study and an ablation study to further validate the assumptions outlined in the previous sections.

384 4.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP385

Datasets. We evaluate the performance of OCEAN using three public real-world datasets: (1)
 Product Review* (Zheng et al., 2024b): A microservice system dedicated to online product reviews, encompassing 234 pods deployed across 6 cloud servers. It recorded four system faults between May 2021 and December 2021. (2) Online Boutique[†] (Yu et al., 2023): A microservice system designed for e-commerce, including five system faults. (3) Train Ticket (Yu et al., 2023): A microservice system for railway ticketing services, also with five system faults. All three datasets contain two modalities: system metrics and system logs.

Evaluation Metrics. We choose four widely-used metrics (Wang et al., 2023c; Meng et al., 2020):
(1) Precision@K (PR@K): Measures the accuracy of the top-K predicted root causes. (2) Mean
Average Precision@K (MAP@K): Evaluates the overall accuracy of the top-K predicted causes. (3)
Mean Reciprocal Rank (MRR): Assesses the ranking capability of the models. (4) Time: Measures
the training time (in seconds) for each batch of data. Details on the first three metrics are provided in
Appendix D and we provide the time complexity analysis in Appendix B.

Baselines. We compare OCEAN with seven causal discovery based RCA methods: (1) PC (Burr, 399 2003): A classic constraint-based algorithm that identifies the causal graph's skeleton using an 400 independence test. (2) Dynotears (Pamfil et al., 2020): Constructs dynamic Bayesian networks 401 through vector autoregression models. (3) C-LSTM (Tank et al., 2022): Utilizes LSTM to model 402 temporal dependencies and capture nonlinear Granger causality. (4) GOLEM (Ng et al., 2020): 403 Relaxes the hard Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG) constraint in NOTEARS (Zheng et al., 2018) with a 404 scoring function. (5) **REASON** (Wang et al., 2023c): Learns both intra-level and inter-level causal 405 relationships in interdependent networks. (6) MULAN (Zheng et al., 2024a): A multi-modal method 406 that captures both modality-invariant and modality-specific representations. (7) CORAL (Wang 407 et al., 2023a): A VAR-based online RCA method that decouples state-invariant and state-dependent 408 information.

The first four baseline models were originally designed to learn causal structures solely from time series data. As outlined in (Wang et al., 2023c;a), these causal discovery models can be extended to identify the root cause nodes. In this process, we first apply causal discovery models to learn the causal graphs, then utilize random walk with restarts (Wang et al., 2023a) on these graphs to identify the top K nodes as root causes.

414

431

415 4.2 PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

Experimental Results. In this subsection, we present the performance evaluation results in Tables 2, 417 3, and 5 for various methods. Due to the page limit, we have moved the results for the Train Ticket 418 dataset (i.e., Table 5) to Appendix E.1. Notably, although many baseline methods (e.g., PC, C-419 LSTM, REASON, Dynotears, GOLEM) are tailored for single-modal scenarios, we assess their 420 performance in both single-modal contexts (e.g., system metrics only or system logs only) and multi-421 modal scenarios. System logs are considered additional system metrics, enabling these single-modal 422 methods to be evaluated in a multi-modal context. We derive an average ranking score from different 423 system metrics as the final result for all single-modal methods. 424

Our findings include: (1) Most baseline methods show improved performance when leveraging multi-modal data across three datasets. (2) CORAL, as an online RCA method, surpasses all offline methods across seven metrics. (3) OCEAN consistently outperforms all baselines across the datasets.
(4) Both CORAL and OCEAN demonstrate shorter training time compared to offline methods, with OCEAN reducing its computational costs to 1/9 that of CORAL on the Product Review dataset. This reduction is credited to the efficiency of dilated convolutional operations and the design of the

^{*}https://lemma-rca.github.io/docs/data.html

[†]https://github.com/IntelligentDDS/Nezha

C-LSTM

GOLEM

REASON

MULAN

CORAL OCEAN

Multi-Modality

0.2

0.2

0.4

0.4

0.4

0.6

0.4

0.6

1.0

0.8

1.0

1.0

									_
Modality	Model	PR@1	PR@5	PR@10	MRR	MAP@3	MAP@5	MAP@10	Time (s)
	PC	0	0	0	0.034	0	0	0	225.19
	Dynotears	0	0.25	0.50	0.092	0	0.05	0.175	390.37
Metric Only Log Only Multi-Modality	C-LSTM	0.25	0.5	0.5	0.409	0.417	0.45	0.475	1482.01
· · · · · ·	GOLEM	0	0	0.25	0.043	0	0	0.025	308.25
	REASON	0.25	1.0	1.0	0.5625	0.583	0.75	0.875	247.87
	CORAL	0.5	1.0	1.0	0.75	0.833	0.9	0.95	146.46
	PC	0	0	0	0.043	0	0	0	93.98
	Dynotears	0	0	0.25	0.058	0	0	0.075	142.26
Log Only	C-LSIM	0	0	0.25	0.059	0	0	0.075	602.92
0 ,	GOLEM	0	0	0.25	0.058	0	0	0.075	144.8
	REASON	0	0	0.5	0.088	0	0	0.1	129.17
	CORAL	0	0	0.5	0.118	0	0	0.2	50.29
	PC	0	0	0.25	0.054	0	0	0.075	300.26
	Dynotears	0	0.25	0.5	0.114	0	0.05	0.225	426.78
Multi-Modality	C-LSTM	0.25	0.5	0.5	0.341	0.25	0.35	0.425	1808.76
	GOLEM	0	0	0.25	0.066	0	0	0.05	452.25
	REASON	0.5	1.0	1.0	0.687	0.667	0.8	0.9	303.5
	MULAN	0.75	1.0	1.0	0.833	0.833	0.9	0.95	255.74
	CORAL	0.75	1.0	1.0	0.875	0.917	0.95	0.975	186.73
	OCEAN	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	20.16
Modality	Table :	3: Resu	lts on O	nline Bo	utique v	v.r.t differ	ent metric	S. MAP@5	Time (s
modulity	PC	02	04	06	0.39	03	0 333	04	5 25
	Dynotears	0.2	0.4	0.0	0 344	0.2	0.267	0.32	14 56
	C-I STM	0.2	0.4	0.4	03	0.1	0.207	0.32	20.75
Metric Only	GOLEM	0	0.4	0.6	0 291	0.1	0.267	0.36	4 32
	REASON	04	0.4	10	0.617	0.2	0.207	0.50	3 23
	CORAL	0.4	1.0	1.0	0.017	0.5	0.733	0.70	2 99
	PC	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.257	0.0	0.735	0.32	3.88
	Dynotears	0	0.4	0.0	0.207	0.1	0.067	0.32	10.23
	CISTM	0	0.2	0.0	0.207	0.1	0.007	0.24	15.07
Log Only	GOLEM	0	0.4	0.0	0.207	0.1	0.2	0.30	3 30
	DEASON	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.248	0.2	0.155	0.50	2.39
	CODAT	0.2	0.8	0.8	0.438	0.5	0.467	0.0	2.39
	COKAL	0.2	0.6	1.0	0.457	0.3	0.4	0.0	2.04
	PC	0.4	0.8	1.0	0.573	0.4	0.533	0.68	6.78
	Dynotears	0.2	0.6	1.0	0.467	0.3	0.4	0.64	16.38

Table 2: Results on Product Review dataset w.r.t different metrics.

multi-factor attention module. CORAL's approach of individually learning and then fusing causal
graphs for each metric is computationally intensive in an online setting. Furthermore, OCEAN
shows a notable improvement in MRR on the Product Review dataset, outperforming CORAL by
12.5%. Additionally, OCEAN exceeds CORAL by 20% in PR@1 and 10% in MAP@2 on the Online
Boutique dataset, benefiting from the assessment of the importance of multiple factors and exploring
correlations among different modalities.

1.0

1.0

1.0

1.0

1.0

1.0

0.45

0.467

0.667

0.617

0.7

0.8

0.3

0.3

0.6

0.5

0.7

0.8

0.333

0.4

0.733

0.6

0.8

0.867

0.6

0.64

0.84

0.76

0.88

0.92

22.66

5.68

4.51

4.96

3.63

1.84

Ablation Study. In this subsection, we evaluate the effectiveness of individual components within
the objective function of OCEAN (Eq. 18). Specifically, we define OCEAN-F and OCEAN-M
as variants that lack the multi-factor attention learning module and the contrastive multi-modal
learning module, respectively, while OCEAN-S removes the sparse constraint. The results, shown in

4	8	0
4	8	1
Д	8	2

483 484 485

464

465

466

467

468 469

Table 4: Ablation study of	n three datasets	w.r.t MRR.
----------------------------	------------------	------------

Model	Product Review	Online Boutique	Train Ticket
OCEAN	1.0	0.8	0.381
OCEAN-F	0.75	0.8	0.331
OCEAN-M	0.875	0.7	0.320
OCEAN-S	0.833	0.7	0.345



Figure 2: Figure (a) shows the identification time for four cases as well as the average identification time. Figures (b), (c), and (d) are the parameter analysis on the Product Review dataset w.r.t MRR.

497 Table 4, indicate a significant performance degradation when any component is omitted. Specifically, 498 removing the multi-factor attention module results in 25% and 5% performance drop on the Product 499 Review dataset and Train Ticket dataset, respectively. Eliminating the contrastive multi-modal 500 learning module leads to 12.5% reduction on the Product Review dataset. These findings underscore 501 the importance of each component in maintaining OCEAN's high performance. Additionally, as 502 detailed in Appendix E.2, replacing the dilated convolutional network with LSTM or Transformer 503 model resulted in performance decline, reinforcing the effectiveness of our design.

504 **Case Study.** In this subsection, we evaluate the promptness of two online RCA methods on the 505 Product Review dataset, CORAL and OCEAN, as shown in Figure 2 (a). Note that we also evaluate 506 the effectiveness of the long-term temporal causal structure learning module by varying the number 507 of dilated convolutional layers in OCEAN, specifically comparing configurations with one and two 508 layers. In Figure 2 (a), the y-axis represents the batch index at which an RCA method meets the 509 stopping criteria, and the real-time marker indicates the actual system failure time. A lower batch 510 index value signifies faster identification of the ground-truth root cause by the RCA method. Notably, CORAL did not successfully rank the ground-truth root cause first in case 2, so we use the total 511 number of batches to represent its detection time for a fair comparison. Our observations reveal that 512 CORAL experiences about a 10-epoch delay relative to real-time in most cases, whereas OCEAN (2-513 layer) achieves quicker detection than OCEAN (1-layer). This improvement confirms our hypothesis 514 that adding more dilated convolutional layers enhances the model's ability to capture longer temporal 515 dependencies, as discussed in Subsection 3.2. 516

Parameter Analysis. In this subsection, we present detailed parameter sensitivity analysis conducted 517 on the Product Review dataset, with additional analyses for other datasets available in Appendix E.3. 518 Specifically, we explore the impact of three parameters, λ_1 , λ_2 , and λ_3 , on the overall objective 519 functions as defined in Eq. 18. The experimental results are displayed in Figures 2 (b), (c), and (d), 520 showing the Mean Reciprocal Rank (MRR) on the Product Review dataset. On these figures, the 521 x-axis represents $\ln(\lambda_i)$ for $i \in [1, 2, 3]$, and the y-axis shows the MRR score. Our analysis reveals 522 that a higher λ_1 (e.g., $\ln(\lambda_1) = 4.6$) significantly enhances performance, underscoring the vital role of 523 the long-term temporal causal structure learning module in capturing temporal dependencies among 524 system entities. Conversely, λ_2 and λ_3 exhibit optimal performance at relatively lower values (*e.g.*, 525 $\ln(\lambda_2) = -0.7$ and $\ln(\lambda_3) = 0$, with performance declining noticeably at higher levels. However, 526 further reducing λ_2 and λ_3 also leads to diminished performance, which verifies the important role of 527 sparse regularization and the acyclic constraint of the causal graph.

528 529

5 CONCLUSION

530 531

495

496

In this paper, we investigate the challenging problem of online multi-modal root cause localization in 532 microservice systems. We introduce OCEAN, a novel online causal structure learning framework 533 designed to effectively identify root causes using diverse data sources. OCEAN utilizes a dilated 534 convolutional neural network to capture long-term temporal dependencies and employs graph neural networks to establish causal relationships among system entities and key performance indicators. Additionally, we develop a multi-factor attention mechanism to evaluate and refine the contributions 537 of various factors to the causal graph. Furthermore, OCEAN incorporates a contrastive mutual information maximization-based graph fusion module to enhance interactions between different 538 modalities and optimize their mutual information. The effectiveness of OCEAN is validated through extensive experiments on three real-world datasets, demonstrating its robustness and efficiency.

540 REFERENCES

556

557

558

559

560

564

565

566

567

568

571

575

576

577

583

584

585

586

- Pooja Aggarwal, Ajay Gupta, Prateeti Mohapatra, Seema Nagar, Atri Mandal, Qing Wang, and Amit
 Paradkar. Localization of operational faults in cloud applications by mining causal dependencies
 in logs using golden signals. In *International Conference on Service-Oriented Computing*, pp. 137–149. Springer, 2020.
- Arwa Alanqary, Abdullah Alomar, and Devavrat Shah. Change point detection via multivariate singular spectrum analysis. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 34:23218–23230, 2021.
- Justus Bogner, Stefan Wagner, and Alfred Zimmermann. Automatically measuring the maintainability
 of service-and microservice-based systems: a literature review. In *Proceedings of the 27th international workshop on software measurement and 12th international conference on software process and product measurement*, pp. 107–115, 2017.
- Tom Burr. Causation, prediction, and search. *Technometrics*, 45(3):272–273, 2003.
 - Yinfang Chen, Huaibing Xie, Minghua Ma, Yu Kang, Xin Gao, Liu Shi, Yunjie Cao, Xuedong Gao, Hao Fan, Ming Wen, et al. Automatic root cause analysis via large language models for cloud incidents. In *Proceedings of the Nineteenth European Conference on Computer Systems*, pp. 674–688, 2024.
- Panting Duan, Zhenzhen He, Yihai He, Fengdi Liu, Anqi Zhang, and Di Zhou. Root cause analysis
 approach based on reverse cascading decomposition in qfd and fuzzy weight arm for quality
 accidents. *Computers & Industrial Engineering*, 147:106643, 2020.
 - Drishti Goel, Fiza Husain, Aditya Singh, Supriyo Ghosh, Anjaly Parayil, Chetan Bansal, Xuchao Zhang, and Saravan Rajmohan. X-lifecycle learning for cloud incident management using llms. In Companion Proceedings of the 32nd ACM International Conference on the Foundations of Software Engineering, pp. 417–428, 2024.
- Will Hamilton, Zhitao Ying, and Jure Leskovec. Inductive representation learning on large graphs.
 Advances in neural information processing systems, 30, 2017.
- Pinjia He, Jieming Zhu, Zibin Zheng, and Michael R Lyu. Drain: An online log parsing approach
 with fixed depth tree. In 2017 IEEE international conference on web services (ICWS), pp. 33–40.
 IEEE, 2017.
 - Sepp Hochreiter and Jürgen Schmidhuber. Long short-term memory. *Neural Comput.*, 9(8):1735–1780, 1997.
- 578 Chuanjia Hou, Tong Jia, Yifan Wu, Ying Li, and Jing Han. Diagnosing performance issues in microservices with heterogeneous data source. In 2021 IEEE Intl Conf on Parallel & Distributed
 580 Processing with Applications, Big Data & Cloud Computing, Sustainable Computing & Communications, Social Computing & Networking (ISPA/BDCloud/SocialCom/SustainCom), New York City, NY, USA, September 30 Oct. 3, 2021, pp. 493–500. IEEE, 2021.
 - Azam Ikram, Sarthak Chakraborty, Subrata Mitra, Shiv Kumar Saini, Saurabh Bagchi, and Murat Kocaoglu. Root cause analysis of failures in microservices through causal discovery. In *NeurIPS*, 2022.
- Thomas N. Kipf and Max Welling. Semi-supervised classification with graph convolutional networks. In 5th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2017, Toulon, France, April 24-26, 2017, Conference Track Proceedings. OpenReview.net, 2017.
- Tian Lan, Ziyue Li, Zhishuai Li, Lei Bai, Man Li, Fugee Tsung, Wolfgang Ketter, Rui Zhao, and Chen Zhang. Mm-dag: Multi-task dag learning for multi-modal data-with application for traffic congestion analysis. In *Proceedings of the 29th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, pp. 1188–1199, 2023.

594 595 596 597 598	Mingjie Li, Zeyan Li, Kanglin Yin, Xiaohui Nie, Wenchi Zhang, Kaixin Sui, and Dan Pei. Causal inference-based root cause analysis for online service systems with intervention recognition. In Aidong Zhang and Huzefa Rangwala (eds.), <i>KDD '22: The 28th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, Washington, DC, USA, August 14 - 18, 2022</i> , pp. 3230–3240. ACM, 2022.
599 600 601 602 603	Zeyan Li, Junjie Chen, Rui Jiao, Nengwen Zhao, Zhijun Wang, Shuwei Zhang, Yanjun Wu, Long Jiang, Leiqin Yan, Zikai Wang, et al. Practical root cause localization for microservice systems via trace analysis. In 2021 IEEE/ACM 29th International Symposium on Quality of Service (IWQOS), pp. 1–10. IEEE, 2021.
604 605	Chu-Cheng Lin, Aaron Jaech, Xin Li, Matthew R Gormley, and Jason Eisner. Limitations of autoregressive models and their alternatives. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.11939</i> , 2020.
606 607 608 609	 Dewei Liu, Chuan He, Xin Peng, Fan Lin, Chenxi Zhang, Shengfang Gong, Ziang Li, Jiayu Ou, and Zheshun Wu. Microhecl: High-efficient root cause localization in large-scale microservice systems. In 43rd IEEE/ACM International Conference on Software Engineering: Software Engineering in Practice, ICSE (SEIP) 2021, Madrid, Spain, May 25-28, 2021, pp. 338–347. IEEE, 2021.
611 612 613 614 615	Jiasen Lu, Jianwei Yang, Dhruv Batra, and Devi Parikh. Hierarchical question-image co-attention for visual question answering. In Daniel D. Lee, Masashi Sugiyama, Ulrike von Luxburg, Isabelle Guyon, and Roman Garnett (eds.), Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 29: Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems 2016, December 5-10, 2016, Barcelona, Spain, pp. 289–297, 2016.
616 617 618	Siyang Lu, BingBing Rao, Xiang Wei, Byung-Chul Tak, Long Wang, and Liqiang Wang. Log-based abnormal task detection and root cause analysis for spark. In 2017 IEEE International Conference on Web Services, ICWS 2017, Honolulu, HI, USA, June 25-30, 2017, pp. 389–396. IEEE, 2017.
619 620 621 622	Yuan Meng, Shenglin Zhang, Yongqian Sun, Ruru Zhang, Zhilong Hu, Yiyin Zhang, Chenyang Jia, Zhaogang Wang, and Dan Pei. Localizing failure root causes in a microservice through causality inference. In 28th IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Quality of Service, IWQoS 2020, Hangzhou, China, June 15-17, 2020, pp. 1–10. IEEE, 2020.
623 624 625 626 627 628	Ignavier Ng, AmirEmad Ghassami, and Kun Zhang. On the role of sparsity and DAG constraints for learning linear dags. In Hugo Larochelle, Marc'Aurelio Ranzato, Raia Hadsell, Maria-Florina Balcan, and Hsuan-Tien Lin (eds.), Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 33: Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems 2020, NeurIPS 2020, December 6-12, 2020, virtual, 2020.
629 630	Aaron van den Oord, Yazhe Li, and Oriol Vinyals. Representation learning with contrastive predictive coding. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:1807.03748</i> , 2018.
631 632 633 634 635	Roxana Pamfil, Nisara Sriwattanaworachai, Shaan Desai, Philip Pilgerstorfer, Konstantinos Geor- gatzis, Paul Beaumont, and Bryon Aragam. DYNOTEARS: structure learning from time-series data. In Silvia Chiappa and Roberto Calandra (eds.), <i>The 23rd International Conference on</i> <i>Artificial Intelligence and Statistics, AISTATS 2020, 26-28 August 2020, Online [Palermo, Sicily,</i> <i>Italy]</i> , volume 108 of <i>Proceedings of Machine Learning Research</i> , pp. 1595–1605. PMLR, 2020.
636 637 638	Daniel Podgórski. Measuring operational performance of osh management system–a demonstration of ahp-based selection of leading key performance indicators. <i>Safety science</i> , 73:146–166, 2015.
639 640 641 642	Devjeet Roy, Xuchao Zhang, Rashi Bhave, Chetan Bansal, Pedro Las-Casas, Rodrigo Fonseca, and Saravan Rajmohan. Exploring llm-based agents for root cause analysis. In <i>Companion Proceedings</i> of the 32nd ACM International Conference on the Foundations of Software Engineering, pp. 208–219, 2024.
643 644 645	Shiwen Shan, Yintong Huo, Yuxin Su, Yichen Li, Dan Li, and Zibin Zheng. Face it yourselves: An llm-based two-stage strategy to localize configuration errors via logs. In <i>Proceedings of the 33rd ACM SIGSOFT International Symposium on Software Testing and Analysis</i> , pp. 13–25, 2024.
040 647	Jacopo Soldani and Antonio Brogi. Anomaly detection and failure root cause analysis in (micro) service-based cloud applications: A survey. <i>ACM Computing Surveys (CSUR)</i> , 55(3):1–39, 2022.

648 649	Jacopo Soldani and Antonio Brogi. Anomaly detection and failure root cause analysis in (micro) service-based cloud applications: A survey. <i>ACM Comput. Surv.</i> , 55(3):59:1–59:39, 2023.
650 651	Kai Sporleder, Volker Naumann, Jan Bauer, Susanne Richter, Angelika Hähnel, Stephan Großer,
652	Marko Turek, and Christian Hagendorf. Root cause analysis on corrosive potential-induced
653	Solar Cells 201:110062 2019
654	50107 Cetus, 201.110002, 2017.
655 656	James H Stock and Mark W Watson. Vector autoregressions. <i>Journal of Economic perspectives</i> , 15 (4):101–115, 2001.
657	
658 659	<i>IEEE Trans. Pattern Anal. Mach. Intell.</i> , 44(8):4267–4279, 2022.
660	Hanghang Tong, Christos Faloutsos, and Jia-Yu Pan. Fast random walk with restart and its applications.
661 662	In Proceedings of the 6th IEEE International Conference on Data Mining (ICDM 2006), 18-22 December 2006, Hong Kong, China, pp. 613–622. IEEE Computer Society, 2006.
663 664 665 666 667	 Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N. Gomez, Lukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. In Isabelle Guyon, Ulrike von Luxburg, Samy Bengio, Hanna M. Wallach, Rob Fergus, S. V. N. Vishwanathan, and Roman Garnett (eds.), Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 30: Annual Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems 2017, December 4-9, 2017, Long Beach, CA, USA, pp. 5998–6008, 2017.
669 670 671	Dongjie Wang, Zhengzhang Chen, Yanjie Fu, Yanchi Liu, and Haifeng Chen. Incremental causal graph learning for online root cause analysis. In <i>Proceedings of the 29th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining</i> , pp. 2269–2278, 2023a.
672 673 674	Dongjie Wang, Zhengzhang Chen, Jingchao Ni, Liang Tong, Zheng Wang, Yanjie Fu, and Haifeng Chen. Hierarchical graph neural networks for causal discovery and root cause localization. <i>arXiv</i> preprint arXiv:2302.01987, 2023b.
676 677 678 679	Dongjie Wang, Zhengzhang Chen, Jingchao Ni, Liang Tong, Zheng Wang, Yanjie Fu, and Haifeng Chen. Interdependent causal networks for root cause localization. In <i>Proceedings of the 29th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, KDD 2023, Long Beach, CA, USA, August 6-10, 2023</i> , pp. 5051–5060. ACM, 2023c.
680 681 682 683	Zefan Wang, Zichuan Liu, Yingying Zhang, Aoxiao Zhong, Lunting Fan, Lingfei Wu, and Qingsong Wen. Reagent: Cloud root cause analysis by autonomous agents with tool-augmented large language models. In <i>Proceedings of the 31st ACM International Conference on Information & Knowledge Management</i> , 2024.
684 685 686	William Webber, Alistair Moffat, and Justin Zobel. A similarity measure for indefinite rankings. <i>ACM Trans. Inf. Syst.</i> , 28(4):20:1–20:38, 2010. doi: 10.1145/1852102.1852106. URL https: //doi.org/10.1145/1852102.1852106.
688 689 690 691	Zonghan Wu, Shirui Pan, Guodong Long, Jing Jiang, and Chengqi Zhang. Graph wavenet for deep spatial-temporal graph modeling. In Sarit Kraus (ed.), <i>Proceedings of the Twenty-Eighth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, IJCAI 2019, Macao, China, August 10-16, 2019</i> , pp. 1907–1913. ijcai.org, 2019.
692 693 694	Fisher Yu and Vladlen Koltun. Multi-scale context aggregation by dilated convolutions. In Yoshua Bengio and Yann LeCun (eds.), 4th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2016, San Juan, Puerto Rico, May 2-4, 2016, Conference Track Proceedings, 2016.
695 696 697 698	Guangba Yu, Pengfei Chen, Yufeng Li, Hongyang Chen, Xiaoyun Li, and Zibin Zheng. Nezha: Interpretable fine-grained root causes analysis for microservices on multi-modal observability data. 2023.
699 700 701	Lecheng Zheng, Zhengzhang Chen, Jingrui He, and Haifeng Chen. MULAN: multi-modal causal structure learning and root cause analysis for microservice systems. In Tat-Seng Chua, Chong-Wah Ngo, Ravi Kumar, Hady W. Lauw, and Roy Ka-Wei Lee (eds.), <i>Proceedings of the ACM on Web</i>

Conference 2024, WWW 2024, Singapore, May 13-17, 2024, pp. 4107–4116. ACM, 2024a.

702 703 704	Lecheng Zheng, Zhengzhang Chen, Dongjie Wang, Chengyuan Deng, Reon Matsuoka, and Haifeng Chen. Lemma-rca: A large multi-modal multi-domain dataset for root cause analysis. <i>arXiv</i> preprint arXiv:2406.05375, 2024b.
705 706 707	Xun Zheng, Bryon Aragam, Pradeep K Ravikumar, and Eric P Xing. Dags with no tears: Continuous optimization for structure learning. <i>Advances in neural information processing systems</i> , 31, 2018.
708 709	Bin Zhou, Xinyu Li, Tianyuan Liu, Kaizhou Xu, Wei Liu, and Jinsong Bao. Causalkgpt: industrial structure causal knowledge-enhanced large language model for cause analysis of quality problems
710	in aerospace product manufacturing. Advanced Engineering Informatics, 59:102333, 2024.
711	
712	
713	
714	
716	
717	
718	
719	
720	
721	
722	
723	
724	
725	
726	
727	
720	
730	
731	
732	
733	
734	
735	
736	
737	
738	
739	
740	
741	
742	
743	
745	
746	
747	
748	
749	
750	
751	
752	
753	
754	
755	

756 MORE RATIONAL BEHIND THE MODEL DESIGN А

758

The main issue of Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) and Transformers is their high computational 759 cost, which makes them impractical for online root cause analysis. We chose Dilated Convolutional 760 Neural Networks (DCNNs) for their efficiency and ability to capture long-range dependencies, both 761 of which are essential in online settings where computational efficiency is critical. Unlike RNNs and 762 Transformers, which could capture temporal dependencies but often come with high computational overhead, DCNNs are parallelizable and offer a lower time complexity of O(NTkC), where T is 764 the sequence length, L is the number of layers, C is the number of filters, and k is the filter size. 765 In contrast, the complexity of the Transformer is $O(LT^2d)$, where T is the sequence length, L is 766 the number of layers, and d is the hidden feature dimensionality. As a result, Transformers are computationally more expensive than dilated convolutional neural networks. We further demonstrate 767 the efficiency and effectiveness of our method compared to LSTM and Transformers in the ablation 768 study presented in Table 6. 769

770 The rational behind the multi-factor attention mechanism is to capture complex relationships among 771 various factors (e.g., CPU usage and memory usage metrics in a microservice system) across two modalities. A common limitation of existing methods is their focus on correlations between modalities, 772 often overlooking the importance of individual factors within each modality. Our mechanism 773 addresses this by reassessing the significance of each factor, enhancing causal structure learning. This 774 enables our model to dynamically adjust to the changing significance of factors, which is crucial for 775 accurate root cause analysis. 776

777 We integrate contrastive learning into our model because of its proven effectiveness in multi-modal 778 tasks. It extracts shared information across different modalities, enhancing robustness and addressing 779 challenges posed by low-quality data. By assigning weights to each modality based on its importance, contrastive learning ensures that critical patterns are not obscured by noise. This approach helps 780 maintain the quality of causal graph learning, even when dealing with data of varying quality. 781

782 783

В TIME COMPLEXITY

784 785 786

787

788

789

The time complexity of dilated convolution based causal structure learning is O(NTkC). Here, T is the sequence length, L is the number of layers, C is the number of filters, and k is the filter size. The time complexity of multi-factor attention module is $O(d_M d_L d)$, where d is the hidden feature dimensionality, and d_M and d_L are the number of factors in two modalities. The time complexity of contrastive learning module is $O(n^2d)$, where n is the number of system entities.

790 791

793 794

С LOG FEATURE/INDICATOR EXTRACTION

In this subsection, we provide the details of converting the raw data into the time series, though this is not within the scope of this work. Specifically, we first use the Drain parser He et al. (2017) to 796 transform the unstructured log event into structured log templates for each entity. Then, we partition 797 the log data with fixed time windows, such as 5 minutes, and set time steps at 10 seconds. Within 798 these intervals, we count the occurrence of each log template to derive the log frequency feature. The 799 extraction of the log frequency feature is inspired by the insight that the recurrence of a log event 800 template often correlates with its significance. For instance, when a microservice system experiences 801 Distributed Denial of Service (DDoS) attacks, the system will produce an unusual volume of system 802 logs, indicating abnormal activity. Thus, the log frequency provides the information to identify 803 unusual patterns indicative of potential failure scenarios. In addition to log frequency, we also extract 804 a second type of log feature known as the 'golden signal.' Notice that different from log frequency, 805 golden signal heavily relies on domain knowledge and it only focuses on the abnormal system logs. 806 More specifically, we are only interested in some keywords, including 'error,' 'exception,' 'critical,' 807 'fatal', and various others indicative of system anomalies. By identifying these keywords within log event templates, we can discern abnormal occurrences for system failure localization. Similar to 808 the frequency-based feature, we compute the number of abnormal log events to derive the golden signal-based feature.

810 D EVALUATION METRICS

We evaluate the model performance with the following four widely-used metrics Meng et al. (2020):

(1). **Precision@K (PR@K)**: It measures the probability that the top K predicted root causes are relevant by:

$$PR@K = \frac{1}{|\mathbb{A}|} \sum_{a \in \mathbb{A}} \frac{\sum_{i < k} R_a(i) \in V_a}{\min(K, |v_a|)}$$
(22)

where \mathbb{A} is the set of system faults, *a* is one fault in \mathbb{A} , V_a is the real root causes of *a*, R_a is the predicted root causes of *a*, and i is the *i*-th predicted cause of R_a .

(2). Mean Average Precision@K (MAP@K): It evaluates the top K predicted causes from the overall perspective formulated as:

$$MAP@K = \frac{1}{K|\mathbb{A}|} \sum_{a \in \mathbb{A}} \sum_{i \le j \le K} PR@j$$
⁽²³⁾

where a higher value indicates a better performance.

(3). Mean Reciprocal Rank (MRR): It assesses the ranking capability of models, defined as:

$$PR@K = \frac{1}{|\mathbb{A}|} \sum_{a \in \mathbb{A}} \frac{1}{rank_{R_a}}$$
(24)

where $rank_{R_a}$ is the rank number of the first correctly predicted root cause for system fault a.

(4). **Time**: Measures the training time (in seconds) for each batch of data.

E ADDITIONAL EXPERIMENT

E.1 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We report the experimental results on Train Ticket dataset in Table 5.

839	
840	
841	

842	Modality	Model	PR@1	PR@5	PR@10	MRR	MAP@3	MAP@5	MAP@10	Time (s)
843		PC	0	0	0.2	0.067	0	0	0.06	9.65
844		Dynotears	0	0	0	0.047	0	0	0	21.3
8/15	Metric Only	C-LSTM	0	0.2	0.2	0.097	0	0.08	0.14	30.63
045	Wette Only	GOLEM	0	0.2	0.2	0.098	0	0.08	0.14	9.56
846		REASON	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.323	0.2	0.36	0.48	9.03
847		CORAL	0	0.4	1.0	0.184	0	0.16	0.5	5.72
848		PC	0	0.2	0.4	0.166	0.133	0.16	0.26	6.34
0.40		Dynotears	0	0	0.2	0.072	0	0	0.02	17.26
849	Log Only	C-LSTM	0	0	0.2	0.072	0	0	0.02	21.40
850		GOLEM	0	0.2	0.6	0.125	0	0.08	0.24	7.54
851		REASON	0	0.2	0.6	0.126	0	0.08	0.28	7.58
950		CORAL	0	0.2	0.8	0.138	0	0.08	0.32	3.35
052		PC	0	0	0.2	0.083	0	0	0.1	12.83
853		Dynotears	0	0.4	0.6	0.141	0	0.16	0.32	27.82
854		C-LSTM	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.294	0.2	0.28	0.36	36.76
855		GOLEM	0	0.4	0.6	0.144	0	0.16	0.3	12.16
050	Multi-Modality	REASON	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.300	0.2	0.28	0.42	12.81
800		MULAN	0.2	0.4	1.0	0.317	0.2	0.28	0.46	11.42
857		CORAL	0.2	0.4	1.0	0.334	0.2	0.28	0.56	7.26
858		OCEAN	0.2	0.4	1.0	0.381	0.333	0.36	0.58	3.22

E.2 ADDITIONAL ABLATION STUDY

We conduct additional ablation study by replacing the dilated convolutional neural network with
 LSTM or Transformer model on the Product Review and Train Ticket datasets in Table 6. The results showed a performance decline, demonstrating the effectiveness of our design.



Product Review Dataset	PR@1	PR@5	PR@10	MRR	MAP@3	MAP@5	MAP@10	Time (s)
OCEAN	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	20.1
OCEAN + trace	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	26.3
Train Ticket	PR@1	PR@5	PR@10	MRR	MAP@3	MAP@5	MAP@10	Time (s)
OCEAN	0.2	0.4	1	0.38	0.33	0.36	0.58	3.2
OCEAN + trace	0.2	0.6	1	0.39	0.33	0.44	0.62	3.8

Table 7: Experimental results with more modality

Table 8: Comparison with Physical Graph

Graphs	SHD	AUROC
Causal graph Learned From Metric Data	0.314	0.865
Causal graph Learned From Log Data	0.593	0.663
Fused Causal Graph	0.298	0.881

926 927 928

918

E.3 ADDITIONAL PARAMETER ANALYSIS

933 In this subsection, we conduct a comprehensive parameter sensitivity analysis on the Online Boutique 934 and Train Ticket datasets. Similarly, we assess the impact of three parameters on the overall objective 935 functions (Eq. 18): λ_1 , λ_2 , and λ_3 . Figures 3 and Figures 4 show the experimental results in terms 936 of Mean Reciprocal Rank (MRR) on the Online Boutique and Train Ticket datasets. The x-axis 937 represents $\ln(\lambda_i)$, where $i \in [1, 2, 3]$, and the y-axis indicates the MRR score. We consistently 938 observe that OCEAN favors a larger value of λ_1 on these two datasets as the temporal causal structure learning module is crucial in capturing both temporal and causal dependency. Different from the 939 parameter analysis on the Product Review dataset, we find that λ_2 and λ_3 are not very sensitive on the 940 Online Boutique and Train Ticket datasets. We conjecture that this can be attributed to the small size 941 of these two datasets and both sparse regularization and acyclic constraint contribute less to securing 942 high performance on these two datasets than the Product Review dataset.

943 944 945

E.4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS WITH MORE MODALITY

OCEAN can naturally extend to include additional modalities, such as traces. These types of data can enhance the model's ability to capture complex interactions and dependencies within the system. We conducted additional experiments by incorporating traces into the AIOps and Train Ticket datasets. The results demonstrated improved performance, as the inclusion of traces provided valuable context and enriched the causal structure learning. This additional information allows OCEAN to more accurately identify root causes and improve the precision of its analysis.

952 953

954

955

956

957

958

E.5 COMPARISON WITH PHYSICAL GRAPH

Here, we evaluate the quality of the learned causal graph by comparing it with the physical dependency graph with two settings. In the first setting, we compared the causal graph learned by each modality (corresponding to the inter-modal graphs) and in the second setting, we compared the fused causal graph from two modality (corresponding to the intra-model graph). Following Dynotear Pamfil et al. (2020), we use AUROC and SHD as two metrics to quantify the difference between learned causal graphs and the physical dependency graph.

963

F REPRODUCIBILITY

All experiments are conducted on a desktop running Ubuntu 18.04.5 with an Intel(R) Xeon(R) Silver 4110 CPU @2.10GHz and one 11GB GTX2080 GPU. In the experiment, we set the size of historical metric and log data to 8-hour intervals and each batch is set to be a 10-minute interval. We use the Adam as the optimizer and we train the model for 100 iterations at each batch. We use two layers of dilated convolutional operations in the experiment. As for the stopping criteria, we terminate the identification process if the similarity γ between the current batch and the previous batch is greater than 0.9 for three consecutive times.