A Visual Analytics Framework for Reviewing Streaming Performance Data

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ABSTRACT

Understanding and tuning the performance of extreme-scale parallel computing systems demands a streaming approach due to the computational cost of applying offline algorithms to vast amounts of performance log data. Analyzing large streaming data is challenging because the rate of receiving data and limited time to comprehend data make it difficult for the analysts to sufficiently examine the data without missing important changes or patterns. To support streaming data analysis, we introduce a visual analytic framework comprising of three modules: data management, analysis, and interactive visualization. The data management module collects various computing and communication performance metrics from the monitored system using streaming data processing techniques and feeds the data to the other two modules. The analysis module automatically identifies important changes and patterns at the required latency. In particular, we introduce a set of online and progressive analysis methods for not only controlling the computational costs but also helping analysts better follow the critical aspects of the analysis results. Finally, the interactive visualization module provides the analysts with a coherent view of the changes and patterns in the continuously captured performance data. Through a multi-faceted case study on performance analysis of parallel discrete-event simulation, we demonstrate the effectiveness of our framework for identifying bottlenecks and locating outliers.

Index Terms: Human-centered computing—Visualization—Visualization application domains—Visual analytics

1 INTRODUCTION

High-performance computing (HPC) systems, such as massively parallel supercomputers, are essential to solving complex computational problems in diverse fields from weather forecasting and earthquake modeling to molecular dynamics and drug design. To ensure the efficiency of HPC applications and maximize the utilization of supercomputer systems, performance monitoring and optimization are essential tasks. As performance logs obtained from such large-scale systems tend to be large and complex, adequate visual analytics tools are needed to interpret and reason the data.

With computational abilities reaching exascale computing (i.e., capable of performing 10^{18} FLOPS in the near future), adopting in-situ workflows [27, 30] has become popular. In-situ workflows integrate visualization into the simulation pipeline to steer the simulation by executing real-time performance analysis. Therefore, performance visualization tools not only have to handle streams of real-time performance data but also implement visualizations that can help the analyst comprehend their underlying behaviors. However, existing performance analysis techniques are constrained by several challenges. First, from streaming data, a performance analyst needs to catch important patterns, changes, or anomalies in real-time (active monitoring [12]) without missing them. Furthermore, the analyst often wants to identify causal relations of an occurred phenomena (situation awareness [12]). Because streaming performance data is continuously changing with high-volume and high-variety properties, without any algorithmic and visual supports, conducting the above analysis is almost infeasible. While existing visual analytic systems [17, 29] aim to support the analysis of dynamic performance data, support for real-time analysis is lacking.

To address the above challenges, we introduce a visual analytics framework for analyzing streaming performance data. We first identify the key analysis requirements through extensive exchange with HPC experts. The requirements include revealing temporal patterns from multivariate streaming data and correlate these temporal patterns to their network behaviors. To handle streaming data and fulfill the experts’ requirements, our framework comprises (1) data management, (2) analysis, and (3) interactive visualization modules.

To support the analysis and visualization of streaming performance data, we contribute a data management module for efficiently combining and processing data streams at interactive speed (e.g., 1 second [40]). Our data management module is also designed to be run as a subsystem in remote HPC or simulation systems to enable in-situ data processing and interactive visualizations. It collects both multivariate time-series and network communication data, performs user-specified analytical processing, and delivers the results as data streams to the analysis and interactive visualization modules.

As for the analysis module, we design a set of algorithms for visually analyzing multivariate streaming data in real-time. In particular, we apply change point detection to identify key changes, time-series clustering and dimensionality reduction to reveal both common and outlier behaviors, and causal relation analysis to identify metrics’ co-influences. A major challenge to develop these analysis methods is the constraint of the computation time. As new data keeps coming in, the computation must be fast enough to provide up-to-date results. To achieve this, we design our algorithms in either an online or progressive manner. Online (or incremental) methods [3] calculate the new result by using the result from data already obtained as the base and then updating it according to the newly obtained data. Therefore, if applicable, online methods are suitable for streaming data analysis. On the other hand, progressive methods [41] provide useful intermediate results for data analysis within a reasonable latency when the computational cost to complete an entire calculation is too high. While many progressive methods internally utilize online algorithms to generate the intermediate results, they may use a different approach, such as reducing computation with approximation [33]. Another challenge is that the results from the analysis may keep causing drastic changes in the visualization content, such as node positions obtained from dimensionality reduction. Showing such results may disrupt the analyst’s mental map. Therefore, we consider mental map preservation while designing our analysis methods.

The interactive visualization module is for the analyst to interpret the results from the analysis module. The module provides a fully interactive interface to help relate the temporal behaviors from the historical context with the intermediate results to make critical observations. Additionally, we provide visual summaries for indicating when and what causes a particular performance bottleneck. We demonstrate the efficiency and effectiveness of our framework with performance evaluation and a multi-faceted case study analyzing the data collected from a parallel-discrete event simulator.
2 Related Work

We survey relevant works in performance visualization of parallel applications and streaming data visualization.

2.1 Performance Visualization of Parallel Applications

Various visualizations have been developed to help performance analysis. Isaacs et al. [21] provided a comprehensive survey of existing performance visualizations. Here, we describe only visualizations for analyzing parallel applications.

One of the major research topics is visualizing the HPC system’s network together with the performance metrics to analyze communication patterns. Since the HPC system has many compute nodes (e.g., more than thousands of nodes) connected using a complex network topology (e.g., Dragonfly [24]), the researchers have introduced several advanced visualizations. For example, Boxfish [26] visualizes 3D torus networks by using a 3D mesh representation or by projecting the view onto a 2D plane and analyze network traffic along with their topological properties. Similarly, Bhattele et al. [5] analyzed Dragonfly-based networks using a radial layout and a matrix view to show inter-group and intra-group links between the compute nodes. Fujiiwara et al. [17] utilized node-link diagrams and the matrix-based representations with hierarchical aggregation techniques to generalize to any network topology. Li et al. [29] developed flexible visualization to analyze the network performance on the Dragonfly network by applying data aggregation techniques to scale for large scale networks. While the works above visualized communication patterns, they do not provide sufficient methods for temporal analysis of performance behaviors.

Several researchers have studied techniques to support temporal analysis. The Ravel visualization tool [20] visualizes execution traces and event histories of parallel applications using logical time instead of physical time. Using logical time allows the application developers to analyze the execution sequence from the program’s perspective. Muelder et al. [32] introduced the “behavior lines” for analyzing cloud computing performance. These lines show an overview of the behavioral similarity of multivariate time-varying performance data. To analyze the performance behaviors from the large-scale data, Fujiiwara et al. [10, 28] integrated advanced time-series analysis methods, including clustering, dimensionality reduction, and change point detection methods, into their visual analytics system. In terms of coupling the advanced time-series analysis methods with visualizations, [10] is the most closely related work. However, these existing methods including [10] are not appropriate to analyze streaming performance data. To analyze streaming performance data, we need to take additional considerations, such as calculation costs of analysis methods and cognitive loads of visualizations.

Only a few works have approached streaming performance data. For example, De Pauw et al. [13] developed a visualization system for real-time monitoring of a job allocation in shared computer resources. They used a streamgraph-like visualization which encodes time and a number of resources used by each job as x-direction and height of the stacked area, respectively. Sanderson et al. [37] showed real-time performance data with basic visualizations, including line charts and heatmaps over the compute node layout. However, these existing methods provide only limited information (e.g., currently used resources). While these works only support analyzing one type of streaming performance data, our framework is designed for real-time analysis of both time-series and communication data streams. Our framework also provides multiple coordinated views with interactive visualizations to analyzing both types of data streams together for real-time performance analysis and monitoring.

2.2 Visualization for Streaming Data Analysis

While visual analytics for streaming data has not been matured yet in performance visualization, researchers have developed visualizations in other domains, such as fraud detection [45] and factory management [44]. Dasgupta et al. [12] provided a comprehensive survey of streaming data visualization and its challenges. One of the major challenges with streaming data is how we show important changes or meaningful patterns with a low cognitive load since available data is constantly updated [12, 25].

A common approach taken is the simplification of visual results (e.g., aggregation). For example, Xu et al. [44] developed extended Marey’s graph for monitoring assembly line performance. While Marey’s graph is originally used for train schedules, it suffers from visual cluttering when the data gets updated frequently. To solve this issue, the extended Marey’s graph in [44] emphasizes only the abnormal behaviors of the assembly line (e.g., causing delays of assembly processes) by aggregating the other behaviors. Some researchers used dimensionality reduction (DR) methods to summarize changes in streaming multivariate data. For instance, Cheng et al. [11] used the multidimensional-scaling (MDS) for showing an overview of similarities between temporal behaviors in streamed data. In addition to this, they introduced the concept of sliding MDS, which visualizes temporal changes in the similarities between selected points as line paths. To detect the rating fraud in e-commerce stores, Webga and Lu [43] used singular-value decomposition to show the dissimilarities of the rating streams. However, when streaming data has high volume and velocity (i.e., frequent updates), the algorithms used in the works above could not work well due to the computational cost. To handle high volume and velocity streaming data, the completion time of algorithms used for visual analytics should be constant and/or less than the data-collection rate even when a total number of data points or features are increasing [12].

Recently, progressive visual analytics [41] is being actively studied. Producing useful results with a latency restriction is a common requirement. In fact, a few studies started to apply progressive visual analytics methods to handle streaming data. For example, Pezzotti et al. [33] developed Approximated t-SNE (A-tSNE) as a progressive version of t-SNE [42] which is a commonly-used non-linear DR method. They showed the usage of A-tSNE for streaming data visualization in their case study. The work in [15] enhanced the existing incremental principal component analysis (PCA) [10] for streaming data visualization. In addition to the incremental calculation, their method maximizes the overlap of data points between previous and updated PCA results to keep the user’s mental map. We also use progressive methods to support the analysis of streaming of large performance data. However, while these two works above [45] focused only on handling new data points fed from streams, our methods can also be used when new features (values for new time points in our case) are obtained continuously.

3 Background and Design Requirements

We describe the characteristics of streaming HPC performance data and design requirements identified through the collaboration with HPC experts. These lead to the design of our framework.

3.1 Characteristics of Streaming Performance Data

Analysis of performance bottlenecks in HPC can be categorized into three key domains according to the HAC model [38] as follows: (a) Hardware, (b) Application, and (c) Communication domains. The hardware domain consists of network nodes and physical links between them; the application domain represents the physical or simulated system designed to solve the underlying problem; the communication domain represents a communication network, which captures the communication patterns of the application. Since there exists a large number of visualizations that enable data analysis on the application domain using both post-hoc [6] and in-situ [27, 30] based workflows, we especially focus on the data derived from the hardware and communication domains.

Performance counters and other measurement devices on modern microprocessors record various metrics from the hardware domain.
at a uniform sampling rate. The recorded data can be represented as a d-dimensional vector, where d is the number of measured metrics. Let n be the number of entities (e.g., compute nodes, network routers, or MPI processes mapped to CPU cores) which provide d measured metrics. The resulting streaming data can be represented as the third-order tensor object of shape $n \times d \times t$, where $t$ is the number of samples recorded and is continuously growing with time.

Additionally, in general, n entities communicate with each other to run parallel applications. The communication data can be represented as a weighted graph where nodes correspond to the entities, and links represent the amounts of communications (e.g., message packet sizes) between the entities. Because communication bottlenecks often cause performance bottlenecks, analyzing the performance metrics with the communication data can help the analyst in locating performance issues.

### 3.2 Design Requirements

Our goal is to design a visual analytics framework that helps real-time analysis of streaming performance metrics and communication data. Simultaneously analyzing both performance metrics and communications is critical because the communications heavily affect the performance and vice versa. For example, a communication bottleneck in a network of compute nodes could be due to a large number of packets transferred between certain compute nodes leading to excessive wait times for the next computation. To understand such specific analysis needs, we work in collaboration with HPC experts and enumerate the design requirements of the visual analytics framework. The design process followed a user-centered approach consisting of several discussions where we presented a prototype to the experts to probe further requirements and modified the visualization framework, accordingly. Below we describe the design requirements (R1–R5) developed during these discussions. These requirements comprehend analysis tasks of both active monitoring (R2, R3, and R4) and situational awareness (R1) (R1–R5).

**R1:** Detect key changes that deviate from a baseline behavior. Because large-scale simulations are often long-running applications, it becomes impractical to review performance metrics for changes constantly. Hence, it is critical to automatically find when and where a change occurs in the behavior to narrow down the search space.

**R2:** Enhance the interpretability to identify performance behavior patterns. As discussed in Sect. 3.1, the collected data contains time-series data continuously arriving from multiple processes. From the streaming data, finding similar and dissimilar behaviors from many processes in real-time is extremely challenging because of its high-volume and high-velocity. Therefore, we need to provide functionality that helps the analyst identify the behavior patterns.

**R3:** Derive causal relations among different performance metrics. A behavior change (e.g., excessive wait times) can trigger an undesired effect (e.g., low data receives). Therefore, the analyst would want to identify the causal relations among the multiple performance metrics. Since it is difficult to monitor several metrics (e.g., five metrics) all at once, we aim to support the analysis of causal relations between metrics that significantly affect the performance.

**R4:** Provide visualizations for analyzing communication patterns together with performance behaviors. As mentioned in Sect. 3.1, analyzing the performance data from both hardware and communication domains and relating these domains are important. Thus, our framework should provide visualizations that help the analyst relate the performance behaviors to the communication patterns.

**R5:** Enable users to analyze the data interactively. Due to the complexity of HPC performance data, there are various aspects that the analyst wants to analyze while cooperating with his/her domain knowledge. The analytical process may proceed and change according to discovered patterns or findings. Therefore, it is essential to provide interaction methods that can be used during analysis.

### 4 Visual Analytics Framework

To fulfill the above requirements, we design our framework’s pipeline. The pipeline, as shown in Fig. 1, consists of (1) data management, (2) analysis, and (3) interactive visualization modules. The entire framework is developed using C++ and Python for the back-end and JavaScript for the front-end. The source code for a major portion of our framework is available in [1]. Below we describe the methodology for each module in detail.

#### 4.1 Data Management Module

For performance analysis using streaming data, our data management module is designed to leverage with the in-situ data processing and manage data flows in a server-client architecture, as shown in Fig. 1. The framework follows the co-processing model for in-situ data processing described in [30]. HPC applications or parallel simulations that adopt this model can be seamlessly integrated into our framework for real-time analysis and visualization. To collect performance data from HPC systems, the data management module uses agent programs that can be installed in multiple compute nodes. Since the performance data on each compute node can be very large, directly collecting the raw data and streaming to the backend server of the visual analytics system requires high network bandwidth. The minimum data granularity and resolution can be specified for in-situ processing of the time-series and communication data. Common data transformations, such as sampling, filtering, and aggregation, can be specified in the in-situ data processing. The results of in-situ data processing are streamed to the backend server, where the data management module performs data integration and indexing to allow the analysis module to perform analytical processing on the results effectively. The analytical processing results are then streamed to the web browser for rendering visualizations. The use of in-situ data processing greatly reduces network bandwidth, and thus allows our visual analytics framework to effectively facilitate real-time analysis and monitoring of streaming performance data.

#### 4.2 Analysis Module

To support the design requirements, the analysis module provides several automatic analysis methods. The difficulty in applying the algorithms to streaming data is that the computation time should be shorter than a time span of the data update. Thus, instead of using traditional offline algorithms, we introduce methods using an online or progressive approach. Additionally, to make it easier to follow changes in the analysis results, we also provide algorithms to keep visual consistency between the previous and updated results.

#### 4.2.1 Online Change Point Detection for Multiple Time-Series

To address R1, we design an online change point detection (CPD) method. As discussed in Sect. 3.1, for each metric, data obtained from HPC systems consist of n multiple time-series [16,29,32] (e.g., message packets sent from each router). However, the existing online CPD methods are designed to identify change points for a single time-series. To apply CPD on multiple time-series data, we employ a
similar approach to [35]. Before using CPD, to obtain a single time-series, their method reduces multiple values to a "representative" value for each newly obtained time point with PCA.

While the approach in [35] applies the ordinary PCA [23], we use incremental PCA (IPCA) of Ross et al. [36]. By using IPCA, we can incrementally update the PCA’s model when we obtain a new time point and then use this updated model for generating the representative value. This approach can capture the important information from multiple time-series with consideration of the variance in the past observations. Fig. 2a, 2b, and 2c show the original streamed data comprising of 256 time-series, the result with the ordinary, and the result with IPCA, respectively. While Fig. 2b shows the negative peak in Fig. 2a, as indicated with the purple arrow, is appeared as the corresponding peak in Fig. 2c, and Fig. 2d shows the results with IPCA and sign adjustment. The detected change points are also indicated with the red vertical lines (in (a), we show the same change points with (d)).

4.2.2 Progressive Time-Series Clustering

To support R2, we introduce a progressive time-series clustering method for streaming data where a fixed number of entities (e.g., routers) keep obtaining values (e.g., message packets sent) for each new time point (i.e., with the notations in Sect. 3.1) the fixed n and the increasing t for each metric). While many online clustering methods have been developed [7], these methods are suited for streaming data only when a new entity will be fed with a fixed number of metrics (i.e., the increasing n with the fixed d). Therefore, we cannot directly apply the existing methods to cluster entities’ behaviors.

Instead, we develop a progressive clustering method for streaming data to obtain reasonable results with low latency. Similar to [60], our method internally utilizes the incremental update mechanism used in online clustering. We employ mini-batch k-means clustering [49] which is a variation of k-means clustering. Unlike the ordinary k-means clustering, mini-batch k-means can incrementally update the clustering result with the new subset (or mini-batch) of entities. When n entities’ values for a new time point arrive, we keep updating the clustering results with m selected entities (m \leq n) until the specified latency or finishing to process all the data points. Then, we obtain the final k cluster centers and then assign each entity to a cluster that has the closest center. Since it might not be able to process all n entities within the specified latency, the processing order would affect the clustering result. In order to select a wide variety of entities, our algorithm randomly selects m entities from each of k-clusters which are calculated from the previous data points.

Fig. 3 shows the clustering results of our progressive clustering with a latency of 50 ms. We can easily note that three clusters indicated with the orange, green, blue colors have different behaviors.

Another issue in applying a clustering method to streaming performance data is the consistency in the assigned cluster IDs between the previous and updated results. As shown in Fig. 3a, most of the clustering methods including mini-batch k-means clustering generate the arbitrary order of cluster IDs for each execution. This causes a critical issue in the user’s mental map preservation because the polyline colors would be changed every time when each entity obtains a value for a new time point. To solve this issue, our algorithm reassigns cluster IDs in the updated clustering results based on the relative frequency of previous cluster IDs which were assigned to each updated cluster ID’s entities. Similar to the progressive clustering as described above, we incrementally calculate the relative frequency by checking a randomly picked-out entity from each updated cluster ID to provide the result within the specified latency. Afterward, our algorithm sorts the relative frequency among all the updated cluster IDs and then reassigns the updated cluster ID to the previous cluster ID from which has the highest relative frequency. Fig. 3b shows visualized results without and with our cluster ID reassignment, respectively. We can see that our method reduces unnecessary color changes between the previous and updated results.

**Figure 2:** The comparison of change points detected with the different approaches. In (a), each y-coordinate represents the number of secondary rollback in each entity (refer to Sect. 5.1 for details). The color of each polyline represents the cluster ID obtained with the method described in Sect. 4.2.2. In (b), (c), and (d), the resultant single time-series with each approach are shown with the gray polylines. The detected change points are also indicated with the red vertical lines (in (a), we show the same change points with (d)).**

**Figure 3:** The results of progressive time-series clustering (a) with and (b) without the cluster ID reassignments. We plot the number of secondary callbacks for 256 entities with 15 (left), 16 (center), and 17 (right) time points. We set 50 ms as a required latency for this example and 147, 147, and 141 of 256 entities are processed to obtain the clusters with 15, 16, and 17 time points, respectively.
we can judge “a time series
Afterward, we project all entities’ time-series into a 2D plot with the
m
without the Procrustes transformation. The same time-series and
R3
The Procrustes transformation tries to find the best overlap between
R2
To further support
causality test, we cannot measure how much one time-series affects
Y
Granger causality test provides whether there exists Granger causal-
4.2.4 Progressive Causal Relation Analysis Methods
-based in Fig. 4b are resolved. Thus, we can see that flips of data
points’ positions along y-direction in Fig. 4a are resolved.
4.2.4 Progressive Causal Relation Analysis Methods
To support R3, we introduce progressive causal relation analysis
methods. We support three methods: Granger causality test [19],
impulse response function (IR) [19], and forecast error variance decompo-
sition (VD) [19]. Based on the definition of Granger causality,
we can judge “a time series X ‘causes’ another time series Y... if
present Y can be predicted better by using past values of X than by
not doing so” [34]. Granger causality test evaluates a statistical
hypothesis test where one time-series has this “Granger causality”
from/to another time-series. Similar to the other statistical tests,
Granger causality test provides whether there exists Granger causality
between two time-series with p-value. However, with Granger
causality test, we cannot measure how much one time-series affects
another time-series. IR and VD can provide such quantitative in-
formation. IR describes how much a shock to a variable of interest
at a certain moment affects the other variables at subsequent
points. On the other hand, VD provides the contribution of a shock
to a variable of interest at a certain moment to the variance of
the forecast error of other variables. An example of the result of Granger
causality test, IR, and VR can be found in Sect. 4.3.3.
All of these three analysis methods can be used after fitting one
multivariate time-series to a vector autoregression (VAR) model [19].
However, there are two challenges in applying VAR model fitting
to streaming performance data. One problem is that because HPC
performance data consists of multiple entities, there are multiple
time-series for each variable (i.e., metric), and thus, we cannot
directly fit to a VAR model. To solve this problem, we use IPCA
with the sign adjustment described in Sect. 4.2.1.
Another problem is the high computational cost of VAR fitting:
O(nt2) (t is the number of time points). However, no incremental
algorithm is available for VAR model fitting. To provide a result
within around a specified latency, we adaptively control the numbers
of time points used in VAR model fitting. Our progressive VAR
fitting starts with s time points (s ≪ t, we set s = 10 as a default),
which are randomly selected from t time points. We then obtain
the result with s time points in ts completion time. Let ts be the
user-specified latency. Because the computational cost of VAR fit is
O(nt2), from the first calculation with s time points, we can roughly
estimate how many time points we can fit to a VAR model within
remaining time tc (i.e., ts = t - ts). This estimation calculated with
√c ∈ ts/tc. We update s with s√c/√t. Then, the updated s is used for
the next VAR fitting. These steps will be continued until ts ≤ 0 or
obtaining a VAR model using all t time points.
Also, when we obtain a new time point, we can expect that the
number of time points which can be processed will be similar to the
last s in the previous progressive VAR fitting. Therefore, we start by
using this s in progressive VAR fitting when obtaining a new time
point. If the completion time ts in the previous VAR fitting with the
last s is larger than the required latency ts, our method updates s with
s√c/√t and uses this updated s for the next VAR fitting.
4.2.5 Performance Evaluation
While the qualities of results with our methods depend on the exist-
ing methods used as the bases (e.g., IPCA), we evaluate computa-
tional performance for each method to provide reference information
of the handleable data size. We use an iMac (Retina 5K, 27-inch,
Late 2014) with 4 GHz Intel Core i7, 16 GB 1,600 MHz DDR3.
For the online CPD method, the computational cost differs based on
the number of time-series (i.e., n entities) which we will reduce to
the representative time-series with IPCA. Therefore, we measure
the completion time for each different n (from 100 to 100,000),
as shown in Table 1a. The computation of the progressive time-
series clustering depends on the number of iterations in the k-means
algorithm, the number of clusters to form, and the data length for
each time-series (i.e., t time points). We use fixed numbers of 100
and 3 for the numbers of iterations and clusters, respectively. Then,
with different t values from 100 to 100,000, we measure the number
of time-series the algorithm processed from 10,000 time-series in
one second. The result is shown in Table 1b. Similarly, as shown in
Table 1c, we evaluate the method in Tabsect. 4.2.3 with different
t values because its computation depends on the value of t. Lastly,
for the progressive VAR fitting, the number of time points can be
processed is different based on the number of measured metrics (i.e.,
d metrics). Thus, as shown in Tabld, we measure the number of
time points processed from 10,000 time points with multiple
numbers of d.
From the results in Table 1 we can see that the online CPD is
fast even when n is large (e.g., 6.23 ms for n = 100,000). With a
setting of 1 s latency, the clustering and DR methods processed large
numbers of entities up until t = 10,000. This could be a reasonable

Figure 4: The results of progressive time-series DR (a) with and (b) without the Procrustes transformation. The same time-series and
cluster IDs shown in Fig. 3b are used. In this example, we set 1 ms as a
required latency and 132, 130, and 138 of 256 entities are processed
for the left, center, and right results, respectively.
Since the data stream continuously feeds data for a new time point, visualizing all the fed time points consumes the visual space and, as a result, it becomes challenging to convey the detailed changes. Therefore, as new data arrive, we slide each view's time window for the visualization. Also, to provide the historical context with the past time points from the start of the simulation, as shown in Fig. 5(b1, b2), the summary behavior placed at the bottom of each view shows the average value across entities for each time point.

### 4.3.2 Behavior Similarity Views

As discussed in Sect. 4.2.3, providing DR results along with cluster IDs can supplement analyzing temporal behaviors, such as finding outliers (R2). We apply the method described in Sect. 4.2.3 to multiple time-series shown in each performance behavior view (Fig. 5(a1) and (a2)). Then, the behavior similarity views visualize the corresponding DR results (i.e., Fig. 5(c1) and (c2)) show the result from (a1) and (a2), respectively. In addition, to easily relate with the clustering results, we color the points with the corresponding colors used for encoding the cluster IDs in the performance behavior views. For example, all polylines and points shown in (a1, a2, c1, c2) are colored based on the clustering IDs obtained in (a1). From (c1), we can see that each entity's behavior of ‘Sec. Rh.’ is clearly separated into three clusters. However, in (c2), Cluster-0 (green) has four outliers as shown around the center. This can further be validated using the bottom behavior view (a2). The four green lines have much higher values when compared with the other green lines.

### 4.3.4 Communication Behavior Views

The communication behavior views shown in Fig. 5(e1, e2, e3) visualize the communication patterns between the entities (R4). We use an adjacency-matrix based visualization to show communications which can be represented as a weighted graph (refer to Sect. 3.1). Using the adjacency-matrix can provide flexibility to support any type of network topologies. While reviewing communications at the latest time point is not enough to grasp the changes in communication patterns, looking through communications at all the time points is not realistic in the streaming setting. Therefore, we support three different views to provide a summary of communication patterns and their changes. The details of each view are described below.

**Live communication view (Fig. 5(e1))** visualizes communications among entities during the sampling interval at the latest time point. While each row and each column of the matrix corresponds to one entity with the user-defined order, each cell’s color represents the amount of processed entities when we want to analyze several or tens of thousand entities. Also, the VAR fitting processed more than 800 time points even when \( d = 100 \). The quality of the results with the progressive algorithms depends on how much of the input data would be processed. Thus, we should consider the balance of required latency and the size of input data based on available computational resources. The performance results above can help us decide the granularity level of entities to be analyzed (e.g., compute node or CPU core level), the width of the time window, and the number of performance metrics collected.

#### 4.3 Interactive Visualization Module

This module provides a user interface, as shown in Fig. 5, which comprises multiple views to fulfill all the design requirements. To better illustrate our visualizations and interactions, we provide a demonstration of the user interface as a supplementary video [1].

##### 4.3.1 Performance Behavior Views

To fulfill R1, R2, and R3, the performance behavior views, as shown in Fig. 5(a1, a2), provide visualizations with the change points (refer to Sect. 4.2.1) and clusters obtained (refer to Sect. 4.2.2) in the analysis module. Using polylines, each performance behavior view presents the temporal changes of a performance metric for all the entities. Since the collected data comprises information from \( n \) entities, each view shows \( n \) polylines for each selected metric. \( x \)- and \( y \)-coordinates represent a time point and a metric value respectively. From the drop-down lists displayed by clicking the icon in the top left (Fig. 5(b)), the analyst can select two metrics from \( d \) collected metrics for the top (a1) and bottom (a2) views. For example, in Fig. 5 as indicated by the \( y \)-axis labels, ‘Sec. Rh.’ (i.e., Secondary Rollback) and ‘Net. Send.’ (i.e., Network sends) are selected. We provide two views to support the comparison of performance behaviors for two different metrics, especially to review the causal relations (R3), as described in Sect. 4.3.3.

The online CPD described in Sect. 4.2.1 is continuously applied to the time-series shown in the top view as a default. The analyst also can apply the CPD to the bottom view by selecting from the drop-down list in Fig. 5(f). When a change point is detected, the corresponding time point (i.e., \( x \)-coordinate) is indicated with teal vertical lines in the corresponding view. For example, four change points are detected in Sect. 4.3.3.

Similarly, the progressive clustering described in Sect. 4.2.2 is applied to the top view as a default. The metric to perform clustering and the number of clusters can be modified from the drop-down lists in Fig. 5(f). Obtained cluster IDs are encoded as the colors of polylines. The categorical colors are chosen to provide sufficient contrast for distinguishing the clusters. A legend for the cluster IDs is not realistic in the streaming setting. Therefore, we support three different views to provide a summary of communication patterns and their changes. The details of each view mass described below.
Figure 5: The user interface of our prototype system consisting of multiple views: (a1, a2) the performance behavior views, (b1, b2) histories of performance behaviors, (c1, c2) behavior similarity views, (d) metric causality view, and (e1, e2, e3) communication behavior views. (f) and (g) are the drop-down lists for settings and the button for pausing and resuming streaming updates, respectively.

number of communications between the corresponding row and column. We use a gray sequential colormap (darker gray denotes higher communication). Additionally, to inform the cluster information of each entity, the cluster ID corresponding to each row/column is encoded as colored rectangles on the top and left sides of the adjacency matrix. For example, in Fig. 5(e1), the entities in the green cluster placed at the first several rows and columns cause many communications within the entities in the same cluster.

To provide better scalability, this view can cooperate with the hierarchical information of entities, which often can be seen in HPC systems. For example, many HPC systems consist of multiple racks, compute nodes, CPUs, and cores. These have hierarchical relationships (e.g., a compute node contains multiple CPUs). The analyst can choose the granularity of entities (i.e., the level of hierarchy) to be shown in this view. When the lower granularity is selected instead of the original granularity, each cell shows the average amount of communications within and among the groups of entities. For example, in Fig. 5(e1), because many entities (128 entities) will make the available space for each cell small, we select one lower granularity consisting of 8 groups (i.e., each group contains 16 entities). This view also allows the analyst to show the communications with one higher granularity level by double-clicking the grouped cell.

**Base communication view** (Fig. 5(e2)) visualizes the communication matrix at the user-selected time point. We use the same visualization methods as for the live communication view. The analyst can select the time point using a brown draggable vertical line placed on the summary behavior view.

**Diff communication view** (Fig. 5(e3)) shows communications at multiple time points which are essential to understand the changes in communications. We use the change points identified by CPD as such essential time points because each change point shows significant changes from the previous time points. We order each matrix corresponding to each change point along the horizontal direction from left to right. Also, we indicate the corresponding change point with the numerical labels placed in Fig. 5(a1, b1, e3).

To allow the analyst to compare the communications at each change point with the one at the selected time point for the base communication view (Fig. 5(e2)), each matrix’s cell shows the difference in the amount of communication between the selected time and each change point. As shown in the colormap placed in Fig. 5(e3), the differences are encoded using a red-blue divergent colormap where the darker red and blue represent higher positive and negative values, respectively. The comparison with the selected base communications provides the flexibility in the analysis. For example, when the analyst selects a time point which has no communications (e.g., the start time point), the diff communication view visualizes the amounts of communications as they are. On the other hand, when the analyst selects one of the change points as a base, the view shows how the communications are changed from the selected change point. This helps understand which entities’ communications affect the changes in the metric visualized in the performance behavior views.

### 4.3.5 User Interactions across Views

In addition to the interactions in each view, we provide several interactions that are linked to multiple views.

**Pausing and resuming streaming updates.** Since the visualization module updates its views as the analysis module sends new results, the updates occur at data collection rate. To provide a mechanism that allows the analyst to interact with the visualized results even when the data collection rate is high, we provide a pause button (Fig. 5(g)) to pause the views from updating. Also, after pausing, the button is toggled to a resume button. When the resume button is clicked, the views return back to the current state of the simulation.

**Selecting a time point of interest.** As described in Sect. 4.3.4, the analyst can select a time point of interest in the summary of performance behavior shown in Fig. 5(b1). Selecting a time point immediately updates the base and diff communication views.

**Selecting entities of interest.** Although a set of views can reveal overall patterns in performance and communication behaviors, the user would be interested in to analyze a subset of entities (e.g., a subcluster appeared in the behavior similarity views) in more detail. Therefore, we provide fundamental linking-and-brushing interactions. For example, the behavior similarity views support lasso selection to choose entities of interest. Once selected, the polylines
in the performance behavior views belonging to the selected entities are highlighted by coloring the rest with gray and low opacity.

5 Case Studies

For demonstrating the applicability and effectiveness of our framework, we analyze the streaming data from parallel discrete-event simulation (PDES). We show that our visual analytics system can be used to effectively identify performance problems, investigate the source of the problem, and develop insights for improving performance. Besides, we collected feedback from the domain experts, which confirmed the usefulness of our framework and provided further design considerations. PDES is used for studying complicated scientific phenomena and systems. PDES typically runs on HPC systems for a long period using many compute nodes, and thus, simulations with low efficiency cost significant energy and time. Therefore, it is crucial to optimize performance and relieve bottlenecks. For distributed and parallel computing, PDES distributes a group of processes, called processing elements (PEs), that run across compute nodes. PEs communicate by exchanging time-stamped event messages that are processed to ensure the correct order of events (i.e., the future event must not affect the past event) [13].

As PDES, we use the Rensselaer’s Optimistic Simulation System (ROSS) [2], an open-source discrete-event simulator. ROSS uses optimistic parallel event scheduling, where each PE contains a group of logical processes (LPs) that can independently process events to avoid frequent global synchronization with other PEs. Also, ROSS introduces kernel processes (KPs) for managing a shared processed event list for a collection of LPs mapped to a single PE, which has been demonstrated to process up to billions of events [4][31]. When a KP rolls back, it must roll back all its LPs to the same point in virtual time. Therefore, having too many LPs mapped to a KP can result in performance degradation due to unnecessary rollbacks of other LPs in the same KP. Furthermore, the performance of ROSS depends on the model being simulated and the associated workload, which makes it difficult to investigate performance bottlenecks.

5.1 Streaming PDES Data

In ROSS, MPI is used for distributed and parallel computing, where each PE is an MPI process, and message passing between PEs is performed asynchronously. ROSS uses the global virtual time (GVT) for tracking the time in PDES, where the GVT is computed as the minimum of all unprocessed events across all PEs in the simulation [22]. The streaming data collected from ROSS includes numerous metrics at the PE, KP, and/or LP levels. In particular, we focus on the metrics that relate to rollback behaviors (e.g., the number of rollbacks) or communications among PEs, KPs, and LPs (e.g., the number of events sent or received), which can significantly affect the efficiency of PDES. In the case studies, we analyze the performance by comparing the number of rollbacks during the GVT computation. To perform this, we use our data management module to collect the following metrics just after the GVT computation.

- **Primary Rollbacks (Prim. Rh.):** The number of rollbacks on a KP caused by receiving an event out of order.
- **Secondary Rollbacks (Sec. Rh.):** The number of rollbacks on a KP caused by an anti-message (i.e., a cancellation message).
- **Network Sends (Net. Send.):** The number of events sent by LPs over the network.
- **Network Receives (Net. Recv.):** The number of events received by LPs over the network.
- **Number of processed events (Num. Events):** The total number of processed events by LPs over the network.

We set up the ROSS with the Dragonfly network [24] simulation model provided by the CODES [31]. The simulated Dragonfly network is similar to the network used by Theta Cray XC supercomputer at Argonne National Laboratory with 864 routers. The simulations are run with 8 to 16 PEs, where each PE has 16 KPs, with up to 16,384 LPs.

5.2 Monitoring Key Changes in PDES Performance

Because PDES uses a large number of entities in a complex structure, identifying the causes and sources of performance problems is difficult. With our visual analytics framework, we can effectively monitor the changes in the key metrics in real time, and analyze which computing entity is causing performance problems.

Since the efficiency of optimistic PDES depends on the number of rollbacks (including both primary and secondary rollbacks), we start to monitor each KP’s ‘Sec. Rh.’ and ‘Prim. Rh.’ with the performance behavior views. We set the number of clusters to be 3, and the cluster IDs are calculated based on ‘Sec. Rh.’. From monitoring the causality results, as shown in Fig. 5(d), we notice that ‘Net. Send.’ has the Granger causality to ‘Sec. Rh.’ and has a large IR value. Hence, we update our second metric to ‘Net. Send.’ and continue to study the influence of ‘Net. Send.’ on ‘Sec. Rh.’.

After the online CPD proceeded with several GVT intervals, we can see the first change point (refer to Fig. 5(a1)). (1) clearly shows that the “Sec. Rh.” has drastically increased (Cluster-2 with the orange-colored polylines). This alerts us that we should closely monitor the rollback behaviors because the efficiency of the simulation can be significantly decreased if the number of secondary rollbacks stays high. Fig. 5(a1) and (a2) show the result after the simulation is run for 75 GVT intervals. The online CPD detected four change points (1), (2), (3), and (4). While the metric causality view shows the detailed behaviors of each entity, the summary behavior view shows the trends of the PDES as a whole. As shown in Fig. 5(b1), the average of secondary rollbacks have a peak at the start of the simulation close to (1), then reduces between (1) and (2), and increases again from (2) to (3), and maintains the values till (4).

The summary view with CPD allows us to confirm the existence of performance problems in the simulations as the secondary rollbacks periodically increase at different points.

5.3 Tracing Performance Bottlenecks

If we can confirm the existence of performance problems, we can stop the simulation to prevent wasting time and energy by running the long and problematic PDES. Thus, we move on to the identification of the source of the problems, and our system can be used to trace the performance issues and bottlenecks. As shown in Fig. 5(a1, a2), we can see that some of green-colored polylines (i.e., Cluster-0) continue to show relatively high values in both ‘Sec. Rh.’ and ‘Net. Sends.’. Thus, we further investigate the green cluster. By associating the behavior similarity view (Fig. 5(c1)) to the performance behavior view (Fig. 5(a1)), we realize that all the KPs...
belonging to the green cluster have a high similarity with each other for their rollback behavior. However, as shown in Fig. 5(c2), for their ‘Net. Send.’, they are separated into one major cluster at the top left and one small cluster that has four KPs at the right bottom. To further analyze their behaviors, we select the four entities with the lasso selection. The result is shown in Fig. 6. From the performance behavior views (a1, a2), we can discern that these four KPs cause large numbers of network sends and, as an influence, they also cause large numbers of secondary rollbacks.

5.4 Analyzing Communication Patterns

After identifying the source of the performance problem, insights regarding the bottlenecks and optimizing the performance can be extracted from our analysis results. Since a LP that communicates with other LPs that have high numbers of rollbacks can increase its own chances to have rollbacks, a better control on the communication events can reduce the number of rollbacks and improve efficiency. Therefore, we analyze the rollback behaviors with the communication patterns in the live communication view, as shown in Fig. 6(c1, c2). (Fig. 6(c1)) shows the communication between PEs or KPs with arrangements in rows and columns of the matrix based on their ranks. At default, the communications between the PEs are shown. We can see the cluster IDs of the KPs shown at the top and left of the matrix indicate that all the KPs in the green cluster (including the four KPs) belong to PE0. Also, we can see that KPs in the green cluster dominantly communicate with KPs within the same cluster. To further drill down to the KP level, we click on the matrix cell belonging to PE0 (Fig. 6(c2)) and identify that all KPs, including the four KPs, generate many communications only within themselves (e.g., KPO communicates to KP0). This indicates that LPs managed by these KPs have high communications with each other. Since these KPs have high number of rollbacks, they may cause other KPs communicating with them to have higher chances to have rollbacks. To avoid these rollbacks, the mapping from LPs to KPs should be changed to alleviate the unbalanced communications.

The case studies above show that our visual analytics framework can tackle the challenges of real-time performance monitoring and analysis of PDES. With effective supports for analyzing the streaming PDES data in real-time, our framework helps the analyst identify the time points and locations (e.g., PEs and KPs) that performance issues occurred. Once such a performance issue is realized, the analyst can stop the simulation to save energy and time. The analysis results also provide hints to the cause of the performance issues, allowing PDES developers to debug or optimize performance.

5.5 Expert Feedback

Our team consists of both visualization and HPC researchers that participated in the design and development of our framework, and we have conducted a preliminary evaluation of the visual analytics system with PDES developers and experts. While the feedback confirmed the usefulness of our visual analytics framework and system for analyzing streaming PDES data, it also provided insights to improve the system further. For identifying performance bottlenecks, the experts pointed out that providing multiple communication views with comparison to a reference point based on change point detection is useful, and suggested that allowing filtering based on the types or attributes of the communication can further help analyze performance problems. For gaining insights to improve performance, the HPC researchers pointed out that allowing selection of outliers based on temporal behavior is useful as a first step, and suggested that our system could be more helpful if it can provide a mapping between the communication and performance metrics based on entities (e.g., KPs or MPI ranks). Based on these comments, we plan to further develop and extend our framework in the future, as well as conducting a user study to understand better how users perform analysis on streaming data using our extended framework.

6 Discussion and Limitations

Generality of our framework. As described in Sect. 3 and Sect. 4, our framework is designed to be able to handle streaming performance data, which contains multivariate time-series, communication data, or both. Additionally, our analysis algorithms and most of the visualizations are applicable to any streaming multivariate data. Currently, streaming data becomes increasingly available because of the emerging of the Internet of Things. As an example, our algorithms can be used to analyze sensor data from electronic equipment in a building, such as vending machines and air conditioners.

Algorithm selection. While our visual analytics framework leverages the existing incremental algorithms (e.g., incremental PCA), our analysis module is flexible enough to be replaced with the improved algorithms based on the analysis needs. For example, while we have chosen the mini-batch $k$-means clustering [39] because of its popularity, we can use the other clustering methods, such as the incremental version of density-based clustering [10]. In addition, the algorithms that we selected can provide visual consistency (i.e., the cluster ID reassignment and the Procrustes transformation) can also be integrated with any other clustering or DR algorithms [15].

Visualization selection. Employing complex and advanced visualizations for analyzing streaming data is hard for the user to track. Thus, the HPC experts prefer intuitive and straightforward visualizations such as line charts and scatterplots. Our framework also integrates techniques that allow the user to preserve the mental map and reveal trends within simulation performance to understand their behavior. Although other visual techniques such as parallel coordinates could be employed to summarize the entity information, they would suffer scalability for a higher number of data dimensions and they are also difficult to convey temporal changes. For the communication view, we initially considered using a hierarchical radial layout, as similar to Li et. al. [39], where entities are arranged along the radial axis and the links between the entities represent the communication. The radial layout presents advantages in encoding multiple attributes along the outer radius and coupling with edge-bundling to summarize the communication. However, the radial layout would pose visual challenges in a progressive setting as overlapping edges can affect the mental map, and communicating the differences can impose further design challenges.

Limitations. Our framework has several limitations that need to be addressed in future work. First, when performance data is collected in an extremely short sampling rate, the progressive algorithms could not provide useful intermediate results because the algorithms may process only a limited number of entities. Also, visualizations keep updating too frequently, and, as a result, the analyst may not be able to follow the changes. We can solve these problems by controlling the frequency of updates in the data management module. For example, the data management module can feed the data to the other modules only when the changes between the current and past data are large. The second problem is the number of collected metrics is large (e.g., more than 20 metrics). Even though our causality analysis methods are useful in narrowing down the metrics that should be compared, many metrics might have causal relationships with each other. In this case, aggregating multiple metrics based on their similarities could be useful to obtain a smaller number of metrics. When the data contains an extremely-large number of entities (e.g., more than 10,000), the visualizations could be too cluttered. To ensure the perceptual scalability, the entities can be aggregated based on their similarities. Also, the aggregation could be useful to depict a high-level overview of the data. However, we want to note that, for the streaming setting, performing the aggregation is not trivial. Because applying the aggregation for each update could frequently and drastically change the visualized results (e.g., the aggregated line shapes). We would like to address this problem as our future work.
7 Conclusions
Our framework contributes to gaining insights from streaming performance data in real-time with algorithmic and visual analytics support. Real-time analysis of a large-scale simulation becomes more necessary as the computational capacity of HPC systems continues to grow. Therefore, our work helps enhance the efficient utilization of advanced HPC systems hereafter.

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