Title: Time of arrival during disease progression and humidity additively influence *Salmonella*

enterica colonization of lettuce.

Megan H. Dixon[a,b], Dharshita Nellore[a], Sonia C. Zaacks[a], and Jeri D. Barak[a]

[a]Department of Plant Pathology, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, USA;

[b]Microbiology Doctoral Training Program, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

Running Head: *Salmonella* Benefits from Humidity and Disease

Address correspondence to Jeri D. Barak, jeri.barak@wisc.edu

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ABSTRACT

The interplay between plant host, phytopathogenic bacteria, and enteric human pathogens

in the phyllosphere have consequences for human health. *Salmonella enterica* has been known to

take advantage of phytobacterial infection, but there is little knowledge of additional factors that

may influence the relationship between enteric pathogen and plant disease. In this study, we

investigated the role of humidity and the extent of disease progression on *S. enterica*

colonization of plants. We found that high humidity was necessary for replication of *S. enterica*

on diseased lettuce, but not required for *S. enterica* ingress into the UV-protected apoplast.

Additionally, the *Xanthomonas vitians*-infected lettuce host was found to be a relatively hostile

environment for *S. enterica* when it arrived prior to the development of watersoaking or

following necrosis onset, supporting the existence of an ideal window during *X. vitians* infection

progress that maximizes *S. enterica* survival. Lastly, proximity of *S. enterica* to *X. vitians* cells

may allow *S. enterica* to benefit from cross-feeding during plant infection. Overall, this study

emphasizes the role of phytobacterial disease as a driver of *S. enterica* success in the

phyllosphere, demonstrates how time of arrival during disease progress can influence *S.*

enterica's fate in the apoplast, and highlights the potential for humidity to transform an infected

apoplast into a growth-promoting environment for bacterial colonizers.

Importance: Bacterial leaf spot of lettuce caused by *X. vitians* is a common threat to leafy green

production. The global impact caused by phytopathogens, including *X. vitians*, is likely to

increase with climate change. We found that even under a scenario where increased humidity did

not enhance plant disease, high humidity had a substantial effect on facilitating *S. enterica*

growth on *Xanthomonas*-infected plants. High humidity climates may directly contribute to the

survival of human enteric pathogens in crop fields or indirectly affect bacterial survival via

changes to the phyllosphere brought on by phytopathogen disease.

INTRODUCTION

Agricultural fields serve as habitats for diverse communities of microorganisms, including bacteria. Although the surface of a leaf may seem innocuous, bacteria that colonize the phyllosphere must adapt to hostile conditions including nutrient scarcity, extreme fluctuations in moisture availability, UV irradiation, and the host immune response (1, 2). To increase survival, some bacteria abandon the leaf surface and enter the apoplast where they may evade such stresses, so long as they can evade or suppress the plant immune response. Phytobacterial pathogens overpower host defenses and destructively alter the leaf environment, creating an aqueous niche that supports bacterial replication (3–8). For example, *Xanthomonas hortorum* pv. vitians (hereafter, *X. vitians*) causes bacterial leaf spot of lettuce, which is characterized by symptom development of dark, water-soaked leaf lesions (9, 10). Phytobacterial disease causes yield loss (11), which devastates agricultural industries worldwide and is already a major cause for concern on its own. However, growing evidence supports that phytobacterial disease may be a risk factor for another issue: food-borne illness.

Salmonella enterica is an environmental microbe that effectively colonizes both mammalian and environmental hosts (12), relying on its ability to adapt and survive in diverse niches (13). Irrigation water, soils, and plant surfaces are all examples of places where *S. enterica* can persist for long periods of time (14–16). *S. enterica* is one of several enteric pathogens recognized as colonizers of plants (17), and salmonellosis outbreaks have been linked to consumption of raw produce (18). Given the prevalence of phytobacterial disease on agricultural crops, *S. enterica* is likely to interact with pathogenic phytobacteria when *S. enterica* is present in a field. Considering the public health threat posed by *S. enterica* colonization of

crop plants, studying biotic and abiotic factors that influence its ability to survive in the

environment is a critical area of research.

Phytobacterial disease promotes the survival of *S. enterica* on plants (7, 19–25). A

recently published study from our lab showed that tomato leaves infected by *X. hortorum* pv.

gardneri enabled *S. enterica* cells that arrive on the leaf surface to become internalized within the

leaf apoplast and replicate (24). After completing this work, we questioned whether *S. enterica*

would benefit from any bacterial leaf spot disease. Lettuce has been implicated in food-borne

illness outbreaks caused by *S. enterica*, and lettuce is susceptible to the bacterial spot disease

pathogen, *X. vitians* (26–28). Because lettuce is commonly eaten raw, without food safety

intervention strategies, we determined that studying the romaine lettuce-*X. vitians* pathosystem

would be key to expanding our knowledge of factors that influence *S. enterica* population size on

plants.

The goal of our study was to examine how *X. vitians* disease and environmental factors

may impact the fate of *S. enterica* on lettuce plants. We asked how the combination of disease

and high humidity would impact *S. enterica* growth and colonization of the apoplast.

Additionally, we investigated how *S. enterica's* success on *X. vitians*-infected lettuce could be

influenced by how early or late during infection that *S. enterica* arrives, effectively using *S.*

enterica as a biological reporter for host changes during phytobacterial infection and disease

progress. Lastly, we measured how *S. enterica* growth in a sucrose-rich environment is affected

by *X. vitians in vitro* to determine a mechanism by which *S. enterica* replicates in the presence of

X. vitians infection.

METHODS

Bacterial strains, media, and culture conditions

Bacterial strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. *Xanthomonas vitians* cultures were

prepared by inoculating 3 mL of nutrient broth with frozen cells and incubating at 28°C with

shaking at 200 rpm for 2 days. *Salmonella enterica* cultures were prepared in a similar manner

but incubated in lysogeny broth (LB) overnight. Cultures were then diluted in sterile water and

prepared to the desired cell concentration. Nutrient agar (NA) was used for enumeration of *X.*

vitians, and LB agar amended with 20 μg/mL of nalidixic acid was used for enumerating *S.*

enterica. Agar plates were incubated for ~48 hrs at 28°C or 16-24 hr at 37°C for *X. vitians* and *S.*

enterica, respectively.

A fluorescently labeled *X. vitians* strain was produced for this study by transforming a

wild-type *X. vitians* L7 strain with high-copy plasmid pNO-mCherry (gifted from Z. Gitai lab;

modified version of plasmid described in (29)) derived from pTH18Cr (30), which carries a

chloramphenicol resistance cassette and constitutively expresses mCherry via $P_{LtetO-1}$ (31)

promoter with *tet* repressor removed. Plasmid DNA was isolated from *Escherichia coli* using a

Spin MiniPrep kit (Qiagen) and transferred to *X. vitians* via electroporation.

Bacterial inoculation of lettuce

Lactuca sativa (romaine lettuce) seedlings were cultivated in growth chambers with a 16-h

photoperiod at 24°C. Lettuce plants (4-5 weeks old) were infiltrated with *Xanthomonas vitians*

inoculum prepared to an $OD_{600} = 0.2$ (~3 x 10^8 CFU/mL) or sterile deionized H_2O as a control.

Xanthomonas infiltration was performed via needleless syringe as described previously (32) and

adapted for lettuce leaves. "Middle leaves" (the 3rd or 4th oldest true leaves) were selected for

infiltration, which were fully open and relatively flat. The approximate volume infiltrated into

each infiltration zone was 15 μL, which produced infiltration zones 1-1.5 cm long.

Infiltrated lettuce plants were maintained in large plastic bins at a moderate relative

humidity (RH) of 50-70%. Lettuce plants were subsequently inoculated with *Salmonella enterica*

cell suspensions at the given time post-infiltration with H$_2$O or *X. vitians* cells. *S. enterica* was

diluted in sterile deionized water to a cell concentration ~10^6 CFU/mL. *S. enterica* cell

suspension droplets (3 uL; ~3000 CFU/droplet) were pipetted onto the adaxial surface of each

infiltration zone at the edge of the infiltration zone closest to the leaf margin, avoiding overlap

between the droplet site and any damage caused by syringe infiltration. Leaves were then

destructively sampled at given timepoints post-*S. enterica* arrival. When experiments required

sampling beyond 1-day post-*S. enterica* arrival, lids were placed on the bins at 24 hours post-*S.*

enterica arrival to raise the RH to >90%. When noted, lids were left off or removed following

high RH exposure to achieve the lower RH level of 55-70%.

Bacterial population sampling

Lettuce leaves were cut from the plant and when applicable, UV irradiation was utilized to

inactivate *S. enterica* cells colonizing the leaf surface and thus measure *S. enterica* colonizing the

apoplast (32). Leaf tissue was irradiated with UV-C (254 nm) by placing samples adaxial side

facing up inside a Stratalinker UV Crosslinker 1800 and dosing the tissue at an exposure level of

150,000 μJ/cm^2. For the experiment described in **Figure 1,** for each plant, one of two inoculated

middle leaves was randomly selected for UV irradiation and the other leaf left non-irradiated as a

control. For all other *in planta* experiments involving UV irradiation treatment, middle leaves

that had been inoculated with *S. enterica* cells on both sides of the midrib were split in half after

sampling—one half of the leaf was randomly selected for UV irradiation and the half left non-

irradiated. Similar to what was demonstrated previously with *S. enterica*-inoculated tomato

leaves (32), UV irradiation treatment significantly reduced the populations of *S. enterica* applied

to the lettuce leaf surface while leaving apoplastic *S. enterica* cell populations intact (data not

shown).

When noted, measurement of surface *S. enterica* populations was determined by

removing cells from sampled leaves using swabs dipped in Tween-20 as previously described

(32). For all sampled leaves, bacterial colonization of leaf tissue was measured by excising 1-cm-

diameter leaf disks from infiltration zones using a tissue corer and homogenizing the tissue in

500 uL of sterile water using a Dremel tool (33). Leaf homogenate was dilution-plated to

enumerate *S. enterica* and *X. vitians* populations. The limit of detection (LOD) for *S. enterica*

colonization was 5 CFU/leaf disk (or 10 CFU/sample for the summation of swab and leaf tissue

S. enterica populations). The remaining leaf homogenate was enriched with LB containing

nalidixic acid (20 μg/mL) to determine if *S. enterica* populations below the LOD were present in

samples for which direct plating did not result in the growth of *S. enterica*. For non-detects, LB-

enriched samples were plated ~24 hours after enrichment. *S. enterica* colonization datapoints

plotted at zero were confirmed to be zero based on the absence of *S. enterica* in the LB-enriched

sample. Data plotted halfway between zero and the limit of detection indicates absence of

colonies via direct plating and a positive enrichment sample.

Digital photography

To capture time course images of *X. vitians*-infected leaves, infiltrated leaves of lettuce plants

were photographed daily using a Canon PowerShot ELPH 190 IS digital camera. Plants were

placed inside a light box with white backdrop for photographing to achieve consistent light

conditions. Plants were maintained in bins under moderate RH (~50-70%). Images were cropped

with no other corrections applied.

Electrolyte leakage measurements

When electrolyte leakage was measured, lettuce plants were prepared by infiltrating two adjacent

middle leaves. The relatively older leaf was infiltrated four times, with two infiltration zones

placed on each side of the leaf margin. One infiltration zone was randomly selected for bacterial

population enumeration, and the remaining three infiltration zones were used for electrolyte

leakage measurements. Electrolyte leakage was measured as performed previously (34, 35). In

brief, for each biological replicate, three 1 cm diameter tissue disks were excised from a single

leaf and pooled. Leaf tissue was placed in 12-well plates with wells containing 4 mL of water

each. An EcTestr 11 (Eutech Instruments) conductivity tester was used to measure the leakage of

electrolytes from the tissue into the water after 6 hours of incubation. Conductivity was reported

by subtracting blank measurements taken immediately following a 45-minute wash step (time =

0 hours) from measurements taken at 6 hours.

Confocal laser scanning microscopy

Lettuce plants were infiltrated with sterile deionized H_2O or *X. vitians* L7 + pNO-mCherry cells

prepared to an OD_{600} = 0.2 and incubated in plastic bins under moderate RH (50-70%) as

described above. Droplets of *S. enterica* + pKT-Kan (GFP-labelled) cell suspensions containing

~10^5 CFU were applied to the surfaces of infiltrated zones at 4-days post-infiltration with H_2O

and 1- or 4-days post-infiltration with *X. vitians*. Inoculated plants were then incubated for 2

days, with high humidity (RH >90%) applied for the final 24 hours prior to sampling. Whole

leaves were excised from the plants and kept in petri plates containing a moist Kim-wipe prior to

imaging. Slides were prepared immediately before imaging by excising 0.5 cm diameter tissue

disks at the site of *S. enterica* application and wet mounting them between two glass cover slips.

Confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) images were obtained using a Zeiss Elyra

LSM780 inverted confocal microscope and 40x water immersion 1.10 C-Apochromat objective.

The 488 and 561 nm lines of an argon laser were used for excitation of GFP, mCherry, and

chlorophyll A autofluorescence, which were detected at 500-550 nm (GFP), 552-624 (mCherry),

and 630-700 nm (chlorophyll A) using the Zen (Zeiss) software. GFP and chlorophyll A

autofluorescence were detected using Track 1, and mCherry detected using Track 2, with track

switching set to every line. Master gain for GFP, mCherry, and chlorophyll A was set to 700,

750, and 850, respectively. A transmitted light detector (with master gain set to 450) was used

for capturing differential interference contrast (DIC) images, which are shown overlaid with

confocal fluorescence imaging data. For each treatment, leaf samples from 2-3 plants were

imaged and 9-15 image fields were captured at both the surface level and within the apoplast at a

z-depth of 4.6-14.5 μm (mean = 8.7 μm) relative to the surface. Observations of the

presence/absence of GFP-labelled *S. enterica* cells within the apoplast were recorded for every

field.

For representative images shown, image processing via ImageJ was applied consistently

across images, as performed previously (32). For DIC images, brightness and contrast were

linearly adjusted using the "reset" button within the "Brightness/Contrast" tool. To improve

visibility of *S. enterica* and *X. vitians* cells, the "enhance contrast" tool was applied to the GFP

and mCherry channels with level of saturated pixels set to 0.05% and "equalize histogram" box

left unchecked. Chlorophyll A channel data was omitted for representative images.

Sucrose media co-culture assay

M9 minimal media containing sucrose or glucose as the sole carbon source (hereafter, M9

sucrose and M9 glucose) was prepared fresh for every experimental replicate with the following

components diluted in de-ionized water: $MgSO_4$ (2.0 mM), D-glucose or D-sucrose (0.4% w/v),

$CaCl_2$ (0.10 mM), Na_2HPO_4 (47.8 mM), KH_2PO_4 (22.0 mM), NaCl (8.6 mM), and NH_4Cl (18.7

mM).

Stationary phase *X. vitians* cells grown in NB were washed three times in 1X phosphate-

buffered saline (PBS) and normalized to an OD = 0.2. 1.5 mL of the normalized culture was

inoculated into 19.5 mL of M9 sucrose and incubated in 250 mL flasks at 28°C with shaking.

Separate *X. vitians* culture flasks were incubated for either 24 or 48 hours in advance of *X.*

vitians culture or cell-free supernatant (CFS) being introduced to *S. enterica.* CFS was prepared

by successively filtering *X. vitians* culture through 0.8 μm and 0.2 μm filters. Sterility of CFS

was confirmed via nutrient broth enrichment.

S. enterica cells grown overnight in LB were prepared by washing stationary phase cells

three times in 1X PBS, normalizing to an OD = 0.1, and diluting 1000-fold in sterile water.

Diluted *S. enterica* cells or sterile water (100 μL) was then combined with 1.4 mL of *X. vitians*

cell cultures or CFS per well of a 12-well plate. *S. enterica* and *X. vitians* cell concentrations

were measured for triplicate wells immediately after 12-well plates were prepared at time = 0

hours and following 28 hours of incubation at 28°C.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses and plot generation were performed using R Studio version 2023.03.1 (R

Development Core Team, R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria

[http://www.R-project.org]). Data from three statistically similar and independent replicate

experiments were aggregated, unless otherwise noted in the figure legend. The number of

biological replicates for each replicate experiment was 6-8 lettuce leaves. For our *in vitro*

experiment, the number of experimental (biological) replicates was 4, with each biological

replicate calculated from the mean of three technical replicates. Bacterial population data were

plotted following a $\log_{10}(x+1)$ transformation.

Several statistical tests were used to identify differences between treatment groups.

Welch's analysis of variance (ANOVA) and post-hoc Games-Howell tests were used for

comparing *in planta* bacterial populations among treatment groups. Compact letter displays were

added above the boxplots to communicate statistical similarities and differences among treatment

groups. Shared letters indicate statistically similar groups, whereas an absence of shared letters

indicates statistically different groups. When comparing bacterial populations between

timepoints, a Welch two-sample T-test was used, and statistical differences displayed above

boxplots using an asterisk symbol (*). When *S. enterica in planta* populations were compared to

the amount of *S. enterica* applied in the inoculum, a Wilcoxon one-sample test was used, and

statistical differences indicated using a dagger symbol (†). Lastly, Fisher's exact test was used

for comparing proportions of *in planta* samples with *S. enterica* colonization that exceeds the

inoculum. The significance threshold for all statistical comparisons was a *P* value of <0.05.

RESULTS

***X. vitians*-infected lettuce enables *S. enterica* growth and colonization of UV-**

protected niches, whereas healthy lettuce does not support *S. enterica* growth or UV

protection. To determine whether bacterial spot of lettuce, which is caused by *X. vitians*, can

facilitate *S. enterica* growth and colonization of UV-protected niches, lettuce plants were

infiltrated with H_2O or *X. vitians* cells and treated with *S. enterica* cells at 4-days post-infiltration

(**Figure 1A**). Hence, *S. enterica* was applied to lettuce plants with either a healthy,

macroscopically dry apoplast (for which most of the infiltrated water had since dissipated) or

symptomatic plants with a *X. vitians*-infected, water-soaked apoplast at time of *S. enterica*

arrival. For plants sampled as late as 3 days post-*S. enterica* arrival (dpa), high humidity (RH

>90%) conditions were applied for 48 hours prior to sampling. Similarly to our previous study

which utilized a tomato-*X. hortorum* pv. gardneri pathosystem (32), *S. enterica* cells were

applied to the surface of non-wounded leaves, and UV irradiation was applied to leaves post-

sampling to measure *S. enterica* colonization of the UV-protected apoplast. After leaves were

destructively sampled at 1 or 3 dpa and half the leaves were UV-irradiated, cotton swabs dipped

in 0.1% Tween-20 were used to measure *S. enterica* cells removable from the lettuce surface.

Next, leaf tissue was homogenized to quantify *S. enterica* cells that were strongly attached to the

leaf tissue or inside the apoplast. Viable *S. enterica* cells within the leaf tissue would not have

been removed by surface swab or inactivated by UV irradiation.

We found that at 1 dpa, the number of *S. enterica* cells attached to lettuce tissue was

higher for *X. vitians*-infected lettuce than healthy lettuce, as demonstrated by the higher *S.*

enterica populations measured on non-irradiated leaves following swab treatment

(**Supplementary Figure 1B**). However, the amount of *S. enterica* cells recovered via surface

swab was not influenced by *X. vitians* disease at 1 dpa (**Supplementary Figure 1A**). At 3 dpa,

the population of *S. enterica* cells that were removable from the surface and those that were

tightly associated with the lettuce tissue were significantly higher on *X. vitians*-infected leaves

compared to healthy leaves (**Supplementary Figures 1A and 1B**). However, it's worth noting

that at this later sampling timepoint, which was a total of 7 days post-*X. vitians* infiltration, *X.*

vitians-infected leaves were more vulnerable to damage by swab application. Swab samples

taken from *X. vitians*-infected leaves at late infection may have contained *S. enterica* cells that

had been inside the infected leaves but were removed in the process of sampling the leaf surface

by swab. We additionally found that UV irradiation significantly reduced the amount of *S.*

enterica cells recoverable by swab for both healthy and *X. vitians*-infected leaves at both

sampling timepoints (**Supplementary Figure 1A**), supporting the effectiveness of UV in

inactivating *S. enterica* cells on the lettuce leaf surface.

X. vitians infection resulted in greater leaf tissue-associated *S. enterica* populations at

both 1 and 3 dpa (**Supplementary Figure 1B**) compared to healthy leaves, indicating *S. enterica*

benefits from *X. vitians* infection**.** To answer the question of whether *X. vitians* infection could

promote *S. enterica* growth on lettuce, the number of *S. enterica* cells recovered from the swab

and tissue for each leaf was summed to produce the total *S. enterica* colonization of the leaf

sample. Through comparing *S. enterica* populations within each treatment group between both

sampling timepoints, we found that total *S. enterica* populations only increased between 1 and 3

dpa for *X. vitians*-infected lettuce (**Figure 1B**), whereas healthy (H_2O-infiltrated) lettuce did not

promote *S. enterica* growth. In addition, *S. enterica* populations on *X. vitians*-infected leaves

significantly exceeded the inoculum dose on non-UV irradiated leaves at 3 dpa ($P < 0.05$,

Wilcoxon one-sample test). *S. enterica* populations from both non-irradiated and UV-irradiated

X. vitians-infected leaves increased over time (**Figure 1B**), altogether supporting the conclusion

that a *X. vitians*-infection supports *S. enterica* growth in the apoplast.

***S. enterica* growth on *X. vitians*-infected lettuce relies on high humidity, but high**

humidity is not required for *S. enterica* colonization of the apoplast of *X. vitians*-infected

leaves. After establishing that *X. vitians* infection promotes *S. enterica* growth and colonization

of UV-protected niches, we investigated whether the combination of *X. vitians* infection and high

humidity could additively benefit *S. enterica.* We tested the hypothesis that high humidity

maximizes *S. enterica's* ability to grow on *X. vitians*-infected plants by measuring *S. enterica's*

colonization of healthy and *X. vitians*-infected leaves at 4 days post-arrival. Prior to sampling,

the lettuce plants were exposed to high humidity (RH > 90%) for variable amounts of time: 0,

24, or 72 hours (**Figure 2A**). In the absence of high humidity, plants experienced a moderate RH

level ~50-70%.

We found that exposure to 72 hours of high humidity (Humidity Treatment III) resulted

in greater *S. enterica* populations on *X. vitians*-infected plants compared to *S. enterica*

populations on *X. vitians*-infected plants that did not experience high humidity (Humidity

Treatment I, **Figure 2B**). In addition, a full 72 hours of exposure to high humidity resulted in

greater *S. enterica* populations on *X. vitians*-infected lettuce compared to a fluctuating humidity

treatment in which 24 hours of high humidity was followed by 48 hours of drier conditions

(Humidity Treatment II). Furthermore, 72 hours of exposure to high humidity resulted in *S.*

enterica growth, based on comparison of *in planta S. enterica* populations to the amount of *S.*

enterica cells applied in the inoculum (**Figure 2B**). Meanwhile, 24 hours of exposure to high

humidity did not promote *S. enterica* growth but supported *S. enterica* survival at a population

level similar to the initial inoculum level. For plants that were not exposed to high humidity at all

(Humidity Treatment I), *X. vitians* infection resulted in greater *S. enterica* colonization compared

to healthy leaves (**Figure 2B**), demonstrating that *X. vitians* infection influences *S. enterica*

survival even in the absence of prolonged high humidity conditions. Contrastingly, *S. enterica*

populations on healthy leaves were not influenced by high humidity, and *S. enterica* populations

for all healthy plants regardless of humidity treatment were below the inoculum level at 4 days

post-*S. enterica* arrival (**Figure 2B**). Additionally, fluctuating humidity (Humidity Treatment II)

resulted in a reduction in *X. vitians* populations compared to constant moderate humidity

conditions (**Supplementary Figure 2**). *X. vitians* and *S. enterica* populations were not found to

be correlated ($P > 0.05$, Pearson correlation), demonstrating that *S. enterica's* response to

increasing exposure to high humidity on *X. vitians*-infected leaves is attributed directly to

humidity and not *X. vitians* population density. In fact, high humidity introduced during early

infection at 3 dpi could stunt *X. vitians* disease progress, based on measurements of *X. vitians*

populations and host electrolyte leakage (data not shown).

Having previously shown that water-congestion within the apoplast of tomato leaves is

sufficient for *S. enterica* ingress into *Xanthomonas*-infected leaves (32), we hypothesized that

water in the air, in the form of humidity, could influence *S. enterica* colonization of UV-

protected niches of lettuce. To test this hypothesis, we applied *S. enterica* to lettuce plants

infected with *X. vitians,* measured *S. enterica* colonization of leaf samples irradiated with UV

after sampling, and compared *S. enterica in planta* populations to that of leaf halves that were

not treated with UV. Half of the lettuce plants were subjected to 24 hours of high humidity (RH

> 90%) prior to sampling, whereas the other half were maintained at a lower humidity level for

the duration of the experiment (RH ~55-70%, **Figure 3A**).

High humidity (Humidity Treatment ii) resulted in higher *S. enterica* populations at 2

days post-*S. enterica* arrival (**Figure 3B**). Meanwhile, *S. enterica* populations on plants that were

not exposed to high humidity (Humidity Treatment i) were below the inoculum level at time of

sampling. *S. enterica* populations of UV-irradiated leaves specifically were higher on plants

exposed to high humidity (**Figure 3B**). *S. enterica* populations for UV-treated lettuce samples

were not statistically different than populations on non-irradiated samples, regardless of whether

X. vitians-infected lettuce plants were exposed to high humidity (**Figure 3B**). Additionally, the

introduction of high humidity at 5 dpi was found to have no effect on *X. vitians* populations and

host electrolyte leakage in this experiment (data not shown). These results demonstrate that high

humidity prevents *S. enterica* population decline, as evident by *S. enterica* colonization dropping

below the inoculum level only for plants that were not exposed to high humidity. High humidity

exposure also supported higher levels of *S. enterica* colonization of UV-protected niches within

X. vitians-infected leaves. However, high humidity was not found to be required for UV

protection on *X. vitians*-infected leaves, given that *S. enterica* populations on plants that were not

exposed to high humidity were not reduced by UV irradiation.

The state of disease progress at *S. enterica* arrival influences *S. enterica* ingress and

survival within *X. vitians*-infected lettuce. We observed that *X. vitians* infection alters the host

over time, with visible watersoaking onset occurring at 2 dpi (**Supplementary Figure 3**). During

late infection (approximately 5 dpi), *X. vitians*-infected tissue began to appear drier, signaling the

onset of tissue necrosis (**Supplementary Figure 3**). These observations prompted the question

of whether an ideal window during *X. vitians* infection exists that optimizes *S. enterica* growth

and apoplast colonization. To test the hypothesis that *X. vitians* infection progress influences the

fate of *S. enterica*, *S. enterica* cells were applied to lettuce plants at various states of *X. vitians*

infection. Specifically, *S. enterica* was applied to lettuce plants at 1-5 days post-infiltration (dpi)

of *X. vitians* (**Figure 4A**). In addition, *S. enterica* was applied to healthy plants that had been

infiltrated with H_2O 4 days prior to arrival as a control—these healthy leaves had an apparently

dry apoplast at time of *S. enterica* arrival. *S. enterica* colonization was measured on UV-

irradiated and non-irradiated lettuce samples at 2 days post-*S. enterica* arrival to determine how

X. vitians infection progress impacts *S. enterica* survival and *S. enterica's* ability to colonize

UV-protected niches.

S. enterica colonization of non-irradiated lettuce samples revealed that arrival of *S.*

enterica at 1 dpi (Treatment X1) resulted in lower *S. enterica* populations than those on healthy

(Treatment H) lettuce leaves (**Figure 4B**). For Treatments H and X1, *S. enterica* populations

recovered from both non-irradiated and UV-irradiated leaves were significantly lower than the *S.*

enterica inoculum level (**Figure 4B**). However, when *S. enterica* arrived between 2-4 dpi

(Treatments X2-X4), *S. enterica* populations persisted at levels similar to the inoculum level,

demonstrating that arrival of *S. enterica* on water soaked, *X. vitians*-infected leaves can prevent

S. enterica population decline. Additionally, we observed that when comparing *S. enterica*

populations on adjacent lettuce leaves, the relatively older leaves had significantly lower *S.*

enterica populations ($P < 0.001$, Welch T-test).

The infection state of the lettuce apoplast impacted *S. enterica*'s ability to colonize the

apoplast. When *S. enterica* was applied to healthy H_2O-infiltrated leaves (Treatment H) or *X.*

vitians-infected leaves prior to the onset of water soaking (Treatment X1), the absence of an

aqueous apoplast in both treatments corresponded with the lowest *S. enterica* colonization of

UV-protected niches at 2 days post-*S. enterica* arrival (**Figure 4b**). Contrastingly, *S. enterica*

colonization of UV-protected niches was maximized following arrival on *X.* vitians-infected

lettuce between 2-4 dpi, at which point water soaking, evident by enhanced translucency of the

infiltrated area (**Supplementary Figure 3**), has occurred.

388   Confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) was utilized to visualize *S. enterica*

localization *in planta*. GFP-labelled *S. enterica* cells were applied at a relatively high level (~3 x

10^5 CFU/droplet) to the surface of leaves infiltrated with H_2O 4 days prior to arrival or *X. vitians*

cells 1 or 4 days prior to arrival (analogous to **Figure 4A** Treatments H, X1, and X4,

respectively). Leaves were then imaged at 2 days post-*S. enterica* arrival to determine whether *S.*

enterica had successfully colonized the apoplast for any of these three treatments. For H_2O-

infiltrated leaves, *S. enterica* colonization of the apoplast was not detected (e.g. **Figure 5,** panel

D and J), although *S. enterica* cells were found to be localized within stomatal openings at the

surface in 56% ($N = 9$) of fields imaged (e.g. **Figure 5,** panel A). By contrast, *S. enterica*

colonization within substomatal areas of the apoplast was observed for *X. vitians*-infected leaves.

Congruous to *in planta S. enterica* colonization results that showed *S. enterica* colonization of

the UV-protected niches was higher following arrival at 4 dpi compared to 1 dpi (**Figure 4b**),

CLSM revealed greater *S. enterica* colonization of the apoplast during late infection compared to

early infection. *S. enterica* arrival at 4 dpi resulted in relatively frequent colonization of

substomatal spaces within the apoplast, with 73% ($N = 15$) of image fields showing evidence of

S. enterica ingress (e. g. **Figure 5**, panel F and L). In comparison, arrival of *S. enterica* on *X.*

vitians-infected leaves as early at 1 dpi resulted in rare apoplast colonization (15% of fields

imaged; $N = 13$), despite 100% of fields showing *S. enterica* interactions with surface stomatal

openings. **Figure 5,** panel B representatively illustrates this, with three stomatal openings clearly

containing *S. enterica* cells at the surface, but only one of those three stomata containing *S. enterica* within its substomatal space (**Figure 5**, panels E and K). Our *S. enterica* population data (**Figure 4B**) and CLSM results support that *S. enterica* arrival to leaves with established *X. vitians* infection results in enhanced colonization of the UV-protected apoplast.

Infection progress coincided with *S. enterica's* ability to grow. We found that *X. vitians* populations and host electrolyte leakage had reached a maximum level during late infection (5-7 dpi, **Supplementary Figures 4A**-**B**). Arrival of *S. enterica* between 2-5 dpi resulted in the highest proportions of lettuce samples for which *S. enterica* colonization exceeded the inoculum, indicating high incidence rates of *S. enterica* replication (**Table 2**). For Treatment X4 in particular, arrival of *S. enterica* at 4 dpi resulted in 72% of non-irradiated samples and 61% of UV-irradiated samples being colonized with higher *S. enterica* populations than the inoculum (**Table 2**). However, *S. enterica* arrival during late infection at 5 dpi resulted in UV-protected *S. enterica* populations that were significantly lower than the inoculum (**Figure 4B**). Altogether, these results provide evidence that there is a window of time during *X. vitians* infection when *S. enterica* persistence and potential to colonize UV-protected niches is optimized—this window opens at water soaking onset and closes during necrosis onset later in disease progression.

***S. enterica* grows in a sucrose-rich environment in the presence of *X. vitians*.** Sucrose is one of the most prevalent carbohydrate sources available in plant tissues (36), yet sucrose is a poor carbon source for *S. enterica* and not utilizable by most *S. enterica* strains (37). Having observed that *S. enterica* successfully replicates *in planta* in the presence of an established *X. vitians* infection (**Figures 1- 2, Table 2**) and that *S. enterica* (shown in green) and *X. vitians* cells (shown in yellow) localize closely to each other *in planta* (**Figure 5**), we hypothesized that *X.*

vitians catabolism of plant compounds directly aids in *S. enterica* replication via 1) cell-

dependent contact or 2) compounds secreted by *X. vitians.* To test this hypothesis, we developed

an *in vitro* experiment in which *S. enterica* cells were introduced to turbid *X. vitians* cultures that

had grown in M9 minimal media containing only sucrose as a carbon source (M9 sucrose) for 24

or 48 hours. Cell-free supernatant (CFS) was produced from the *X. vitians* cultures and also

introduced to *S. enterica* to compare the effect of intact *X. vitians* cells versus media containing

secreted compounds. In addition, *S. enterica* cells were added to M9 sucrose or M9 glucose

media alone as negative and positive controls.

We found that *S. enterica* cells incubated in co-culture with *X. vitians* cells or CFS

replicated to population levels that exceeded the initial cell concentrations after 28 hours of

incubation (**Figure 6**). By contrast, *S. enterica* incubation in M9 sucrose in monoculture

(negative control; light blue bar) resulted in no growth after 28 hours. Specifically, introduction

of *S. enterica* to *X. vitians* cells that had been growing in M9 sucrose for 24 hours (yellow bar)

resulted in *S. enterica* cell concentrations that were greater than the negative control and greater

than either CFS treatment (emerald and dark green bars), showing evidence for bacterial cross-

feeding supporting *S. enterica* growth. Meanwhile, introducing *S. enterica* to a 48-hour *X. vitians*

culture (orange bar) resulted in higher variability in *S. enterica* cell concentration than the 24-

hour culture (yellow bar), and resulted in similar *S. enterica* concentrations to both the negative

control and CFS treatments. Notably, the 24-hour *X. vitians* culture exhibited additional *X.*

vitians growth during the 28-hour period (**Supplementary Figure 5**), whereas the 48-hour

culture did not, suggesting that replicating *X. vitians* cells confer the greatest nutritional benefit

to *S. enterica.*

DISCUSSION

In this study, we investigated the relationship between an enteric pathogen and a plant pathogen colonizing a lettuce host and examined how environmental conditions may act on the enteric pathogen's ability to benefit from plant disease. *S. enterica* was found to thrive on lettuce plants affected by bacterial spot disease (**Figures 1B, 2B,** and **4B**). The potential for *S. enterica* to survive and replicate on lettuce plants was linked to *X. vitians* infection progress (**Figure 4B**) and exposure to high humidity **(Figure 2B)**, with our results showing that the combination of water soaking caused by disease and high humidity supported the highest *S. enterica* populations *in planta.* Lastly, by measuring *S. enterica* growth in a sucrose-based minimal media, we identified bacterial cross-feeding as a nutrient source for *S. enterica* in association with *X. vitians* **(Figure 6).**

Water—as a habitat, vehicle for bacteria movement, and vital source of moisture needed for growth—influences *S. enterica's* lifestyle in agricultural environments. Irrigation water is a common reservoir for *S. enterica* (14, 38, 39) and has been previously implicated in enteric pathogen outbreaks associated with raw produce (40, 41). The prevalence of *S. enterica* in bodies of water, including irrigation ponds, has been shown to correlate with rainfall (42–44) and summer climates (42), demonstrating how precipitation and seasonality influence *S. enterica* abundance. *S. enterica's* presence in irrigation water offers the potential for *S. enterica* to migrate to leaves and fruit. Sprinkler and microsprinkler irrigation are commonly used for agricultural fields in the United States (45, 46), including California and Arizona where most leafy greens are cultivated (47). However, this form of irrigation has inherent risk. Splash dispersal has been implicated as a vehicle for microbial dispersal on plant foliage (48, 49).

Regarding food safety, previous work has supported subsurface irrigation as a safer method for

preventing colonization of plants with enteric pathogens (50, 51). Our previous study, which

modelled a contamination route via splash dispersal, found that *S. enterica* applied to tomato

leaves via surface droplet could become internalized into the leaf apoplast (24). A wet apoplast,

either abiotically water-logged or water-soaked from phytobacterial disease, could enable the

physical absorption of surface water and passive ingress of *S. enterica* in a non-flagellar motility-

dependent manner (24).

This study builds on our previous work using the splash dispersal model by introducing

lettuce as a novel host that supports *S. enterica* growth in the presence of *Xanthomonas* and

establishing how humidity can affect the fate of *S. enterica* in concert with disease. Humidity is

recognized as a driver of plant-bacterial interactions (52). High humidity has been shown to

correlate with increases in phytobacterial disease (3, 53), including bacterial spot caused by *X.*

vitians (54). In addition, enteric pathogen populations such as *S. enterica* have been shown to

exhibit slower population decline on healthy plants exposed to high humidity (55–58). To

determine how humidity impacts *S. enterica's* ability to benefit from *X. vitians* disease, we tested

the impact of a 24-hour and 72-hour exposure to >95% RH conditions (**Figure 2A**). Our data

showed that *S. enterica* populations were higher on *X. vitians*-infected plants exposed to high

humidity, yet unaffected by humidity on healthy plants **(Figure 2B).** Short-term exposure to

>95% RH prevented *S. enterica* population decline on *X. vitians*-infected lettuce, but multi-day

exposure to >95% RH (Treatment III) enabled *S. enterica* replication on *X.* vitians-infected

lettuce (**Figure 2B**). *S. enterica* ingress still occurred on *X. vitians*-infected leaves without high

humidity exposure (**Figure 3B**), demonstrating that migration to the apoplast did not explain *S.*

enterica's ability to replicate under high humidity conditions. Meanwhile, *X. vitians* replicated

successfully *in planta* at 50-70% RH (data not shown), suggesting infection liberates apoplast

nutrients even under moderate humidity conditions. Therefore, these results support the idea that

extended high humidity shifts the nutrient composition of a *X. vitians*-infected apoplast in favor

of nutrients *S. enterica* can successfully metabolize. Whether high humidity conditions must be

sustained continuously or if the accumulation of multiple high humidity events is sufficient to

promote *S. enterica* growth on *Xanthomonas*-infected leaves should be determined through

future work.

Stomata serve as critical entry points for bacteria in the phyllosphere (59). *Xanthomonas*

infection has been previously shown to promote ingress of surface bacteria into the apoplast of

tomato leaves via stomata (24). In this study, we observed that *S. enterica* became internalized

within *X. vitians*-infected lettuce leaves, based on evidence of *S. enterica* protection from UV

irradiation (**Figures 1B, 3B. 4B**) and colonization of *S. enterica* within substomatal chambers of

the apoplast (**Figure 5**). At the micro-scale, CLSM revealed that *S. enterica* ingress varied

among stomata. *S. enterica* colonization of stomatal openings, likely influenced by *S. enterica*

chemotaxis (60), did not always result in colonization of the lower substomatal space (**Figure 5**).

Syringe infiltration of *X. vitians* into the apoplast is assumed to create a consistent dispersal of

cells within the infiltration zone (61). However, the mottled appearance of the infection area

suggests that infection onset is not consistent throughout the infection zone (**Supplementary**

Figure 3). Clonal *Pseudomonas syringae* cells have been shown to exhibit heterogeneity in

T3SS expression within the apoplast (62). We speculate that differences in gene expression

among *X. vitians* microcolonies in combination with heterogeneity of plant tissue may

differentially impact *S. enterica's* interactions with stomata.

S. enterica was also influenced by the temporal dynamics of *X. vitians* disease progress.

Our study investigated the fate of *S. enterica* following arrival at various times during *X. vitians*

infection progress and essentially used *S. enterica* as a biological reporter for changes to a *X.*

vitians-infected apoplast. Although *X. vitians* infection was found to be generally beneficial to *S.*

enterica, (**Figures 1-2, 5**), the early infection court was a hostile environment for *S. enterica*

(**Figure 4**). Arrival of *S. enterica* during early infection at 1 dpi led to a reduction in *S. enterica*

populations, sometimes to non-detectable levels two days later (**Figure 4,** Treatment X1). We

hypothesize that *S. enterica's* response in the host experiencing an early *X. vitians* infection is

attributed to the host defense response. Infiltration of bacteria into the apoplast can elicit MAMP

(microbe-associated molecular pattern)-triggered immune (MTI) response (63). Recognition of

phytobacterial invaders may trigger phytohormone signaling and apoplast accumulation of

reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (64, 65), which has been demonstrated to limit *S. enterica*

growth *in planta* (66). *S. enterica* flagellin is a known elicitor of MTI (Garcia and Hirt 2014),

and *S. enterica* may benefit from suppression of MTI by phytobacteria based on its ability to

thrive in the presence of disease (24). However, as demonstrated in our study, the timing of co-

colonization is important. Previously, it was shown that *S. enterica* achieved greater colonization

of tomato foliage when seeds were co-treated with *Xanthomonas euvesicatoria* (formerly known

as *X. campestris* pv. vesicatoria) via inoculated soil (25). However, at the early tomato seedling

stage, *S. enterica* populations were lower in the presence of *X. euvesicatoria*. Additionally,

Potnis et al. (67) demonstrated that *S. enterica* persistence on tomato plants is enhanced by

Xanthomonas perforans infection but diminished by an avirulent *X. perforans* strain that can

neither cause disease, nor suppress MTI. Hence, *S. enterica* responds to both aggravation and

suppression of host defenses by phytobacteria.

Phytobacterial infection likely also supports *S. enterica* survival in the phyllosphere by

providing nutrients for growth. *S. enterica* metabolism is incredibly flexible, enabling it to utilize

many different types of carbon and nitrogen sources in an animal host, even at scant

concentrations (68). However, *S. enterica* growth is disadvantaged on plants. *S. enterica* cannot

liberate nutrients from plant cells on its own because it lacks cell-wall degrading enzymes and

the ability to manipulate the host environment via type-III effectors (69–71). Additionally, as

previously mentioned, *S. enterica* is rarely able to utilize sucrose, one of the most abundant

carbon sources on plants (72, 73). On healthy plants, *S. enterica* can persist in the phyllosphere

for months (16), but exposure to abiotic and biotic stresses, including low nutrient availability,

generally results in *S. enterica* population decline (15, 23, 74). Contrastingly, in the presence of

X. vitians infection, *S. enterica* replicates *in planta* (**Figures 1-2, Table 2**), indicating that

infection increases nutrient availability for *S. enterica*. However, as *X. vitians* infection leads to

tissue necrosis (**Supplementary Figure 3**) and presumably a decrease in available nutrients, *S.*

enterica populations in a *X. vitians*-infected apoplast decline, as evident by *S. enterica*

populations dropping below the original inoculum level following arrival during at 5 dpi (**Figure**

4b, Treatment X5). Late in infection, phytobacterial pathogens migrate away from necrotic

tissue, presumably to locate available nutrients or to disperse to another host. Future studies will

examine the dispersal of *S. enterica* beyond initially infected leaf tissue to determine if the

human and plant pathogens co-migrate as they seek nutrient sources.

Nutrients metabolized by *S. enterica* in the presence of disease are likely host derived.

Xanthomonas replication in the apoplast during infection is driven by leakage of plant cell

constituents (8, 23), which *S. enterica* may be able to easily scavenge in the presence of *X.*

vitians infection. However, we also hypothesize that bacterial cross-feeding (75) between *S.*

enterica and *X. vitians* contributes to *S. enterica's* ability to grow *in planta.* Previously, cross-

feeding has been demonstrated to influence nutritional niches, thus affecting phytobacterial

community composition (76). Our CLSM observation that *S. enterica* cells were observed near

X. vitians cells *in planta* (**Figure 5**) led us to test whether these cells interact directly via nutrient

flow from *X. vitians* to *S. enterica.* The results of our *in vitro* experiment demonstrated that

although sucrose is a poor nutrient source for *S. enterica*, *S. enterica* could grow in sucrose-

based minimal media if replicating *X. vitians* cells were present (**Figure 6**). Cell-free supernatant

(CFS) derived from *X. vitians* cultures did not support *S. enterica* growth as well as cultures

containing *X. vitians* cells. *Xanthomonas* strains are known for producing sticky extracellular

polysaccharides, including xanthan gum (77), which may have contributed to the exclusion of

nutrients during the filtering of *X. vitians* culture supernatant. The identity of the nutrients

utilized by *S. enterica* via cross-feeding are unknown, but could include amino acids,

carbohydrates, or organic acids (72). Future studies may elucidate the carbon sources

metabolized by *S. enterica in planta* in the presence of disease.

Previous work investigating relationships between enteric pathogen persistence,

phytopathogen infection, and environment has generally studied 1-2 of these elements in

isolation. In reality, interplay between enteric pathogens, plant pathogens, and climate factors are

all likely to influence the microbial communities in the phyllosphere. In this study, we found that

S. enterica survival on lettuce is enhanced by bacterial spot disease caused by *X. vitians* and that

S. enterica proliferation was conditional on a variety of factors **(Figure 7).** Overall, it was the

combination of high humidity exposure and the timing of *S. enterica* arrival with respect to

bacterial spot disease progress that maximized *S. enterica* survival and access to nutrients in an

otherwise inhospitable host. As climate patterns continue to evolve, microbial dynamics in the

phyllosphere will evolve too, underlining the importance of studying host-microbial interactions

under various environmental conditions.

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M.H.D and J.D.B. developed the experiments. M.H.D., D.N., and S.C.Z. performed the

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M.H.D. created the original illustrations.

TABLES

TABLE 1. Bacterial strains used in this study.

Strain name and description	Reference or source
Xanthomonas vitians L7	J. Jones
Xanthomonas vitians L7; Cm^R transformed with pNO-mCherry	This study
Escherichia coli; Cm^R; pNO-mCherry	Z. Gitai
Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium 14028s; Nal^R	(79)
Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium 14028s; Kan^R; transformed with pKT-Kan; GFP	(80)

613 ^{R} = resistance to chloramphenicol (Cm), nalidixic acid (Nal), or kanamycin (Kan)

615 **TABLE 2:** Incidence[a] of *S. enterica in planta* growth depending on *X. vitians* infection progress

616 at time of *S. enterica* arrival.

UV Treatment Group[c]	Infiltration Treatment Group[b]					
	H	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5
Non-irradiated	7% A[d]	17% AB	56% BC	56% BC	72% C	50% BC
UV-irradiated	0% a	0% a	33% ab	50% b	61% b	28% ab

[a]Percentage of samples for which *in planta S. enterica* colonization exceeds inoculum.

[b,c]Treatment groups refer directly to experiment described in **Figure 2**.

[d]Letters indicate significance between treatment groups among non-irradiated leaves (uppercase)

and among UV-treated leaves (lowercase) based on Fisher's exact tests ($P < 0.05$).

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: *X. vitians* infection facilitates *S. enterica* replication and colonization of UV-protected

niches *in planta*. **(A)** Schematic of experimental design. Lettuce plants were divided into four

treatment groups. *S. enterica* (*Se*) cells were applied to leaves previously infiltrated with H_2O or

X. vitians (*Xvit*) at 4 dpi, and plants were sampled at 1- or 3-days post-*Se* arrival (dpa). **(B)** *Se*

colonization of H_2O-infiltrated (blue boxplots) and *X. vitians*-infiltrated (orange boxplots) plants.

Darker boxplot colors for 3 dpa data signify exposure to high humidity (>90% RH) prior to

sampling. Data represents sum of *Se* populations measured from surface swab and homogenized

lettuce for each leaf. Leaves were irradiated with UV immediately prior to sampling (unfilled

triangle points) or left non-irradiated (filled circle points). Letters above the boxplots indicate

significance between treatment groups among leaves sampled at 1 dpa (uppercase) and among

leaves sampled at 3 dpa (lowercase) based on Welch-ANOVA and *post hoc* Games-Howell

means comparison tests ($P < 0.05$). Daggers (†) indicate significant increases in *Se* colonization

between 1 dpa and 3 dpa within the same infiltration treatment and UV treatment groups based

on two-sample T-tests ($P < 0.05$). Solid line indicates average *Se* inoculum applied to each

sampled area, and dashed line indicates limit of detection (LOD). Values below LOD are defined

in Materials and Methods. $N = 30$ leaves/treatment group; data is pooled from five independent

experimental replicates.

Figure 2: High humidity (>90% RH) exposure and *X. vitians* infection additively enhance *S.*

enterica colonization of lettuce. **(A)** Schematic of experimental design. Lettuce plants were

divided into six treatment groups. *S. enterica* (*Se*) cells were applied to leaves previously

infiltrated with H$_2$O or *X. vitians* (*Xvit*) at 3 days post-infiltration. Plants were sampled following

0, 24, or 72 hours of exposure to high humidity (>90% RH) at 4 days post-*Se* arrival (Humidity

Treatments I, II, and III, respectively). **(B)** *Se* colonization of H$_2$O-infiltrated (blue boxplots) and

X. vitians-infiltrated (orange boxplots) plants at 2 days post-arrival (dpa) in response to varying

humidity treatments. Letters above the boxplots indicate significance between treatment groups

based on Welch-ANOVA and *post hoc* Games-Howell means comparison tests ($P < 0.05$).

Asterisks indicate that *Se in planta* colonization is significantly less than (*<) or greater than (*>)

inoculum based on one-sample Wilcoxon tests ($P < 0.05$). Solid line indicates average *Se*

inoculum applied to each sampled area, and dashed line indicates limit of detection (LOD). <

LOD values are defined in Materials and Methods. $N = 24$ leaves/treatment group; data is pooled

from three independent experimental replicates.

Figure 3: High humidity (>90% RH) exposure is not required for *S. enterica* to colonize UV-

protected niches of *X. vitians*-infected lettuce. **(A)** Schematic of experimental design. Lettuce

plants were divided into two treatment groups. *S. enterica* (*Se*) cells were applied to leaves

previously infiltrated with *X. vitians* (*Xvit*) at 3 days post-infiltration. Plants were sampled

following 0 or 24 hours of exposure to high humidity (>90% RH) prior to sampling (Humidity

Treatments i and ii, respectively). **(B)** *S. enterica* colonization of *X. vitians*-infiltrated plants at 2

days post-arrival (dpa) in response to varying humidity treatments. Leaf halves were irradiated

with UV immediately prior to sampling (unfilled triangle points) or left non-irradiated (filled

circle points). Letters above the boxplots indicate significance between treatment groups based

on Welch-ANOVA and *post hoc* Games-Howell means comparison tests ($P < 0.05$). Asterisks

(*) indicate that *S. enterica in planta* colonization is significantly less than inoculum based on

one-sample Wilcoxon tests ($P < 0.05$). Solid line indicates average *S. enterica* inoculum applied

to each sampled area, and dashed line indicates limit of detection (LOD). $N = 18$

leaves/treatment group; data is pooled from three independent experimental replicates.

Figure 4: The fate of *S. enterica* on lettuce leaves is influenced by *X. vitians* infection progress

at *S. enterica* arrival. **(A)** Schematic of experimental design. Lettuce plants were divided into six

treatment groups. *S. enterica* (*Se*) cells were applied to leaves previously infiltrated with H_2O or

X. vitians (*Xvit*) at various days post-infiltration (dpi). Plants were sampled following 24 hours of

exposure to high humidity (>90% RH). **(B)** *Se* colonization of H_2O-infiltrated (blue boxplots,

Treatment H) and *X. vitians*-infiltrated (orange boxplots, Treatments X#) plants at 2 days *post-Se*

arrival (dpa). Leaf halves were irradiated with UV immediately prior to sampling (unfilled

triangle points) or left non-irradiated (filled circle points). Letters above the boxplots indicate

significance between treatment groups among non-irradiated leaves (uppercase) and among UV-

treated leaves (lowercase) based on Welch-ANOVA and *post hoc* Games-Howell means

comparison tests ($P < 0.05$). Asterisks (*) indicate that *Se in planta* colonization is significantly

less than inoculum based on one-sample Wilcoxon tests ($P < 0.05$). Solid line indicates average

Se inoculum applied to each sampled area, and dashed line indicates limit of detection (LOD). N

= 15-18 leaves/treatment group; data is pooled from three independent experimental replicates.

Figure 5: *S. enterica* colonizes the apoplast of *X.* vitians-infected lettuce leaves. CLSM images

depict GFP-labelled *S. enterica* colonization of the lettuce surface **(A-C, G-I)** and apoplast (D-F,

J-L) for three sites **(columns A-C)** representative of three treatments and imaged at the given *z*-

depths (µm). *S. enterica* cells were applied to the surface of leaves previously infiltrated with

H$_2$O (column A) or mCherry-labelled *X. vitians* cells **(columns B-C)**. Horizontal labels describe

infiltration treatment and days-post infiltration (dpi) at time of *S. enterica* arrival. **A-F**: merged

channels (GFP, green; mCherry, yellow; DIC, bright-field). **G-L**: GFP channel only for A-F

images, respectively. Stomata (S) and substomatal *S. enterica* cells (sS) are highlighted with

white arrows and white triangles. Scale bar = 20 µm.

Figure 6: *X. vitians* metabolism of sucrose produces nutrients *S. enterica* can utilize for growth.

S. enterica cells were added to fresh M9 sucrose (M9 suc, light blue points) or M9 glucose (M9

glc, dark blue points), mixed with *X. vitians* (*Xvit*) cell cultures grown for 24 (yellow points) or

48 hours (orange points) in M9 sucrose, or mixed with *Xvit* cell-free supernatant (CFS, emerald

green & dark green points) at time (t) = 0 hr. Dotted line represents the initial *S. enterica* cell

concentration at t = 0 hr. Each horizontal colored bar represents the average *S. enterica* cell

concentrations of four independent experiments at t = 28 hr. Letters above the boxplots indicate

significance between treatment groups based on Welch-ANOVA and *post hoc* Games-Howell

means comparison tests ($P < 0.05$). Daggers (†) indicate a significant increase in *S. enterica* cell

concentration compared to t = 0 hr based on two-sample T-tests ($P < 0.05$).

Figure 7: The fate of *Salmonella enterica* in the phyllosphere is influenced by *Xanthomonas*

infection progress and humidity. **(A)** Early *Xanthomonas* infection. *X. vitians* (yellow bacteria)

begin to modify the host environment, but the infection court is not yet habitable for *S. enterica.*

(B) Established *Xanthomonas* infection. *S. enterica* (green bacteria) successfully colonize the

apoplast of *Xanthomonas*-infected leaves via ingress through stomata. **(C)** *Xanthomonas*

infection plus high humidity. High humidity (>90% RH) promotes replication of *S. enterica*

within a *Xanthomonas*-infected apoplast, though is not required for *S. enterica* ingress.

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Figure 1.

Figure 2.

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Figure 7.