#### 1 Observation of universal "ageing" dynamics in antibiotic persistence

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6 Stress response in cells is understood as an organized response that allows cells to adapt to 7 changes in external conditions by activating specific pathways. Here we investigate the 8 dynamics of single cells when perturbed by an acute stress that is too strong for a regulated 9 response but not lethal. We show that when the growth of bacteria is arrested by transient 10 exposure to strong inhibitors, the statistics of their regrowth dynamics can be predicted by a model for the cellular network that ignores most of the details of the underlying molecular 11 12 interactions. By measuring the regrowth dynamics after stress exposure on thousands of cells, 13 we show that the model can predict the outcome of antibiotic persistence 14 measurements. Further experiments under different stress conditions support the predictions 15 of the model. Our results may account for the ubiquitous antibiotic persistence phenotype, as 16 well as for the difficulty in attempts to link it to specific genes. More generally, our approach 17 suggests that two different cellular states can be observed under stress: a regulated state, which 18 prepares cells for fast recovery, and a disrupted cellular state due to acute stress with slow and 19 heterogeneous recovery dynamics. The latter may be described by general properties of large 20 random networks rather than by specific pathway activation. Better understanding of the 21 disrupted state could shed new light on the survival and evolution of cells under stress.

Stress responses at the level of a single cell have been studied in many biological systems<sup>1,2</sup>. 22 23 For example, when nutrients become scarce, cells can adapt by upregulating intracellular 24 production, increasing import or switching to a different metabolism that prepares cells for survival, and regrowth when nutrients become available<sup>3</sup>. Many stress response pathways 25 have been mapped, leading to the understanding of the mechanisms used by cells to cope 26 with changing conditions<sup>4</sup>. However, when subjected to acute stress, which is too strong 27 28 for the stress response to kick in, the behavior of cells is much less understood. In particular, even under mild stress, some sub-populations of cells may be in a disrupted state 29 that prevents them from upregulating a stress response. Evidence for such single cell 30 31 heterogeneity under stress is found in many different organisms. An example of such

heterogeneity is observed in triggered antibiotic persistence<sup>5-7</sup>. When microorganisms are 32 exposed to starvation, or other stresses, resulting in growth arrest, a small sub-population 33 is frozen in a dormant state which is maintained for a long time even when the cells are 34 transferred back to growth conditions. An example of this extended lag time is shown in 35 Fig. 1. After a period of growth, *E.coli* bacteria reached starvation, arresting their growth. 36 When starvation conditions were replaced with fresh medium (Fig. 1A), bacteria resumed 37 growth stochastically and the lag time for each bacterium was determined using an 38 automated system (ScanLag setup<sup>8</sup>). A typical lag time distribution is shown in Fig. 1B. In 39 contrast to the majority population that was able to resume growth shortly after being 40 41 switched to fresh nutrients, a tail of long lag bacteria is observed. While this transient dormant state typically bears a fitness cost, it becomes protective if the dormant cells are 42 then exposed to lethal antibiotics which require active growth to kill the bacteria<sup>6,9-11</sup> (Fig. 43 1A). This better ability of dormant cells to survive is distinct from resistance, which allows 44 bacteria to grow in the presence of antibiotics<sup>7</sup>. In Fig. 1C we show that the antibiotic 45 persistence level, i.e. the fraction of surviving bacteria after an antibiotic treatment, 46 47 correlates with the tail of the lag time distribution. Because the antibiotic is not effective for killing the non-growing bacteria (still in the lag phase), the bacteria that have a lag time 48 longer than the antibiotic treatment are protected, also termed "persistence-by-lag"<sup>12,13</sup>. 49 This result is in agreement with previous findings<sup>8,14-16</sup> and was reproduced using strains 50 51 and conditions that span different triggered persistence levels (Fig. 1C). We conclude that 52 understanding what shapes the stochastic exit from dormancy, i.e. the lag time distribution, 53 enables predicting the triggered persistence level, as studied below.

Despite 20 years of research into the pathways regulating antibiotic persistence<sup>17</sup> and 54 leading to the long lag bacteria, no clear unified molecular understanding of this clinically 55 relevant phenotype<sup>18</sup> has emerged. In this work, we show that the extended lag is the result 56 57 of bacteria unable to overcome the stressful conditions imposed by starvation and entering a disrupted state. More generally, we propose a theoretical and experimental framework 58 for the analysis of dynamics of cells exposed to acute stress which is beyond their adaptive 59 potential, but not lethal, leading to a disrupted state. We focus on the quantitative 60 measurements of the recovery of single cells from the disrupted state and show that they 61 can be described by the general features of a model that ignores most of the details of 62

specific cellular pathways. The universal behavior predicted by the model was able to
predict the antibiotic persistence level as well as the quantitative dynamics of recovery
from different stresses.

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## 67 Memory effect following acute stress

To determine quantitatively how the lag time distribution depends on starvation duration 68 69 under acute stress conditions, we added serine hydroxamate (SHX) to exponentially 70 growing cultures of *E.coli*. SHX induces the starvation for the amino acid serine which triggers the stringent response and results in a growth arrest<sup>19</sup> (Fig. 2A). In order to impose 71 an acute stress that the bacteria cannot overcome and be further away from a regulated 72 stress response, we used a relaxed mutant of the stringent response. Observations at the 73 single cell level in microfluidic devices show that exposure to SHX results in the growth 74 arrest of the bacteria and rule out that the growth arrest observed at the level of the 75 population is a balance of death and growth (Fig. 2D,E). 76

77 We monitored the dynamics of the recovery after the growth arrest imposed by SHX for a duration  $T_w$ , by measuring the distribution of lag times once the SHX is removed. In 78 agreement with previous results under other stress conditions<sup>8,14,15</sup>, we found that the longer 79 the duration of SHX exposure, the longer the tail of the distribution that dominates the 80 antibiotic persistence level (Fig. 2B,C), with bacteria lagging for more than day. This 81 82 suggested that the bacteria keep a memory of the total duration of SHX exposure. This memory is not due to stable genetic changes because repeating the same experiment for a 83 culture started from a late appearing colony again depended on the starvation time<sup>8</sup> (Fig. 84 S1C,D). In agreement with recent results, we observed that the distributions display a long 85 tail, which is also reflected in the tail of the killing curve under antibiotic treatments $^{20}$ . 86 Whereas an exponential decay is the expected behavior of a stochastic process with one 87 88 characteristic time and is often observed in the initial killing of microorganisms by antibiotics, the tail of persisters in wild-type E.coli cannot be fitted with a single 89 exponential decay<sup>6,20</sup>. One explanation for the appearance of a long tail after SHX exposure 90 91 may be because the short lag bacteria are killed by the SHX itself, which would enrich for 92 the long lag bacteria. We ruled this factor out by showing that the viability under SHX 93 stayed nearly constant (Fig. S1A) and by direct observation of *E.coli* bacteria before, 94 during and after exposure to SHX in a microfluidic device<sup>21</sup> (Fig. 2D,E). Delays due to the 95 SHX diffusion were ruled out (Supplementary information). We conclude that the lag time 96 distribution following exposure to SHX reflects the changes that occurred in each single 97 cell, increasing the probability for extremely long recovery times that keep a memory of 98 the starvation duration. In order to further understand this phenomenon, we first search for 99 a theoretical model with similar features.

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# 101 "Ageing" as a universal property of random highly connected networks

The memory of the duration of a perturbation observed above (here SHX exposure for 102 103 duration  $T_w$ ), as well as the non-exponential relaxation, has an equivalent in many physical systems that display "ageing"<sup>22</sup>, ranging from amorphous polymers<sup>23</sup>, stretched DNA<sup>24</sup>, 104 crumpling<sup>25,26</sup>, colloidal solutions, spin and coulomb glasses<sup>27</sup>. A physical system exhibits 105 "ageing" if its relaxation after a transient external perturbation of duration  $T_w$  depends not 106 107 only on its macroscopic state at the end of the perturbation but also on the conditions that led to this state<sup>28-30</sup>. For example, Struik<sup>23</sup> showed that the relaxation of amorphous 108 109 polymers after a deformation depends on how the deformation was done and on its duration. He showed that the behavior was universal i.e. independent of the details of the 110 material, and termed this phenomenon "physical ageing" (thereafter termed ageing), which 111 is distinct from "biological ageing" <sup>31</sup>. Inspired by models for ageing in glassy systems that 112 rely on large random networks<sup>32</sup>, we developed a model for the network of intracellular 113 114 molecular interactions which govern the behavior of each single *E.coli* cell during and after exposure to acute stress. Our goal was to study a generic model, with the minimal 115 assumptions necessary to display the observed ageing dynamics induced by the stress, and 116 without going into the details of the molecular interactions. Similarly to neural networks 117 modelling<sup>33</sup>, we considered a network of interacting nodes, while having feedback cycles 118 typical of the genetic and metabolic networks of a cell. The network is built of cycles of 119 120 various sizes, i.e. the numbers of nodes they contain. Each node represents a compound in the cell's network (proteins, metabolites, etc.) that can be in one of two states representing 121 its current activity<sup>34</sup>. The cycles represent crudely the genetic/metabolic pathways required 122

123 for growth, and the distribution of their size was assumed to follow a power law, similarly to the scale-free structure measured on the *E.coli* network<sup>35,36</sup> and protein life-time<sup>37</sup> (see 124 Supplementary Information - Theory). The model, termed the "Randomly Connected 125 Cycles Network" (RCCN), is schematically drawn in Fig. 3A and Box1. Here the up/down 126 green arrows represent nodes in either the ON or OFF state. Exposure to SHX translates in 127 the model as a force applied for duration  $T_w$ , tending to turn the nodes OFF, and resulting 128 in a macroscopic state of growth arrest. Washing of SHX ends the stress and the fraction 129 of OFF nodes relaxes back (Fig. S2A). Using the RCCN model simulations, we could 130 observe the ageing dynamics of the relaxation (Fig. S2B). The model can be effectively 131 described by an analytical mean field approximation that reproduces the ageing dynamics 132 of the simulations (Fig. S2B- dashed lines) and provides an intuitive framework for 133 134 understanding the dynamics of recovery after acute stress (see Supplementary Information-Theory). Ageing in the model is due to a cascade of states that need to relax in the correct 135 136 order for the whole system to go back to its state before the perturbation. This results in frustration, leading to a disrupted state with a broad distribution of time scales of meta-137 138 stable states. Within our model, the lag time for recovery of each single cell is determined by the time for the fraction of OFF nodes to go back to its original value before SHX 139 (Box1). The simulated lag time distributions, for various stress durations  $T_w$ , are plotted in 140 Fig. 3B, together with the analytical approximation. 141

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#### 143 Saturation of ageing in experimental data

Both the simulations and the analytical model (Figs. 3B, S2B and Eq. S8) predict several typical features similar to those observed for physical ageing: *(i)* the lag time distribution depends on the stress duration; *(ii)* the lag time distribution contains many timescales and typically exhibits non-exponential decay; *(iii)* the lag time distribution should stop depending on stress duration for long enough stress, and therefore the persister bacteria fraction should not increase further at long stress exposure durations. We note that these predictions are robust to changes in the model's parameters (Fig. S3).

The first prediction is in agreement with the data of Fig. 2B showing the strong dependenceof the lag time distribution on SHX exposure times. The second prediction was confirmed

by plotting the higher statistics data on a log-log scale. In agreement with previous results $^{20}$ , 153 we observe that the experimental lag time distribution cannot be fitted with an exponential 154 155 decay and better fitted with a power law (Fig S4A and Table S3). In order to test the third prediction, we exposed the culture to longer durations under SHX (Fig. 3C). As predicted 156 by the model, the effect of SHX stress on the lag time distribution of *E. coli* saturates around 157  $T_{w}$ >1000 minutes (Fig. 3D). This result is surprising from the biological perspective: 158 biological ageing is typically viewed as a continuous decline in the ability of the system to 159 recover, eventually leading to death<sup>38</sup>. Here we show that, in striking similarity with ageing 160 in physical systems, the recovery distribution is not affected by SHX stress duration, once 161 this duration is longer than the longest time scale of the system. The lag time distribution 162 is similar whether the culture has been under SHX for 1300 or 2000 minutes, and without 163 a significant decline in viability<sup>39</sup> (Fig. S1A). Accordingly, and as predicted from the 164 RCCN model, the triggered persister fraction resulting from the transient SHX exposure 165 and measured directly from the survival under antibiotic treatment does not increase further 166 after 1000 minutes of starvation (Fig.3E). 167

In order to test whether the ageing behavior and its saturation would generalize to other modes of strong perturbation, we subjected wild-type bacteria culture to antibiotic that blocks translation (Chloramphenicol – CAM), as well as to sodium azide, which resulted in growth arrest due to ATP depletion<sup>40</sup> and persistence (Fig. S8). These two stresses act on different pathways, also different from the ones activated by SHX<sup>41,42</sup>. In similarity to the SHX induced growth arrest, we observed ageing in the recovery dynamics from the growth arrest during CAM exposure (Fig. 4H) or sodium azide (Fig.S5).

We conclude that different acute stresses can lead to ageing in the dynamics of the recoveryafter the stress, revealing a large cell-to-cell variability.

# 177 Gradual starvation

The variability and ageing in the recovery of cells from acute stresses was explained above by the dynamics of a random network recovering from a disrupted state. The model is independent of the details of the cellular interaction network. Clearly, such a network cannot account for the regulated behavior of cells which is the result of billions of years of evolution. Therefore, we expected that when cells are exposed to similar but less acute

stress, genetic stress response pathways should prepare cells for recovery<sup>3,4,43,44</sup> and result 183 184 in a narrow lag time distribution. In Fig. 4, we compared cultures subjected, as above, to 185 abrupt starvation with SHX (Fig. 4A- dotted line), to bacterial cultures reaching gradual starvation, simply by letting the culture deplete the amino-acids (Fig. 4A-solid line), 186 reaching stationary phase. We observed that, in contrast to the ageing behavior under SHX, 187 188 gradual starvation did not lead to ageing, i.e. the lag time distribution did not change with starvation duration (Fig. 4C). We ruled out that the difference was due to the SHX itself, 189 as its addition to the starved culture had no influence on the lag time distribution under 190 gradual starvation (Fig. S6A). Furthermore, we also exposed exponentially growing culture 191 192 to a gradual increase in SHX concentration, reaching the same optical density (OD) as abrupt SHX exposure (Fig. 4D). This gradual exposure to stress did not lead to aging (Fig. 193 194 4F). As we expected, despite the similar conditions of the abruptly arrested (Fig. 4G) and gradually arrested cultures (Fig. 4F), the lag time distributions are very different. Whereas 195 196 the gradual starvation leads to little cell-to-cell variability, with a lag time distribution consistent with a fast stochastic exit with a characteristic time of 50 minutes (Fig. S6B), 197 198 the abrupt SHX starvation results in a broad distribution with time scales longer than a day (Fig. 3D,4G). 199

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## 201 Classifying stresses according to their recovery dynamics

The understanding that strong stresses can drive the cell into a disrupted state, with long 202 203 and widely distributed recovery time-scales, whereas stresses to which cells are adapted 204 result in fast and organized recovery, allows to classify different stresses. As shown above, 205 gradual starvation in minimal medium, as well as gradual exposure to SHX, allows the *E.coli* cells to adapt and reach a growth arrested state from which they emerge back in a 206 uniform and fast time-scale (Fig. 4B,E). Similarly, starvation in saline solution does not 207 lead to ageing (Fig. S9, S10C). However, previous observations of the lag time 208 209 distributions of *E. coli* K-12 for different durations of starvation at the stationary phase in LB medium suggested that what may seem as a gradual starvation actually leads, in our 210 211 framework, to a disrupted state and ageing. In order to understand this apparent 212 contradiction, we repeated the starvation experiments in LB for two *E.coli* strains: the 213 *E.coli* K-12, which has undergone many years of evolution in labs since its isolation from 214 the wild, and a more recent EPEC wild-type isolate. We found that starvation in LB does not lead to a disrupted state for short starvation time (typical of an overnight culture). 215 216 However, starvation longer than overnight does lead to the disrupted state and ageing in the K-12 strain (Fig. S9), in agreement with our previous results<sup>8</sup>, but not for the EPEC 217 strain (Fig. S9). In our stress classification framework, this suggests that whereas the EPEC 218 strain of *E.coli* is adapted to longer starvation in rich medium, the lab K-12 strain may have 219 220 lost the ability to recover fast from these conditions which it does not encounter in laboratory conditions<sup>3</sup>. Finally, we regroup all stress conditions into one plot showing that 221 while most conditions can be classified as leading or not to ageing (Fig. S10C), starvation 222 223 of the K-12 strain in LB has an intermediate level of ageing.

# 224 **Discussion**

225 The analogy between the disrupted state of bacteria under prolonged stress and ageing in random dynamical systems that we present here (Box1) provides a new framework for the 226 description of the response of cells to strong perturbations<sup>45</sup>. Clearly, random networks 227 cannot describe regulated cellular responses that rely on specific networks. In particular, 228 cellular networks have been recently shown to suppress frustration when compared to 229 random networks<sup>46</sup>. However, once the system is driven away from its adaptive potential, 230 231 frustration is not suppressed anymore and a disrupted state is reached whose dynamics are better described statistically by a random model that ignores the details of the underlying 232 233 pathways. The recovery from acute stress that we observed is characterized by three main features: ageing dynamics, saturation of ageing and broad single-cell variability. All these 234 are robust features predicted by the RCCN model. The biochemical intuition for the 235 236 frustration that characterizes the disrupted state can be understood as the inability of the 237 genetic network to regulate the compounds that allow the cell to deal with the stress, 238 because other compounds are missing for their production or degradation. This frustration can then propagate in the network leading to a globally dysregulated state and large cell-239 to-cell heterogeneity. 240

In our experiments, the natural and gradual stresses allow the cell to reach an attractor of the gene regulation network<sup>47</sup> (Fig. 4J), in which bacteria are narrowly distributed around one phenotype with one characteristic lag time, as observed for the gradual starvation in 244 minimal medium (Fig. 4C) or gradual exposure to SHX (Fig. 4F). This growth arrested stable state has been previously shown to be different from a frozen state and to actually 245 sustain long-term protein production at a constant rate (CASP)<sup>48</sup>. More generally, it is 246 expected that regulated responses reach stability<sup>49</sup> (Fig. 4I). Lag time for the exit from such 247 a gradual starvation state was shown to be mainly due to pathways associated with 248 growth<sup>50,51</sup>. In contrast, the strong and abrupt perturbations (SHX /sodium azide/CAM) 249 250 disrupt the network in a way that drives its dynamics away from its biological adaptation potential and closer to the generic dynamics of the large random network (Fig.4J). The 251 dynamics of recovery of individual bacteria from the disrupted state reveal the complexity 252 of the intracellular dynamics, resulting in a very broad lag time distribution (Fig. 4G,H). 253 The longer the starvation time,  $T_w$ , the longer the time-scales that are reflected in the single-254 cell individuality leading to antibiotic persistence. At  $T_w$  longer than about a day, ageing 255 saturates revealing, according to the RCCN model, the longest time-scale of the cellular 256 dynamics which is surprisingly long for *E.coli*<sup>52</sup>. The ageing dynamics features may not be 257 related to a particular genetic pathway, but rather to the global architecture of the network. 258 259 Therefore, the triggered persister cells, namely the bacteria that are protected by the extended lag time acquired following a stress, may be better described by the global 260 dynamics of a random network rather than by a regulated response. This view is inspired 261 by the Pash hypothesis<sup>53</sup>, which suggested that antibiotic persistence is the result of random 262 glitches and errors rather than of a specific genetic pathway<sup>54</sup>. Our results provide a new 263 264 framework, with quantitative predictions, for understanding antibiotic persistence as a feature of a disrupted state, displaying the global dynamics of cellular networks far away 265 from their comfort zone<sup>45</sup>. 266

More generally, the work identifies a regime in which cellular networks under strong 267 perturbations can be approximated by a large non-linear network that ignores most of the 268 details of the underlying molecular interactions and for which measurements, such as 269 specific gene expression, may reflect random dynamics<sup>45</sup>. Our approach suggests that 270 similar behavior should account for different observations such as the post-antibiotic effect 271 <sup>55</sup>, and differences in the recovery dynamics from various starvation conditions <sup>56</sup>. Recent 272 developments in single-bacteria RNAseq57-59 may enable to further characterize the 273 disrupted state by identifying a global state of dysregulation. 274

275 The measurement of universal ageing dynamics in a biological system, as presented in this work, can be extended to various other cellular systems under stress, such as cells under 276 anti-cancer drugs, and should be an important tool for predictive biology<sup>60</sup>. The approach 277 allows distinguishing between two very different regimes of cellular behavior that require 278 different measurements: a regulated regime, for which the molecular information such as 279 transcriptomics or proteomics provide insightful mechanistic information, and a disrupted 280 regime in which cells are closer to a universal behavior similar to that of high dimensional 281 physical systems, such as ageing and phase transitions. 282

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420 Fig. 1 The tail of the lag time distribution correlates with survival under antibiotic treatment. 421 (A) Schematic time course: after a period of growth, the culture is starved for a duration  $T_{\rm w}$ 422 (waiting time)- where bacteria arrest their growth - and then re-exposed to nutrients. Single 423 bacteria stochastically re-grow after a lag time. If the culture is exposed transiently to antibiotics, 424 bacteria that re-grow are killed, whereas non-growing persisters survive. (B) Typical distribution 425 of the lag time following LB starvation measured by monitoring the appearance of colonies on Petri dishes<sup>8</sup> (here  $T_w$ =1820 minutes). A tail of colonies appearing long after plating can be seen 426 427 in the red box. Inset: same data replotted as 1- CDF (Cumulative Distribution Function), which 428 represents the fraction of bacteria still in the lag phase, and enables better visualization of the tail 429 of the distribution. The fraction is one at the end of starvation (all bacteria are growth arrested) 430 and decreases to zero as bacteria exit the lag (C) The tail fraction of the lag time distribution (here 431 above 4.5 h), i.e. the bacteria with a lag time longer than 4.5 h, is predictive for the survival 432 fraction under an antibiotic treatment of the same duration. Blue circles: KLY wt- different  $T_w$ . Red 433 triangles: KLY<sup>tol</sup> high persistence derivative. Dashed line: linear regression; Pearson correlation: 0.97, p<10<sup>-11</sup>. Spearman correlation for KLY wt and KLY<sup>tol</sup>, respectively: cor=0.87, p=0.0012 and 434 435 cor=0.69, p=0.026.

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438 Fig. 2 Distribution of the lag time following starvation for various durations T<sub>w</sub> of exposure to 439 serine hydroxamate (SHX). (A) OD measurements of growth (dashed line) and arrest due to SHX 440 exposure (solid line). (B) Lag time distribution for different starvation durations. Data are 441 presented as 1-CDF (cumulative distribution function) on log scale to better visualize the tail of 442 the distribution. (C) Total fraction of bacteria in the tail of the distribution shown in (B), with lag 443 times above 9.5 hours, versus starvation duration. Error bars: std (n=3). (D) Kymograph of microfluidics observations of the growth arrest of single KLYR E.coli bacteria (yellow fluorescence) 444 445 subjected to SHX and their recovery. During the initial growth phase, bacteria grow and divide in 446 the grooves and migrate upwards. After exposure to SHX, growth stops. At  $T_w$ =600 minutes, SHX 447 was washed and bacteria resumed growth stochastically. The black dots and white lines are guides 448 to the eye to enable tracking the same bacterium between frames. (E) Quantification of growth 449 arrest under SHX in single cells: 97% of cells arrested their growth (1%:one division only; 2% lysis); upon SHX washing, 96% resumed growth (see Supplementary Methods). All experiments were 450 451 performed in at least three repeats. Strain:  $KLY\Delta motA$ .

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Fig.3 The Randomly Connected Cycles Network (RCCN) model reproduces the ageing dynamics 454 455 observed in the experiment (A) Schematic representation of the random cycles network model: cycles of nodes are inter-connected with randomly chosen interaction coupling strengths  $J_{ii}$  (grey 456 457 arrows). The dynamics of the state of each node (spin) in the network is determined by summing 458 up on interactions with the connected nodes and external field (Eq. S5). (B) Prediction from the 459 simulation for the dependence of the distribution of lag times following starvation (here plotted 460 as 1-CDF on log-log scale). Different colours represent different T<sub>w</sub> durations. Simulation parameters are listed in Table S2. Dashed lines are the analytical results. (C) OD<sub>630</sub> measurements 461 462 of growth and arrest due to SHX exposure. Dashed line: no SHX. (D) Experimental results for the 463 distribution of lag times as measured after abrupt exposure to SHX. Note that the lag time distribution becomes independent of starvation duration for long enough starvation, as predicted 464 by the model. Different colours represent different durations of exposure to SHX and correspond 465 466 to the coloured marks of sampling times in (C). (E) Measurements of the survival under 9.5 hours of ampicillin treatment during the recovery of SHX starvation versus abrupt SHX starvation 467 duration,  $T_{w}$ . As predicted by the RCCN (Eq.S8) (purple dashed lines), the survival under antibiotics 468 469 first increases sharply with exposure time but saturates at longer times. Different lines represent 470 different biological replicates. Strain: KLYR.

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Lag time distributions

473 Fig.4 (A-F) No ageing under gradual starvation. (A-C) Gradual starvation by nutrient depletion. 474 (A) OD measurements of bacterial cultures exposed to SHX during exponential growth (acute 475 stress – dotted line), or exposed to SHX after gradual starvation by nutrient depletion to stationary 476 phase (gradual stress – solid line). (B) Viability under gradual starvation. Significance tests over 3 477 biological replicates. Differences in viability are non significant (NS). (C) Lag time distribution after 478 gradual starvation by nutrients depletion. The coloured curves represent different starvation 479 durations according to colours in (A). (D-F) Gradual starvation by adding SHX gradually in several 480 steps. (D) During exponential growth, a culture was starved gradually by adding SHX in steps, 481 reaching growth-arrest at a low OD (solid line). Dashed line: no SHX addition. Blue line: SHX 482 concentration. (E) Viability under the gradual SHX starvation. Significance tests over 3 biological 483 replicates. Differences in viability are non significant (NS). (F) Lag time distribution after adding 484 SHX gradually in steps. Strain: KLYR. (G) Lag time distribution after abrupt SHX starvation (Fig. 3D 485 semi-log scale for comparison). Strain: KLYR. (H) Lag time distribution after abrupt 486 chloramphenicol exposure. Strain: MG1655. (I-J) Schematic illustration of gradual starvation 487 versus acute perturbation. The black line shows a schematic landscape of the cell's possible states. (I) Gradual starvation leads single bacteria (green) to a regulated response reaching a fixed 488 489 point in the cell's network characterized by a narrow distribution of lag times and no ageing. (J) 490 Acute stress results in a disrupted state displaying dynamics of the cell's network similar to ageing 491 dynamics in physical systems and broad lag time distributions that depend on starvation duration. Different colours in the lag time distributions (plotted as 1-CDF) at the bottom represent different 492 493 stress exposure durations.



**Box1:** Analogy between physical ageing in a spin network and ageing of bacteria under acute stress.