

Running headline: Machine learning critical transitions

Machine learning methods trained on simple models can predict critical transitions in complex natural systems

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1 **Abstract**

2 1. Sudden transitions from one stable state to a contrasting state occur in complex systems
3 ranging from the collapse of ecological populations to climatic change, with much recent work
4 seeking to develop methods to predict these unexpected transitions from signals in time se-
5 ries data. However, previously developed methods vary widely in their reliability, and fail to
6 classify whether an approaching collapse might be catastrophic (and hard to reverse) or non-
7 catastrophic (easier to reverse) with significant implications for how such systems are man-
8 aged.

9 2. Here we develop a novel detection method, using simulated outcomes from a range of sim-
10 ple mathematical models with varying nonlinearity to train a deep neural network to detect
11 critical transitions - the Early Warning Signal Network (EWSNet).

12 3. We demonstrate that this neural network (EWSNet), trained on simulated data with min-
13 imal assumptions about the underlying structure of the system, can predict with high relia-
14 bility observed real-world transitions in ecological and climatological data. Importantly, our
15 model appears to capture latent properties in time series missed by previous warning signals
16 approaches, allowing us to not only detect if a transition is approaching but critically whether
17 the collapse will be catastrophic or non-catastrophic.

18 4. The EWSNet can flag a critical transition with unprecedented accuracy, overcoming some
19 of the major limitations of traditional methods based on phenomena such as Critical Slowing
20 Down. These novel properties mean EWSNet has the potential to serve as a universal indicator
21 of transitions across a broad spectrum of complex systems, without requiring information
22 on the structure of the system being monitored. Our work highlights the practicality of deep
23 learning for addressing further questions pertaining to ecosystem collapse and have much
24 broader management implications.

25 **Keywords:** alternative stable states, critical transitions, deep learning, early warning signals,
26 machine learning

27 **1 Introduction**

28 Transition from one steady state to another occur in many complex systems, such as finan-
29 cial markets ([May et al 2008](#)), human societies ([Scheffer 2009](#), [Downey et al 2016](#), [Scheffer](#)
30 [2016](#)), climate systems ([Dakos et al 2008](#), [Lenton 2011](#), [Lenton et al 2019](#)), systems biology
31 ([Sarkar et al 2019](#)), and ecosystems ([Scheffer and Carpenter 2003](#), [Veraart et al 2012](#), [Rindi](#)
32 [et al 2017](#)). Such transitions can be abrupt and irreversible (i.e., catastrophic), or smooth and
33 reversible (i.e., non-catastrophic), and can occur due to gradual external forcing or random
34 fluctuations in the system. In such scenarios, on crossing a threshold (known as a tipping or
35 bifurcation point), structural changes occur in the underlying system. This is often termed a
36 critical transition, prior to which the system's return to an equilibrium slows down - a phe-
37 nomenon known as critical slowing down (CSD) ([Scheffer 2009](#)). The phenomenon of CSD
38 is related to the fact that the real part of the dominant eigenvalue of the system goes to zero
39 at the bifurcation point ([Wissel 1984](#), [Scheffer et al 2009](#)). In all such cases, where the dom-
40 inant eigenvalue approaches zero close to the tipping point irrespective of catastrophic or
41 non-catastrophic transitions, the phenomenon of CSD persists, and there exist statistical indi-
42 cators that forewarn the vicinity of a tipping point ([Kéfi et al 2013](#)). Understanding the causes
43 of sudden transitions and forecasting them using statistical indicators have recently emerged
44 as an important area of research due to the management implications of preventing catastro-
45 phes in natural systems ([Scheffer et al 2009, 2012](#), [Dakos et al 2012a](#)).

46 The traditional approach of forecasting a critical transition relies on summary statistics
47 such as variance, autocorrelation, and skewness showing an increasing trend before a transi-
48 tion. Although model simulations and experiments have demonstrated the usefulness of such
49 indicators, the robustness of generic early warning signals (EWSs) in forecasting critical tran-
50 sitions remains debatable ([Boettiger and Hastings 2012b,a](#), [Clements et al 2015](#), [Ditlevsen and](#)
51 [Johnsen 2010](#)). The uncertainties in generic EWSs can be attributed to factors including im-
52 perfect data sampling, lack of quantitative and objective measures, short time series, and sen-
53 sitivity to bandwidth and window sizes. However, despite these challenges, significant work

54 has sought to increase the statistical power of the EWSs in the hope they can be used as pre-
55 dictive management tools. This includes recent work showing that incorporating additional
56 measures of the health of a system (such as the mean body size of biological populations) can
57 increase the efficiency in predicting a tipping point (Clements and Ozgul 2016, Clements et al
58 2017, Drake and Griffen 2010). Whilst such approaches are promising, they require more data
59 than traditional generic EWSs (two or more simultaneous time series), limiting their appli-
60 cability to many systems (Clements and Ozgul 2016). Consequently, there remains a critical
61 need to develop a robust toolkit to identify tipping points using widely available time series
62 data. Were this to be achieved, it could have significant implications for the management of
63 a host of systems, from financial markets to species at risk of extinction (Sarkar et al 2019,
64 Scheffer and Carpenter 2003, Veraart et al 2012).

65 One potentially powerful tool to achieve this is machine learning (ML). ML models are able
66 to automatically capture statistical characteristics by identifying and learning hidden patterns
67 in data (Pathak et al 2018), making them ideally suited to detecting warning signals. Indeed,
68 ML has been used to classify phases of matter, study phase behavior, detect phase transitions,
69 and predict chaotic dynamics (Scandolo 2019, Van Nieuwenburg et al 2017, Canabarro et al
70 2019, Zhao and Fu 2019, Pathak et al 2018), whilst supervised learning algorithms such as ar-
71 tificial neural networks have been used to study second-order phase transitions, especially
72 the Ising model (Morningstar and Melko 2017, Cossu et al 2019, Ni et al 2019, Giannetti et al
73 2019). However, thus far machine learning tools have not been used to classify the most com-
74 mon transitions seen in ecological, financial, and climatic systems - catastrophic (i.e., first-
75 order or discontinuous) and non-catastrophic (i.e., second-order or continuous) transitions
76 (Martín et al 2015).

77 In this study, we build a deep learning model, the Early Warning Signal Network (EWSNet),
78 and train it on the raw time series data simulated from nine different dynamical models, in-
79 cluding biological, ecological, and climate models displaying a range of sudden, smooth, and
80 no transitions (see *SI Appendix, Section S1 and Table S1*). We show that EWSNet provides ro-

81 bust identification of approaching tipping points in simulated data, and that it outperforms
82 four classical ML models (logistic regression, support vector machine (SVM), random forest,
83 and multilayer perceptron (MLP) (Pichler et al 2020, Olden et al 2008, Bishop 2006)) which are
84 trained to classify time series based on trends in their statistical properties such as autocorre-
85 lation - the basis for generic early warning signals (Dakos et al 2012a). Furthermore, we then
86 show that, even though EWSNet is trained on simulated time series data, it can reliably pre-
87 dict approaching transitions in seventeen real-world and experimental data sets (Clements
88 and Ozgul 2016, Clements et al 2017, Dakos et al 2008, Chen et al 2018). Our results suggest
89 that EWSNet identifies information hidden implicitly in time series that is missed by generic
90 EWSs, and because of this EWSNet can reliably predict the future state of a range of complex
91 systems even when time series are imperfectly sampled (Clements et al 2015). The approach
92 of the EWSNet as an early warning indicator makes few assumptions about the underlying
93 state of the system, requires no data pre-processing, and is invariant to sequence length, and
94 thus offers a novel and powerful predictive management tool.

95 **2 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

96 *2.1 Generation of simulated training data*

97 We have generated stochastic time series from nine different models ranging from ecological
98 to paleoclimatic systems that cover a wide range of nonlinearities (see *SI Appendix, Section*
99 *S1*). The considered models are of the form:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = f(X) + g(X)\xi(t), \quad (1)$$

100 where X is the state variable, $f(X)$ is the deterministic skeleton of the model, $g(X)$ is an ar-
101 bitrary function, and $\xi(t)$ is a random variable depicting colored noise. The effect of colored
102 noise was incorporated in the deterministic skeleton by the equation:

$$\xi(T+1) = k\xi(T) + \sigma \sqrt{1-k^2} \frac{\phi(T) + \beta w(T)}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}, \quad (2)$$

103 where $\beta = \sqrt{\frac{1-|\rho|}{|\rho|}}$, ρ is the species response correlation, T represents the time points (1, ..., 400),
 104 k is the autocorrelation coefficient, and σ is the noise intensity. $\phi(T)$ and $w(T)$ are normal
 105 random components, where $w(T)$ differs across species unlike $\phi(T)$ (Yang et al 2019, Ruoko-
 106 lainen 1980). The stochastic models were simulated using the Euler-Maruyama method with
 107 $k \in [-0.8, 0.8]$. We majorly trained our deep neural network using a large number of simulated
 108 time series data perturbed with white noise (i.e., $k = 0$). For testing our model potency in an-
 109 ticipating transitions in time series for systems perturbed with multiplicative noise, we train
 110 our model with an additional number of time series which have been perturbed with coloured
 111 noise. This is done in order to let the EWSNet be familiar with the fast changing dynamics and
 112 short scale fluctuations (Ditlevsen and Johnsen 2010) that occur due to the presence of mul-
 113 tiplicative noise, and also to test the skills of EWSNet in testing datasets which may not fall in
 114 the known regimes of training data.

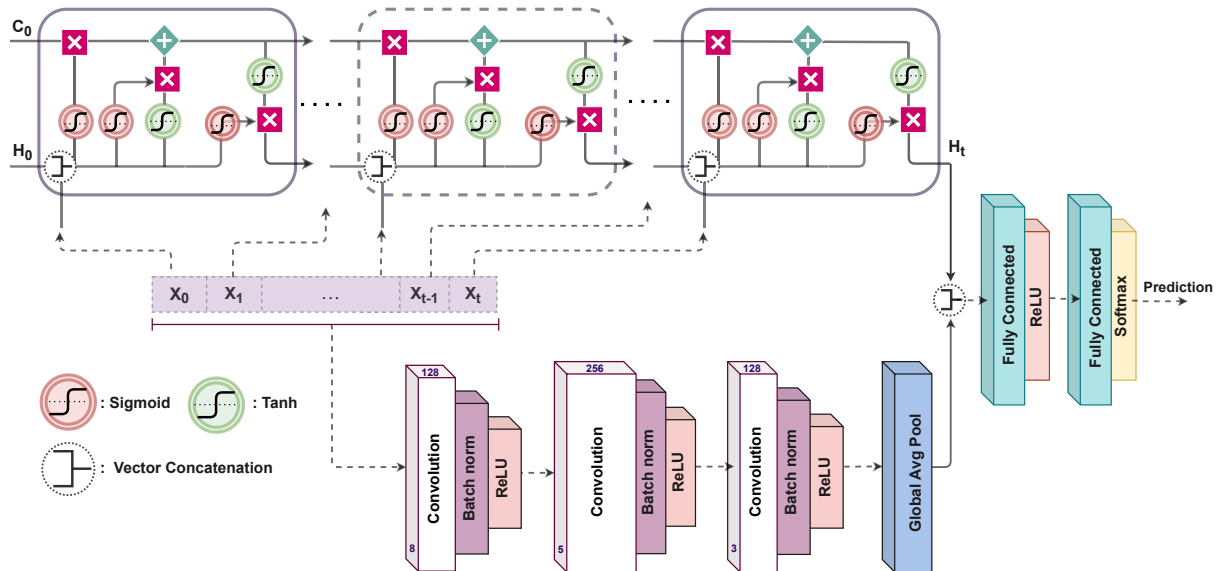


Figure 1: **Schematic representation of the EWSNet:** The EWSNet consists of three convolution blocks and an LSTM block. The fully convoluted network and the LSTM block process the input sequence independently. The concatenated output of the two blocks is passed through two fully connected layers to obtain the final prediction. X_t represents the input at time step t . C_0 and H_0 represent the initial cell and hidden states of the LSTM block, respectively. The cell state allows the passage of stored information, and the hidden state acts as the working memory to the LSTM block of the EWSNet. The Global Average Pooling layer at the end of the convolutional block makes the EWSNet invariant to sequence length.

115 2.2 Deep learning model: EWSNet structure

116 The EWSNet (see Fig. 1) can be viewed as a large composition of complex nonlinear func-
117 tions that learn hierarchical representations of the data. The input to the EWSNet is a uni-
118 variate time series signal. The EWSNet comprises of FCN, and LSTM blocks, followed by fully
119 connected layers (Karim et al 2018). The FCN consists of three stacked convolutional blocks,
120 each composed of convolution (Goodfellow et al 2016), batch normalization (BN) (Ioffe and
121 Szegedy 2015), and rectified linear unit (ReLU) (Nair and Hinton 2010) activation layers. The
122 convolution operation is performed using a filter $\mathbf{W} \in \mathcal{R}^{1 \times k}$ over an input tensor $\mathbf{X} \in \mathcal{R}^{1 \times T}$,
123 where T is the length of the time series. These filters are learnable and often characterize vari-
124 ous local patterns present in the input tensor. The convolution operation is followed by batch
125 normalization to remove the covariate shift in the output across different training batches.
126 The ReLU activation function is applied to the batch normalized output. The resulting output
127 at the end of one convolution block can be represented as:

$$\mathbf{Z} = \text{ReLU}(\text{BN}(\mathbf{W} * \mathbf{X})), \quad (3)$$

128 where $*$ represents the convolution operation. Each of the three convolution blocks of EWSNet
129 processes the output of the previous block in a similar fashion. The output of the third con-
130 volutional block, containing D filters, is a set of D vectors, each of length T . To make EWSNet
131 invariant to the sequence length T , we apply a global average pooling operation (over T) to
132 obtain a D dimensional vector.

133 An LSTM (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber 1997) is a recurrent neural network that integrates
134 a gradient superhighway in the form of a cell state \mathbf{C}_t , in addition to the hidden state \mathbf{H}_t at time
135 t . The LSTM model has gates which allow addition and removal of information to and from
136 the cell state. The forget gate (\mathbf{f}_t), parameterized by \mathbf{w}_f , decides the information to be deleted
137 from the cell state \mathbf{C}_t on obtaining the input \mathbf{X}_t at time t and can be defined as follows:

$$\mathbf{f}_t = \sigma(\langle \mathbf{w}_f, [\mathbf{H}_{t-1}, \mathbf{X}_t] \rangle), \quad (4)$$

138 where σ is the sigmoid activation function and $\langle . \rangle$ is the dot product operation. The input
139 gate (\mathbf{i}_t), parameterized by \mathbf{w}_i , determines the information that should be added to the cell
140 state \mathbf{C}_t and is defined as:

$$\mathbf{i}_t = \sigma(\langle \mathbf{w}_i, [\mathbf{H}_{t-1}, \mathbf{X}_t] \rangle). \quad (5)$$

141 The cell state \mathbf{C}_t is obtained by using both \mathbf{f}_t and \mathbf{i}_t in the following manner:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{C}}_t = \tanh(\langle \mathbf{w}_c, [\mathbf{H}_{t-1}, \mathbf{X}_t] \rangle), \quad (6)$$

$$\mathbf{C}_t = \mathbf{f}_t \odot \mathbf{C}_{t-1} + \mathbf{i}_t \odot \tilde{\mathbf{C}}_t, \quad (7)$$

142 where \mathbf{w}_c parameterizes the intermediate cell state and \odot is the Hadamard product. The hid-
143 den state \mathbf{H}_t and output gate \mathbf{o}_t (parameterized by \mathbf{w}_o) of the LSTM are defined as:

$$\mathbf{o}_t = \sigma(\langle \mathbf{w}_o, [\mathbf{H}_{t-1}, \mathbf{X}_t] \rangle), \text{ and} \quad (8)$$

$$\mathbf{H}_t = \mathbf{o}_t \odot \tanh(\mathbf{C}_t). \quad (9)$$

144 The EWSNet concatenates the hidden state of the LSTM after observing the last input with the
145 output of the FCN. This concatenated feature representation of the input time series is used
146 to obtain the final output after passing through two fully connected layers. A fully connected
147 layer consists of multiple nodes, each of which is connected to every output of the previous
148 layer. Thus, each node (parameterized by \mathbf{w}) takes a vector, \mathbf{x} , as input and outputs a scalar
149 that is a nonlinear transformation of the weighted sum of the inputs in the following manner:

150

$$z = f(\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle), \quad (10)$$

151 where $f(\cdot)$ is a non-linear transformation. The first fully connected layer of the EWSNet uses
152 ReLu as the activation function, while the second layer uses Softmax activation resulting in
153 a probability distribution over the class labels. The parameters of EWSNet at each layer are
154 learned using the backpropagation algorithm to minimize the overall cross-entropy loss be-

155 tween the predictions and the ground truth. The EWSNet comprises 3 convolution layers with
156 128, 256, and 128 filters of size 3, 5 and 3 respectively, and an LSTM block with a hidden state
157 of dimension 128. These choices for the hyper-parameters were obtained through fine-tuning
158 (see [SI Appendix, Section S1, Fig. S2](#)). We used an ADAM (Kingma and Ba 2015) optimizer with
159 the learning rate 5×10^{-5} and batch size 512 to train the EWSNet.

160 2.3 Machine learning models trained on generic EWSs

161 We use classical ML models, namely Logistic Regression, Random Forest, SVM, MLP, to clas-
162 sify time series based on the extracted EWSs passed as input to these models. Generic EWSs
163 are calculated using time series for a combination of bandwidths ($\{20, 30, 40\}$) and window
164 sizes ($\{40, 50, 60\}$). This is done with the idea that the EWSs for a particular window size and
165 bandwidth capture certain characteristic features that aid in classifying the time series and
166 assigning the appropriate label (see [SI Appendix, Section S2](#)). Accordingly, if the individual
167 EWSs for the combinations are concatenated and passed as input to these models, they act as
168 an additional filter to the generic EWSs and are supposed to improve them. A brief description
169 of the model along with the tuned hyperparameters for the respective models are discussed
170 in [SI Appendix, Section S2, Table S2](#).

171 3 Results

172 We have engineered a deep learning model - EWSNet to forewarn an upcoming shift on sim-
173 ulated and real-world time series data. The EWSNet (see Fig. 1) consists of two blocks; the
174 LSTM block that captures the latent temporal properties and the fully convolutional block that
175 views the time series as spatial data. The hyper-parameters of the model (such as the number
176 of convolution blocks, LSTM hidden units, learning rate, etc.) were carefully fine-tuned using
177 the training and the validation sets (see [Materials and Methods](#)). Two experimental regimes
178 derived from nine different models pertaining to biological, ecological, and paleoclimatic dy-
179 namics (Scheffer et al 2012, Sharma and Dutta 2017, Dutta et al 2018, Boerlijst et al 2013, Dakos
180 et al 2008) (see [SI Appendix, Table S1](#)) perturbed with white noise (Dataset-W) and colored

181 noise (Dataset-C) are used to train and test the performance of EWSNet. The time series ex-
182 hibit catastrophic and non-catastrophic transitions with CSD (spanning over four different
183 bifurcations; viz, saddle-node (fold), transcritical, pitchfork, and supercritical Hopf bifurca-
184 tions) and no transitions. We have also included in the study time series with coloured noise
185 where the generic EWSs typically show weak trends ([Seekell et al 2011](#), [Rudnick and Davis](#)
186 [2003](#), [Dutta et al 2018](#)). To estimate the robustness of the models and to rule out results due
187 to chance, we report the performance of the models averaged over 25 trials.

188 *3.1 Detecting and characterizing transitions using EWSNet*

189 Two different EWSNet models were each trained independently on Dataset-W and Dataset-C,
190 respectively using 80% of the generated dataset. The remaining 20% was used for testing the
191 performance of the trained model. Further, the test set of Dataset-C contained time series with
192 highly correlated noise, while the training set contained time series with weakly correlated
193 noise. The training and validation accuracies for both the models as a function of the number
194 of training epochs averaged over 25 different trials are presented in Fig. 2. We observe the
195 convergence of the model after 25 epochs. We also noticed transients in the training epochs
196 that are symptomatic of training deep neural network models. The mean test accuracy of
197 the EWSNet models for Dataset-W is 99.46% and for Dataset-C is 95.93%. As can be observed
198 from Fig. 3, the EWSNet models show high accuracy for all the three labels (catastrophic (C.T.),
199 non-catastrophic/smooth (S.T.), and no transition (N.T.)) on both the datasets. While non-
200 transition series are always correctly classified by both the models, there exists a small amount
201 of confusion for the other two classes. Moreover, the efficacy of EWSNet for time series of
202 varying lengths and at varying distances from the tipping point (if present) are discussed in the
203 supplementary material (see [SI Appendix, Section S1, Fig. S1](#)). The generic EWSs are sensitive
204 to the length of pre-transition time series used, whereas the EWSNet models are marginally
205 affected by reduced time series length.

206 Detection of EWSs using classical trends in statistics such as autocorrelation can be highly
207 sensitive to non-uniform sampling of data ([Boettiger and Hastings 2012b](#), [Clements et al 2015](#)),

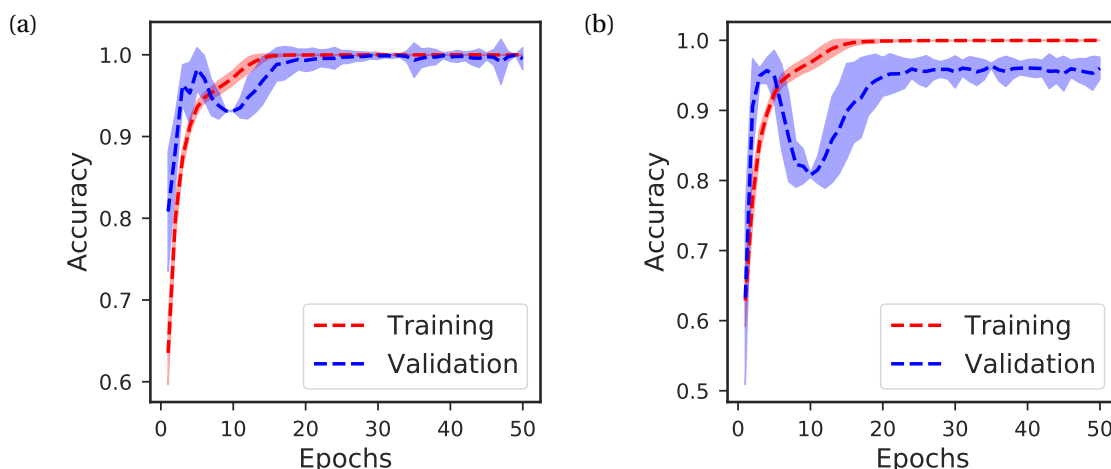


Figure 2: **Mean accuracy of EWSNet:** for (a) Dataset-W, and (b) Dataset-C. The mean training and validation accuracies are computed after every epoch and are averaged over 25 trials. The shaded regions represent the 95% confidence interval. The accuracies saturate after around 25 epochs indicating the models' convergence.

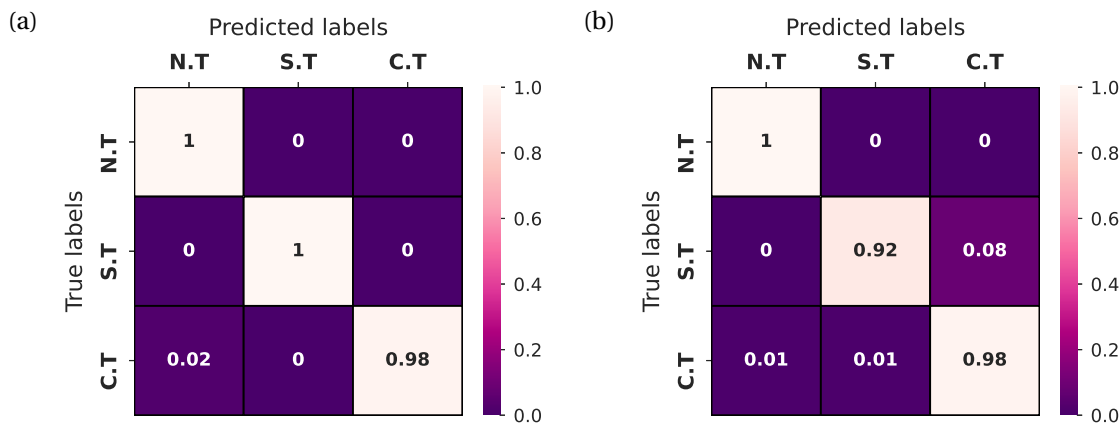


Figure 3: **Error analysis using the confusion matrix:** for (a) Dataset-W, and (b) Dataset-C. The EWSNet always classifies a no transition time series accurately. It rarely makes an error in classifying catastrophic and non-catastrophic transitions for Dataset-W. For Dataset-C, 1% of catastrophic transitions are labeled as non-catastrophic, and 8% of non-catastrophic transitions are being misclassified as catastrophic. Here, C.T, S.T, and N.T stand for a catastrophic, non-catastrophic, and no transition, respectively.

208 with sporadic sampling increasing the probability of misidentifying catastrophic and non-
 209 catastrophic transitions, or failing to detect a transition at all. We investigated the robustness
 210 of the trained EWSNet models towards imperfectly sampled time series by re-sampling the
 211 time series (see *SI Appendix, Section S1*). As expected, this imperfect sampling reduced the
 212 efficiency of generic EWSs. However, EWSNet models continued to provide robust predic-

213 tions of approaching transitions; even when re-sampling retained only 40% of the original
214 simulated data, the mean accuracy remained above 80% (see Fig. 4).

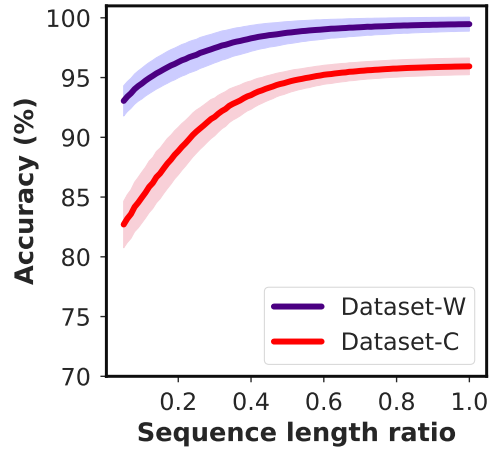


Figure 4: **Robustness of EWSNet on imperfectly sampled data:** EWSNet is robust to observational error. The model performance improves with an increase in the sequence length; the model performs well even for moderate infrequent sampling for both Dataset-W and Dataset-C. The infrequent temporal sampling is achieved by randomly selecting a subset of the original time series (increments of 0.01 to 1 of the actual length).

215 3.2 Performance of ML models trained using generic EWSs

216 Whilst EWSNet is trained on the raw simulated time series data, it is also possible to train ML
217 models on the trends in generic early warning signals calculated from these simulations and
218 thus use ML to attempt to detect similar trends in statistics such as autocorrelation in the val-
219 idation data sets. To compare the efficacy of this approach to the EWSNet approach, we used
220 four standard ML models ([Giannetti et al 2019](#), [Pichler et al 2020](#), [Olden et al 2008](#)) (logistic
221 regression (LR), support vector machine (SVM), Multilayer perceptron (MLP), and random
222 forests (RF)) to characterize trends in generic EWSs in simulated time series. The input to the
223 ML model is the concatenation of the generic EWSs captured for different combinations of
224 bandwidths and window-sizes (for details see [SI Appendix, Section S2](#)). The results presented
225 in Fig. 5 show that AR-1 and SD are the top two performing generic EWSs across both the
226 datasets and across all the ML models, in accordance with prior literature ([Dakos et al 2012b](#)).
227 Thus, we further trained ML models using a combination of AR-1 and SD which resulted in

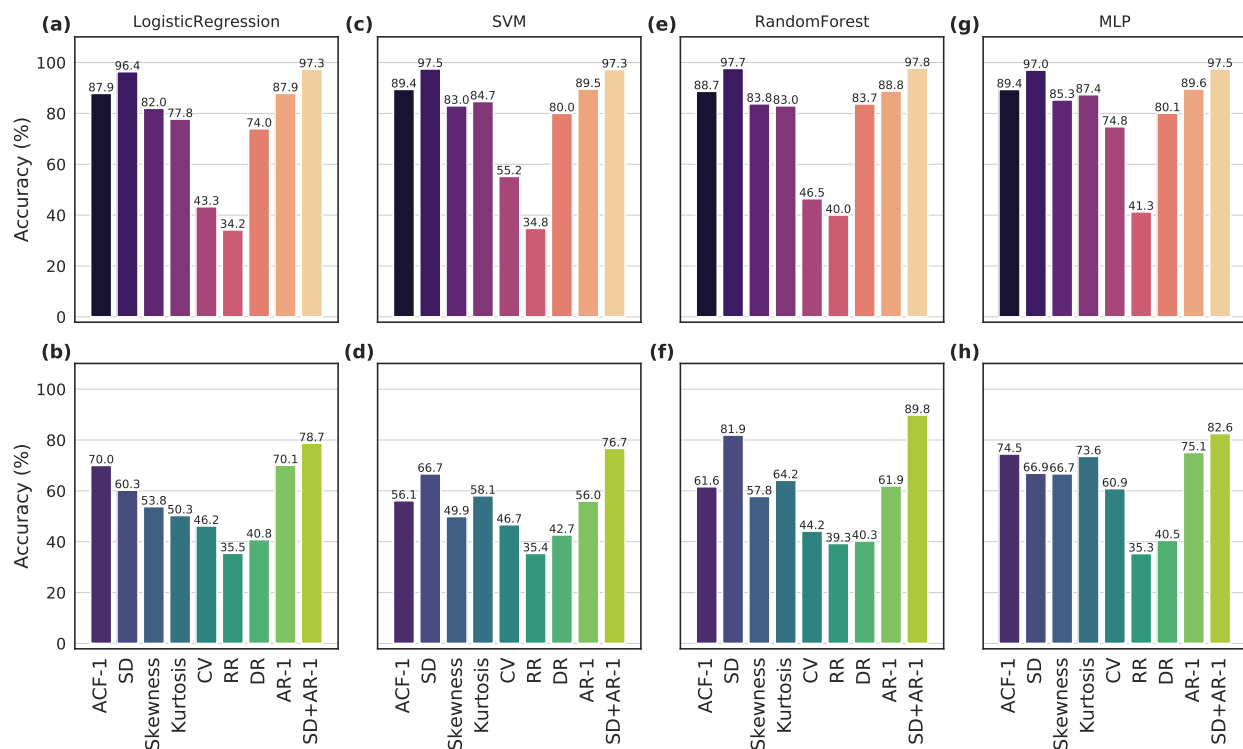


Figure 5: **Performance of generic EWSs using (a,b) Logistic Regression, (c,d) Support Vector Machine (SVM), (e,f) Random Forest, and (g,h) Multilayer Perceptron (MLP):** The ML models are trained on EWSs extracted using various combinations of rolling window sizes and bandwidths. The results are presented as bar plots corresponding to each EWS indicator for the Dataset-W (upper panel) and Dataset-C (lower panel). Among the best performing indicators are SD, AR1, and SD+AR1. The SD+AR1 model improves the performance over the individual SD and AR1 models.

228 performance greater than the models trained on the individual EWSs (see Fig. 5) and other
 229 pair-wise combinations of EWSs (see *SI Appendix, Section S2, Figs. S3-S5*).

230 Table 1 compares the accuracies of the generic EWSs based ML models against the EWSNet
 231 for both the Dataset-W and Dataset-C. EWSNet performs significantly better in distinguishing
 232 transitions and classifying time series for both the datasets: the probability for the t -statistics
 233 of obtaining a mean accuracy as that of EWSNet is negligible ($p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$). Interestingly,
 234 irrespective of the ML model chosen - tipping points are more accurately identified in Dataset-
 235 W than Dataset-C. This can be explained by the short-scale fluctuations introduced by colored
 236 noise, in Dataset-C, which can dampen the trend in the time-series.

237 Populations experiencing red noise are relatively more threatened and found to encounter

ML methods	EWSs	Dataset-W	Dataset-C
Support Vector Machine	SD	97.47 ± 0.09	66.69 ± 0.00
	AR1	89.55 ± 0.17	55.95 ± 0.00
	SD + AR1	97.27 ± 0.14	76.70 ± 0.00
Logistic Regression	SD	96.40 ± 0.14	60.27 ± 0.01
	AR1	87.88 ± 0.22	70.08 ± 0.02
	SD + AR1	97.35 ± 0.11	78.74 ± 0.02
Random Forest	SD	97.69 ± 0.12	81.93 ± 0.22
	AR1	88.76 ± 0.20	61.94 ± 0.30
	SD + AR1	97.77 ± 0.16	89.79 ± 0.82
Multilayer Perceptron	SD	97.02 ± 0.69	66.94 ± 1.55
	AR1	89.58 ± 0.45	75.10 ± 0.82
	SD + AR1	97.47 ± 0.16	82.56 ± 2.10
EWSNet		99.46 ± 0.01	95.93 ± 0.02

Table 1: **Comparison of mean accuracy for various models:** On comparing the mean accuracy, EWSNet appears to be the best performing model in classifying a critical transitional time series consistently for both the Dataset-W and Dataset-C. On passing the EWSs as input to the other ML models, the results are comparably close to the EWSNet for Dataset-W, but the accuracy declines for Dataset-C. The mean accuracy for the four classical ML models is comparable. The random forest is the best among them, with standard deviation and a combination of standard deviation and autocorrelation at lag-1 as features. The numeric value in \pm denotes 95% confidence interval.

238 long periods of survival conditions ([Vasseur and Yodzis 2004](#), [Yang et al 2019](#)) and their transi-
239 tions need to be anticipated. Therefore, we compared the EWSNet against the ML models on
240 Dataset-C (the test set contains time series with high correlated noise). The metrics Accuracy,
241 Area Under the Curve (AUC), True Positive Rate (TPR), Precision, and F Score for each of the
242 models are presented in Fig. 6, again EWSNet outperforms other methods for these red noise
243 time series.

244 3.3 Applicability and robustness of EWSNet to real world and experimental data

245 The noisy nature of non-simulated data means that the effectiveness of EWSs is often vari-
246 able ([Burthe et al 2016](#)). To test the reliability of EWSNet when predicting real world data, we
247 have considered seventeen ecological ([Chen et al 2018](#), [Clements and Ozgul 2016](#), [Clements](#)

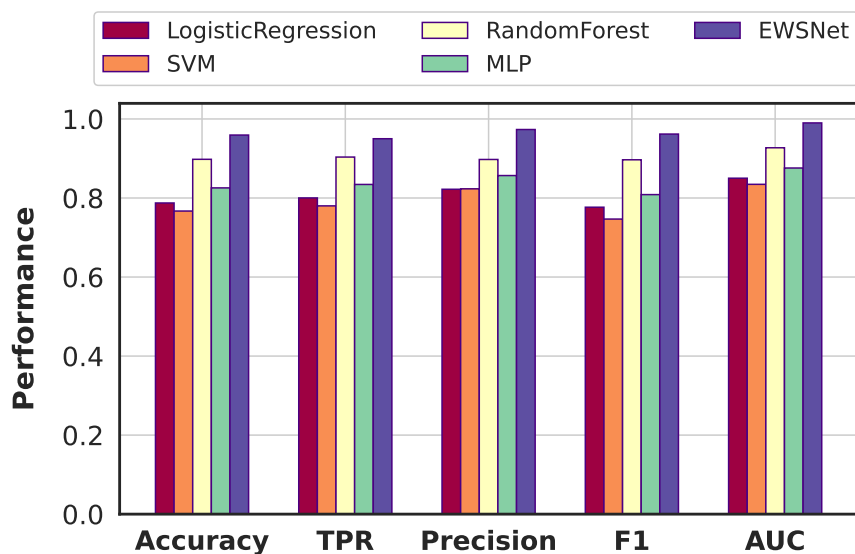


Figure 6: **Predictive performance of different models:** Comparison of Logistic Regression, SVM, Random Forest, MLP, and EWSNet across five metrics, namely Accuracy, TPR, Precision, AUC, and F1 Score. EWSNet results in the best performance uniformly across all the metrics.

248 [et al 2017](#)) and paleoclimatic data ([Dakos et al 2008](#)) (see [SI Appendix, Section S3, Figs. S6-](#)
249 [S7](#)). We used the EWSNet trained with simulated data and tested it on the above real time
250 series. Applying classical ML models on real time series that vary in length, some being in-
251 explicitly short, is challenging and requires additional effort to make them of equal length.
252 The additional steps will either pad, interpolate, or truncate the sequences leading to infor-
253 mation loss in the trend and erroneous results. In contrast, EWSNet can classify time series of
254 varying lengths due to the global average pooling post convolution layers, making the model
255 dynamic. We present the prediction probabilities for the EWSNet, and Kendall's- τ correla-
256 tion coefficient for the generic EWS (AR-1) (see [SI Appendix, Table S3](#)). The EWSNet classifies
257 and distinguishes transitions in real time series with a mean accuracy of 76.47 ± 0.03 over 25
258 trials with high predictive probability (see [Fig. 7](#)). This is the first time the results have been
259 computed on real-world time series objectively using deep learning models trained only on
260 simulated time series.

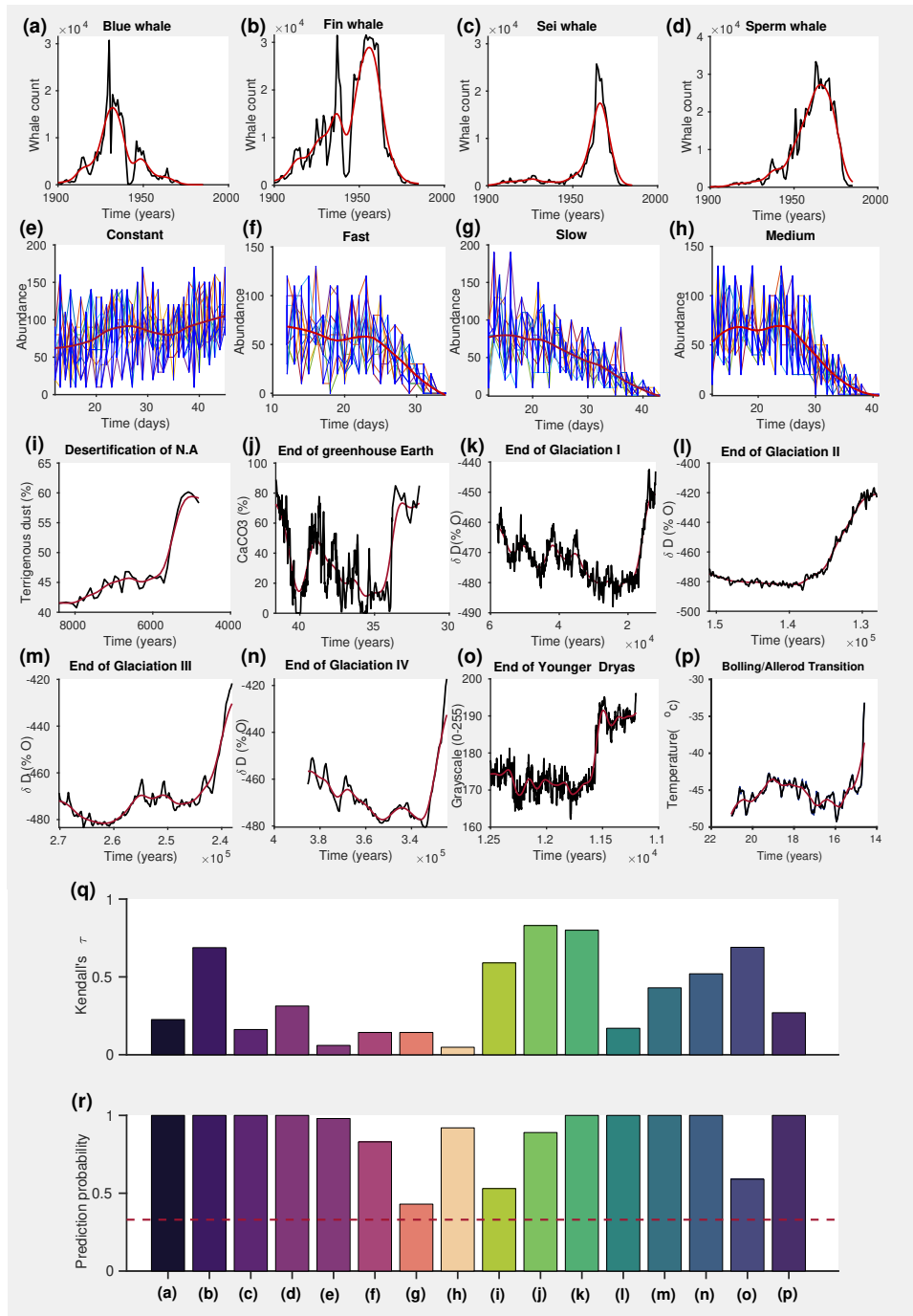


Figure 7: Performance on real world and experimental time series: Time series data of: (a)-(d) different whale counts, (e)-(h) abundance of *Didinium nasutum* populations that were exposed to four different experimental treatments, and (i)-(p) climate systems. In (a)-(p), the red curve is the time series trend. Histograms showing performance of (q) AR-1 using Kendall's- τ , and (r) the EWSNet using prediction probability, respectively, for the time series data ((a)-(p)). In (r), the red dashed line denotes prediction probability due to chance. The results for dry-land ecosystem are presented in [SI Appendix, Table S3](#).

261 Discussion

262 Previously developed EWSs (Scheffer et al 2009, Drake and Griffen 2010, Clements and Ozgul
263 2016) have had limited success in predicting approaching transitions, particularly in noisy
264 real world data. Moreover, such methods cannot discern whether an approaching transition
265 is catastrophic or not. Here we take an entirely new approach to predict transitions in com-
266 plex systems by developing a deep learning model (EWSNet) that can forecast not only an
267 approaching tipping point but also discern whether it is catastrophic or not. The key charac-
268 teristic of our model is its non-dependence on a priori statistical features such as increasing
269 autocorrelation in a time series. Rather, EWSNet unbiasedly learns latent features embedded
270 in time series, which are indicative of approaching collapse. Using this approach EWSNet -
271 when trained only on data generated from nine simple mathematical models - can yield high
272 accuracy inferences of approach tipping points in noisy real-world and laboratory datasets.

273 The EWSNet has been trained using simulated time series data and results in a test accu-
274 racy of $99.46\% \pm 0.01$ on the Dataset-W. The trained EWSNet achieves an approximate baseline
275 accuracy of 90% (80%) when presented with only 5% of the time series data from Dataset-W
276 (Dataset-C). The performance steadily improves with the availability of more information on
277 the time series saturating at 99% (92%) for Dataset-W (Dataset-C) (Fig. 4). Thus the EWSNet
278 reduces the need for high-frequency data while uncovering the complex dynamics to classify
279 an impending transition. Adding a small number of time series with colored noise (correlation
280 time < 0.2) during training results in EWSNet that achieves a mean test accuracy of 95.93% on a
281 more challenging time series containing colored noise ($0.2 < \text{correlation time} \leq 0.8$) (Table 1).
282 Analyzing the false positives and negatives for each label, we perceive that the EWSNet never
283 misclassifies a time series with no transition but infrequently confuses between catastrophic
284 and non-catastrophic transitions (Fig. 3).

285 Next, we investigate the effectiveness of four ML models (both linear and non-linear) trained
286 on trends in generic EWSs calculated from the simulated datasets. ML models trained using
287 EWSs perform well for Dataset-W but suffer a significant drop in the performance on Dataset-

288 C (see Fig. 6). Among the best-performing indicators are standard deviation, auto-correlation
289 at lag-1, and a combination of these two, which is consistent with the findings in the liter-
290 ature (Dakos et al 2012b). The results are comparable to EWSNet for Dataset-W. However,
291 EWSNet performs better than the generic EWSs based ML models on Dataset-C (see Table
292 1). The generic EWSs in a time series are insufficient to anticipate and classify the transitions.
293 Therefore, we infer that the EWSNet captures other latent properties of the time series that the
294 generic EWSs do not characterize. Further, classical approaches using generic EWSs require
295 a careful selection of suitable bandwidth, and window-size (Lenton et al 2012, Boettiger and
296 Hastings 2012b). However, the EWSNet does not have this limitation.

297 We also test the EWSNet, trained on simulated data, on real world time series containing
298 both abrupt and smooth shifts. Based on the comparison of the predictive probabilities and
299 the Kendall- τ values, we conclude that our model is efficient and more potent in forecasting
300 a critical transition (see Fig. 7). The likelihood of the EWSNet predicting the true label is sig-
301 nificantly greater than chance even for imperfectly sampled or shorter time series. However,
302 the traditional methods based on generic EWSs can be susceptible to false positives for such
303 time series (Dakos et al 2008).

304 Thus, we have engineered and demonstrated a deep neural network- EWSNet that results
305 in better performance over methods utilizing generic EWSs and can be further developed to
306 serve as a universal indicator of critical transitions. Considering transitions entailing colored
307 noise, the usefulness of EWSNet increases manifold as it can learn the short-time scale fluc-
308 tuations and classify a time series as a critical transitional or not. On the other hand, the
309 generic EWSs do not exhibit a trend in cases when transitions occur due to chance fluctuations
310 (Ditlevsen and Johnsen 2010). There remain a few open questions related to the detection of
311 critical transitions in complex systems, such as machine learning models' ability to detect bi-
312 furcations without CSD (non-smooth) and sharp transitions without bifurcations (Dutta et al
313 2018). Our work also shows promising future directions to develop machine learning mod-
314 els for classifying bifurcations and further predicting 'when' the critical transition will occur.

315 However, on a broader perspective, the EWSNet is a more generalized model with almost no
316 presumptions opening up the possibility of real-time monitoring of many real-world systems
317 such as global climate, lake ecosystem, cell dynamics in various organisms that generate dis-
318 torted and noisy sequences of events for automatically predicting impending transitions with
319 a negligible computational cost.

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325 **Authors' contributions**

326 N.C.K. and P.S.D. conceived the study. S.D. and S.S. performed the simulations and analyzed
327 the results. C.F.C. performed the microcosm experiments. All authors discussed the results
328 and wrote the manuscript.

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449 **Supporting Information**

450 Additional supporting information is available with this article.