3 Osmotic stress response of the coral and oyster pathogen *Vibrio*
4 *coralliilyticus*: acquisition of catabolism gene clusters for the
5 compatible solute and signaling molecule *myo*-inositol

Katherine E. Boas Lichty[1], Rachel M. Loughran[2], Blake Ushijima[3], Gary P.
Richards[4], and E. Fidelma Boyd*[1]

[1]Department of Biological Sciences, University of Delaware, Newark, DE19716

[2]Microbiology Graduate Program, University of Delaware, Newark, DE, USA

[3]Department of Biology and Marine Biology, University of North Carolina
Wilmington, Wilmington, NC, USA

[4]U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Research Service, Dover, Delaware,
USA

Corresponding author*

Prof. E. Fidelma Boyd

Department of Biological Sciences

341 Wolf Hall, University of Delaware
Newark, DE 19716

Phone: (302) 831-1088. Fax: (302) 831-2281 Email: fboyd@udel.edu

Running title: marine bacteria acquire myo-inositol catabolism clusters

Key words: myo-inositol compatible solutes nutrient.

ABSTRACT Marine bacteria experience fluctuations in osmolarity that they must adapt to, and most bacteria respond to high osmolarity by accumulating compatible solutes also known as osmolytes. The osmotic stress response and compatible solutes used by the coral and oyster pathogen *Vibrio coralliilyticus* were unknown. In this study, we showed that to alleviate osmotic stress *V. coralliilyticus* biosynthesized glycine betaine (GB) and transported into the cell choline, GB, ectoine, dimethylglycine, and dimethylsulfoniopropionate, but not *myo*-inositol. *Myo*-inositol is a stress protectant and a signaling molecule that is biosynthesized and used by algae. Bioinformatics identified *myo*-inositol (*iol*) catabolism clusters in *V. coralliilyticus* and other *Vibrio, Photobacterium, Grimontia,* and *Enterovibrio* species. Growth pattern analysis demonstrated that *V. coralliilyticus* utilized *myo*-inositol as a sole carbon source, with a short lag time of 3 h. An *iolG* deletion mutant, which encodes an inositol dehydrogenase, was unable to grow on *myo*-inositol. Within the *iol* clusters were an MFS-type (*iolT1*) and an ABC-type (*iolXYZ*) transporter and analyses showed that both transported *myo*-inositol. IolG and IolA phylogeny among *Vibrionaceae* species showed different evolutionary histories indicating multiple acquisition events. Outside of *Vibrionaceae*, IolG was most closely related to IolG from a small group of *Aeromonas* fish and human pathogens and *Providencia* species. However, IolG from hypervirulent *A. hydrophila* strains clustered with IolG from *Enterobacter*, and divergently from *Pectobacterium, Brenneria,* and *Dickeya* plant pathogens. The *iol* cluster was also present within *Aliiroseovarius, Burkholderia, Endozoicomonas, Halomonas, Labrenzia, Marinomonas, Marinobacterium, Cobetia, Pantoea,* and *Pseudomonas,* of which many species were associated with marine flora and fauna.

IMPORTANCE Host associated bacteria such as *V. coralliilyticus* encounter competition for nutrients and have evolved metabolic strategies to better compete for food. Emerging studies show that *myo*-inositol is exchanged in the coral-algae symbiosis, is likely involved in signaling, but is also an osmolyte in algae. The bacterial consumption

of *myo*-inositol could contribute to a breakdown of the coral-algae symbiosis during

thermal stress or disrupt the coral microbiome. Phylogenetic analyses showed that the

evolutionary history of *myo*-inositol metabolism is complex, acquired multiple times in

Vibrio, but acquired once in many bacterial plant pathogens. Further analysis also

showed that a conserved *iol* cluster is prevalent among many marine species

(commensals, mutualists, and pathogens) associated with marine flora and fauna, algae,

sponges, corals, molluscs, crustaceans, and fish.

INTRODUCTION

Vibrio coralliilyticus is a marine bacterium, a member of the family *Vibrionaceae*, an important pathogen of coral, and along with *V. mediterranei* (previously *V. shilonii*) a source of coral disease worldwide (1-10). This species was first characterized as an etiological agent for coral bleaching and tissue loss of the coral *Pocillopora damicornis*, and has since been identified as a pathogen in numerous other species of coral (2, 3, 6, 11-23). Recent studies also showed that *V. coralliilyticus* and a related species *V. tubiashii* caused high mortalities in oyster larvae of both Pacific oysters (*Crassostrea gigas*) and Eastern oysters (*Crassostrea virginica*) in the United States (15, 24-29).

Vibriosis in corals as well as oyster larvae is linked to increased water temperatures, especially for select strains of the pathogen *V. coralliilyticus* (2, 23, 25). In response to elevated temperatures, *V. coralliilyticus* undergoes various changes to its transcriptome and proteome (11, 13), which includes various genes important for infections of hosts like corals (23). The increased temperatures also correlates with the increased abundance of *V. coralliilyticus* (5), and the structure of natural *Vibrio* populations could be altered within the coral holobiont (30-32). This restructuring is proposed to contribute to disruption of processes like the nutritional exchange within the coral (33) as well as the healthy coral microbiome (34, 35). One consequence of infection is bleaching, the loss of the corals' endosymbiotic dinoflagellates (family *Symbiodiniaceae*), that occurs with select pathogenic strains of *V. coralliilyticus* (2, 17). The photosynthetic dinoflagellate cells participate in a nutrient exchange with the host coral cells, which serves as the main energy source for many reef-building coral species (36-41). This metabolic exchange with photosynthetic dinoflagellates is central to maintaining the health of this mutualistic relationship (42-47).

One metabolite exchanged between dinoflagellates and coral is the carbocyclic sugar *myo*-inositol hypothesized to be transported to coral with a function not yet

established (37, 38, 48). *Myo*-inositol is a six-carbon cyclic polyol and the most abundant

form of inositol in the environment. It is an important component of eukaryotic cell

membranes as phosphatidylinositol (PI) and a signaling molecule (49-51). In

dinoflagellates inositol isomers are biosynthesized as important compatible solutes and

are significantly enriched during thermal stress (38, 48, 52-55). In response to increased

salinity, algae, plants, and marine invertebrates use *myo*-inositol as a compatible solute

for osmotic stress protection (56-58). Additionally, in algae and plants, *myo*-inositol has

been implicated as an important signaling molecule (48, 54, 55, 59).

Studies have shown that soil bacteria and human bacterial pathogens can utilize

inositols as carbon and energy sources (60, 61). The first step in the pathway requires

inositol dehydrogenases (IDHs), which are specific for different isomers of inositol such

as *myo*-, *scyllo*-, and d-*chiro*-inositol. Genetics and enzyme functionality studies for

bacterial *myo*-inositol catabolism genes were first established and investigated in

Bacillus subtilis (62-65) (**Fig. 1**). *Myo*-inositol is degraded by inositol 2-dehydrogenase

(IolG) into 2-keto-*myo*-inositol, which is then converted by *myo*-inosose dehydratase

(IolE) to 3,5/4-Trihydroxycylohexane-1,2-dione. This is subsequently hydrolyzed into 5-

deoxy-D-gluconate by an acylhydrolase (IolD). This product is then isomerized by 5-

deoxy-glucuronate isomerase (IolB) and phosphorylated by 5-dehydro-2-

deoxygluconokinase (IolC). Then 2-deoxy-5-keto-D-gluconate-6-P is converted to

dihydroxyacetone (DHA) and malonate semialdehyde by an aldolase (IolJ). Malonate

semialdehyde is converted to acetyl-CoA by the CoA-acylating methylmalonate-

semialdehyde dehydrogenase (IolA). The product DHA can enter glycolysis and acetyl-

CoA can enter the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle (63-66). The transport of *myo*-inositol

into *B. subtilis* for catabolism is performed by two major facilitator superfamily (MFS)-

type transporters, named IolT and IolF (63). Several Gram-negative bacteria have been

shown to use *myo*-inositol as a metabolite with a similar pathway, species in the genera

Klebsiella, Caulobacter, Rhizobium, Sinorhizobium, Pseudomonas, Yersinia, Corynebacterium,

Salmonella, and *Serratia* (67-76). For example, the human pathogen *Salmonella enterica*

serovar Typhimurium utilized *myo*-inositol as a sole carbon source, but growth on *myo*-

inositol was characterized by a long lag phase of > 45 h and a bistable phenotype (61, 69,

70, 77, 78). This species uses two MFS family transporters, named IolT1 and IolT2 for

myo-inositol uptake (70). In the Alpha-proteobacteria *Caulobacter vibrioides* (formerly

crescentus) catabolism of *myo*-inositol was demonstrated and an ABC-type transporter

was used for uptake (68, 79). *Myo*-inositol utilization has not been explored extensively

among other marine bacteria.

Here, we established osmotic stress response mechanisms using bioinformatics

and genetic analyses among *V. coralliilyticus* strains CN52H-1 (16), OCN014 (23), BAA-

450 (19), and RE87 (80, 81) encompassing strains isolated from healthy and diseased

hosts. We examined *V. coralliilyticus* growth patterns at different temperatures and

salinities to determine their salinity tolerance. Bioinformatics and physiological

approaches were employed to determine the compatible solutes used by of *V.*

coralliilyticus for osmotic protection. Our investigations led to the identification of a

large genomic region containing genes for *myo*-inositol catabolism, a molecule used in

many eukaryotic cellular functions including stress protection and signaling. Using

comparative genomics and phylogenetic analyses, the evolutionary history of *myo*-

inositol catabolism genes among the *Vibrionaceae* was established. The distribution of *iol*

clusters among marine bacteria was also examined.

RESULTS

***Vibrio coralliilyticus* salinity and temperature range.** To determine the ability of *V.*

coralliilyticus to grow in a range of NaCl concentrations and at different temperatures,

growth patterns were examined in M9 minimal media supplemented with 20 mM

glucose (M9G) and a final concentration of 1% to 6% NaCl at 28°C and 37°C for 24 h.

M9 minimal media was used for growth assays because it does not contain compatible

solutes or their precursors and this allowed us to examine the response of *V.*

coralliilyticus to increased salinity without the protection of external compatible solutes.

These analyses showed that the *V. coralliilyticus* strains grew best in M9G 2% NaCl at

28°C (**Fig. 2**). For example, at this temperature, for strain CN52H-1, the final OD_{595}

reading was 0.81 in 2% NaCl whereas in 1% NaCl, the final OD reached was 0.49. When

the salinity was increased to 3% NaCl the maximum growth rate ($0.62\ h^{-1}$) was lower

than what was observed at 2% NaCl ($0.70\ h^{-1}$). Growth of *V. coralliilyticus* in 4% NaCl

showed a 2 h lag time and a lower maximum growth rate ($0.33\ h^{-1}$) whereas no growth

occurred in 5% and 6% NaCl (**Fig. 2A**). Next, we tested whether increased temperature

affected the salinity growth range by examining growth at 37°C (**Fig. 2B**). Interestingly,

incubation at 37°C impacted the ability to grow in low salinity; at this temperature there

was no growth in 1% NaCl (**Fig. 2B**). Growth pattern analysis was also performed on *V.*

coralliilyticus OCN014 (**Fig. 2C-D**), BAA-450 (**Fig. 2E-F**), and RE87 (**Fig. 2G-H**),

pathogenic strains of corals and oyster larvae in 1% to 6% NaCl at 28°C and 37°C for 24

h. We also examined the salinity growth range at 21°C and 34°C for strain CN52H-1

(**Fig. S1A-B**). Two observations were made from these analyses; first incubation at 21°C

negatively affected growth in 4% NaCl resulting in a longer lag phase than at any other

temperature (**Fig. S1B**). Secondly, growth at 34°C was similar to 28°C, but with a longer

lag phase in M9G 4% NaCl (**Fig. S1A**). These analyses demonstrated that *V.*

coralliilyticus was unable to grow in M9G media with a salinity at or above 5% NaCl and

at 37°C strains were unable to grow in 1% NaCl (**Fig. 2**). Overall, all strains showed

similar osmotic stress tolerance responses.

***V. coralliilyticus* biosynthesizes glycine betaine (GB) and uptakes numerous**

compatible solutes for osmotic protection. Bioinformatics analysis of *V. coralliilyticus*

genomes identified the *betIBA* cluster encoding homologs of enzymes required for the

biosynthesis of GB from choline and six putative compatible solute transporters in all 35

strains present in the NCBI genome database (as of March 2024). To confirm

biosynthesis of GB from choline, ^{1}H-nuclear magnetic resonance analysis (^{1}H-NMR) was

performed with *V. coralliilyticus* cells grown in M9G 4% NaCl with 1 mM choline and

from cells grown in the absence of choline. ^{1}H-NMR spectral analysis of ethanol extracts

did not show any peaks in the absence of choline, but GB peaks were present in

CN52H-1 cells (**Fig. 3A-B**) grown in M9G 4% NaCl supplemented with choline and in

strains OCN014 (**Fig. S2**) and BAA-450 (data not shown). To determine the compatible

solutes that are transported into the cell for osmotic stress protection, the growth of *V.*

coralliilyticus strain CN52H-1 was examined in M9G 5% NaCl supplemented with one of

ten different compatible solutes (**Fig. 3C, Fig. S3**). In the absence of compatible solutes

in the media, *V. coralliilyticus* does not grow in M9G 5% NaCl as demonstrated (**Fig. 2,**

Fig. S3). The growth pattern of *V. coralliilyticus* cells grown in each compatible solute

was monitored for 24 h at 28°C and area under the curve (AUC) was calculated (**Fig.**

3C). Seven of the ten compatible solutes tested allowed growth in M9G 5% NaCl,

suggesting they were taken up and used for osmotic stress protection (**Fig. 3C**). The

presence of trimethylamine-N-oxide, *myo*-inositol (MI), or glycerol did not allow

growth in M9G 5% NaCl (**Fig. S3**). GB, dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP), ectoine,

choline, or dimethylglycine (DMG) rescued growth to the greatest extent reaching a

final OD$_{595}$ ranging from 0.45 to 0.69 (**Fig. S3**). The compatible solutes γ-amino-butyric

acid (GABA) and creatine had longer lag phase times with lower final OD$_{595}$ of 0.23 and

0.31, respectively indicating that they were less effective as osmolytes (**Fig. S3**).

Myo-inositol catabolism clusters are present in all strains of _V. coralliilyticus_ and _V._

mediterranei. Bioinformatics analysis identified putative *myo*-inositol catabolic gene

clusters that were present in all but one of the 35 *V. coralliilyticus* and 18 *V. mediterranei*,

a species also linked to coral disease, annotated genomes in the NCBI genome database

(as of March 2024). However, *V. coralliilyticus* SCSIO 43001 (82) was the sole exception,

the average nucleotide identify (ANI) of this strain with BAA-450 is only 87.85 which

suggests a misclassification of this strain. Therefore, strain SCSIO 43001 was not

included in this study. In *V. coralliilyticus* two distinct gene clusters for the regulation,

transport, and catabolism of *myo*-inositol were present (**Fig. 4A**), which we named

region 1 and 2. Gene annotation and naming were established based upon amino acid

similarity to the *myo*-inositol genes present in *Salmonella enterica*. No synteny was found

between *myo*-inositol gene clusters in *V. coralliilyticus* and *S. enterica* or *C. vibrioides* (**Fig.**

S4). Functionally similar genes were present in both region 1 and 2, but shared low

sequence similarity (27% to 50%) and lacked gene synteny between each other.

Region 1 contained fifteen genes, which included a predicted operon composed

of ten genes *iolEDidhiolCBJRIBG* encoding putative enzymes responsible for *myo*-

inositol conversion to dihydroxyacetone and malonate semialdehyde (**Fig. 4A and Fig.**

1). Gene designations were based on sequence similarity to the *myo*-inositol cluster in *S.*

enterica (**Table S1**). Two copies of IolE and IolD are present, a copy in each region. The

iolE and *iolD* genes encode enzymes involved in the second and third steps of the

catabolic pathway. Region 1 copies are named IolE2 and IolD2 and shared 38% amino

acid identity to the enzymes from *S. enterica* (**Table S1**). The *iolC* gene encodes a

putative 5-dehydro-2-deoxyglucokinase and shared 33% amino acid identify with IolC

from *S. enterica*. The next step in the pathway is completed by an oxidoreductase

encoded by *iolB*. Two copies of this gene were found within region 1 (named *iolB1* and

iolB2) that shared 63.5% and 31% amino acid identify respectively to IolB from *S.*

enterica (**Table S1**). The *iolG* gene encoded an inositol 2-dehydrogenase required for the

first step in the pathway. IolG shared 36.1% amino acid identity to IolG2 from *S.*

enterica. An *idh* gene within the operon encoded a Gfo/Idh/MocA-type oxidoreductase,

which could have a dehydrogenase function to convert isomers of inositol into the

degradation pathway. Region 1 also contained two MFS transporters, a LysR family transcriptional regulator, a glycosyltransferase and a polysaccharide biosynthesis protein.

Region 2 contained a predicted operon *iolCDEA*, which shared greater amino acid identity with Iol in *S. enterica* than proteins in region 1, with similarity ranging from 43.7% to 67.4% (**Table S1**). The *iolA* gene encoded a CoA-acylating methylmalonate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase involved in the last step in the pathway (**Fig. 4A**). Divergently transcribed from *iolCDEA* was *iolXYZR* that encoded an ABC-type transporter IolXYZ and an RpiR-type regulator, which we named IolR1 as it shared 67% identity with IolR from *S. enterica* (**Fig. 4A**). *S. enterica* does not possess an ABC-type transporter that uptakes *myo*-inositol, but the substrate binding protein IolX from *V. coralliilyticus* shared 31% amino acid identity with IbpA a known transporter of *myo*-inositol in *C. vibrioides* (79).

A similar gene arrangement in region 1 and 2 was present in the genomes *V. coralliilyticus* strains CN52H-1, OCN014, BAA-450, and RE87 (**Fig. S5**). In *V. mediterranei* (formerly *V. shilonii*), strains of which are also coral pathogens, a single *iol* cluster is present comprised of 18 genes, putative operons *iolCA*, *iolXYZR*, *iolEDidhiolCBJRIBG* and *iolT1lysR* (**Fig. S4**). These data suggest that these strains have the potential to catabolize *myo*-inositol as a sole carbon source. It is of interest to note, that species belonging to the Harveyi clade, specifically 65 *V. harveyi*, 13 *V. campbellii*, 23 *V. owensii*, and 10 *V. jasicida* strains in the NCBI genome database (as of March 2024), contained *myo*-inositol region 1, but not region 2 (**Fig. S6**). That is, no *iolA* or *iolXYZ* homologs are present in these species.

Vibrio coralliilyticus can utilize myo-inositol as a sole carbon source. To demonstrate *myo*-inositol catabolism by *V. coralliilyticus* CN52H-1, OCN014, BAA-450, and RE87, strains were grown in M9 2% NaCl media supplemented with 20 mM glucose or 20 mM

myo-inositol or no carbon source. In M9 2% NaCl supplemented with *myo*-inositol, *V.*

coralliilyticus CN52H-1 reached a final OD_{595} of 0.31 with a lag time of 3 h (**Fig. 4B**). In

M9 2% NaCl glucose, there was a 1 h lag phase and a final OD_{595} of 0.65 was recorded

and in the absence of a carbon source, no growth occurred (**Fig. 4B**). Next, we examined

the ability of strains OCN014, BAA-450, and RE87 to grow on *myo*-inositol as a sole

carbon source. As expected, these strains followed a similar pattern of growth as

CN52H-1 on *myo*-inositol or glucose as sole carbon sources (**Fig. 4C**). We then examined

a *V. harveyi* strain since it only contained region 1 to determine whether growth on *myo*-

inositol can still occur. *V. harveyi* grew in M9 2% NaCl glucose but did not grow in *myo*-

inositol as a sole carbon source, whereas the control *V. coralliilyticus* did (**Fig. 4D**). This

suggested that region 2 is essential for *myo*-inositol catabolism, likely requiring the *iolA*

gene and/or *iolXYZ*. To demonstrate the requirement for region 1 for *myo*-inositol

catabolism, an in-frame non-polar deletion of *V. coralliilyticus iolG* (HRJ43_RS06535) was

constructed. The *iolG* gene encodes an inositol dehydrogenase essential in the first step

of the *myo*-inositol pathway and the last gene in region 1 of the *iol* operon (**Fig. 1**). To

demonstrate there was no overall growth defect in the construction of the Δ*iolG* mutant,

the strain was grown in M9 2% NaCl glucose, which showed a growth pattern identical

to the wild type strain (**Fig. 4E**). As expected, the Δ*iolG* strain showed no growth in M9

2% NaCl *myo*-inositol as a sole carbon source, with the wild type strain used as a

positive control (**Fig. 4E**). Overall, the data showed that *V. coralliilyticus* has a

functioning *myo*-inositol pathway and both regions 1 and 2 are required for catabolism.

Ligand modeling predicts *V. coralliilyticus* IolT1 and IolXYZ are *myo*-inositol

transporters. Two major facilitator superfamily (MFS)-type transporters are present

within region 1 and one ABC-type transporter IolXYZ within region 2. Ligand modeling

was performed by comparison to known transporters of *myo*-inositol to predict which

of these are likely responsible for *myo*-inositol transport. The MFS transporter from *B.*

subtilis IolT (WP_003234027.1) and *S. enterica* IolT1 (NP_463279.1) were selected as these

transporters were previously shown to transport *myo*-inositol (63). The MFS protein

(WP_099607352.1) within the region 1 cluster shared 48.8% amino acid identity to that

of *S. enterica* IolT1, which we named IolT1. Whereas the MFS protein (WP_172853823.1)

outside of the cluster shared only 25% similarity to that of *S. enterica*, which we named

MFS. Docking of *myo*-inositol with *B. subtilis* IolT and *S. enterica* IolT1 predicted a mode

of interaction with seven and five putative binding residues, respectively, and favorable

binding free energy changes (ΔG) of -7.0 kcal/mol and -6.1 kcal/mol. *Myo*-inositol

docking with *V. coralliilyticus* IolT1 predicted a favorable ΔG of -6.2 kcal/mol and four

putative binding residues. MFS-type transporters are known to coordinate substrate

binding with transmembrane (TM) domains TM7 and TM10 (83). Alignment of *B.*

subtilis IolT, *S. enterica* IolT1, *V. coralliilyticus* IolT1 and *V. coralliilyticus* MFS was

performed, and TM domains were identified. Predicted binding residues found in the

three models are shown with blue (*V. coralliilyticus* IolT1), green (*S. enterica* IolT1), and

orange (*B. subtilis* IolT) arrows, which were absent from MFS (**Fig. S7**). The two

glutamine (Q273, Q274) and asparagine (N279) in TM7 are found in all three modeled

sequences. In TM10 three of the four sequences also contained a conserved tryptophan

(W377) residue. All three models predicted a residue that aligns at Y368. Both *V.*

coralliilyticus IolT1 and *S. enterica* IolT1 contain a conserved tyrosine (Y) residue here,

but *B. subtilis* IolT contained glutamine (Q) (**Fig. S7**). Taken together this similarity in

the binding pockets of these transporters suggested that *V. coralliilyticus* IolT1 is likely

able to transport *myo*-inositol.

The ABC-type transporter substrate binding protein IbpA from *C. vibrioides* had

previously been shown to bind *myo*-inositol (79) and IolX (WP_227495657.1) from *V.*

coralliilyticus has 87% coverage and 31% amino acid identity to IbpA. Ligand docking

analysis of *myo*-inositol with IbpA and IolX predicted favorable modes of action with

ΔG of -7.4 kcal/mol and -5.3 kcal/mol, respectively. Putative binding residues were

identified for each substrate binding protein and are presented in the amino acid

alignment (**Fig. S8**). The green arrows indicate IbpA predicted binding residues and

blue arrows indicate IolX predicted binding residues. Five aligned residues were

predicted to be important in both docking models: 63 aspartic acid (D)/ glutamine (Q),

141 aspartic acid (D)/ asparagine (N), 187 glutamine (Q)/ serine (S), 269 aspartic acid

(D), and 289 glutamine (Q) (**Fig. S8B**). Based upon the favorable docking model and

select conserved residues in the alignment with a known *myo*-inositol transporter,

IolXYZ is predicted to be capable of *myo*-inositol transport.

The MFS transporter IolT1 and ABC-type transporter IolXYZ are responsible for

***myo*-inositol uptake for catabolism**. To evaluate the ability of IolT1 and IolXYZ to

transport *myo*-inositol, in-frame non-polar deletion mutants were generated in the *iolT1*

(HRJ43_RS06585) and *iolX (HRJ43_RS06670)* genes and a double deletion mutant

iolT1/iolX was also constructed. To show that these mutants contained no overall

growth defects, all three mutants and wild type were each grown in M9 2% NaCl

supplemented with 20 mM glucose. All three mutants showed an identical growth

pattern to wild type indicating that the mutants do not contain any additional defects

(**Fig. 5A**).

Next, the three mutants and wild type were each grown in M9 2% NaCl

supplemented with 20 mM *myo*-inositol for 30 h at 28°C (**Fig. 5B**). Under these growth

conditions, the Δ*iolT1* mutant had a decreased maximum growth rate of 0.08 h^{-1}

compared to wild type; 0.19 h^{-1} and reached a lower final OD_{595} (0.15) as compared to

wild type (0.29) (**Fig. 5B**). The Δ*iolT1* mutant also showed a lag time of 6 h compared to

3 h for wild type (**Fig. 5B and Fig. S9**). These data indicated that IolT1 is utilized for the

transport of *myo*-inositol, but another transporter also transports this compound into

the cell. Growth pattern analysis of the Δ*iolX* mutant also showed a decreased growth

rate of 0.11 h^{-1} and a lower final OD$_{595}$ of 0.19 compared to wild type, but no difference

in the lag phases (**Fig. 5B and Fig. S9**). These data show that IolXYZ is also a *myo*-

inositol transporter. Next, we examined the double deletion mutant *iolT1/iolX* to

determine whether any other transporters could uptake *myo*-inositol. The double

mutant failed to grow in M9 supplemented with *myo*-inositol as a sole carbon source

showing *V. coralliilyticus* has two *myo*-inositol transporters (**Fig. 5B**). The differences

between the lag time of the single mutants, 3 h lag when only *iolT1* was present and a 6

h lag for when only *iolX*, indicated that IolT1 is likely more efficient at *myo*-inositol

uptake compared to IolXYZ (**Fig. 5B and Fig. S9**).

Phylogenetic analysis of IolG from region 1 and IolA from region 2 among

***Vibrionaceae* reveals different evolutionary histories.** The low sequence similarity

between comparable proteins that are present in both region 1 and 2, and the lack of

synteny between the regions suggest different evolutionary histories. To examine this

further, a phylogeny based on the IolG protein from region 1 and IolA from region 2

were constructed among members of the family *Vibrionaceae* (**Fig. 6 and Fig. S10A**). In

addition, a phylogeny based on the housekeeping protein RpoB was also constructed

among the same set of species to represent their ancestral relationships and the major

clades to which each species belongs (**Fig. S10B**). To accomplish this, BLAST analysis

was first performed using IolG (WP_038162996.1) as a seed to identify homologous

protein sequences in the NCBI genome database. A total of 53 sequences with >95%

query coverage and >60% amino acid similarity were downloaded and aligned using

CLUSTALW (84). The genome context of these IolG proteins within each species was

determined to confirm the presence of additional *myo*-inositol metabolism genes.

Phylogenetic trees were constructed, and a representative IolG tree is shown in Figure

6A constructed using the neighbor-joining method based on evolutionary distance

calculated using the JTT matrix-based method (85). IolG was present in 32 *Vibrio*, 11

Photobacterium, 6 *Enterovibrio* and 4 *Grimontia* species (**Fig. 6A**). Among *Vibrio* species,

the IolG proteins were found dispersed within three major clusters on the tree. The *V.*

coralliilyticus IolG, a species that belongs in the Coralliilyticus clade, branched with high

bootstrap value with members of the Mediterranei clade (**Fig. 6A**). Branching distantly

from these species was a highly similar cluster of IolG proteins indicated by short

branch lengths in species from the Harveyi clade (**Fig. 6A**). Within this tight cluster was

IolG from *V. vulnificus*, a species that is not a member of the Harveyi clade (**Fig. 6A** and

Fig. S10B). These data indicated that IolG and by extension region 1 in *V. vulnificus* was

acquired by horizontal gene transfer from a Harveyi clade species. Species in the

Harveyi clade did not contain region 2 or a homolog of IolA. The next large clustering

of IolG from *Vibrio* species was from four species of the Splendidus clade and branching

distantly from these were IolG from nine *Photobacterium* species. Branched distantly

from this group were IolG from two *Photobacterium* species that clustered divergently

from species from the Cholerae and Splendidus clades (**Fig. 6A and Fig. S10B**). Along

with the IolG phylogeny, the differences in gene order and gene content among the

Vibrio species suggest the *iol* gene clusters have different evolutionary histories and

were likely acquired multiple times within the genus (**Fig. 6B**). The IolG proteins from

five *Grimontia* species clustered closely together with short branch lengths and identical

cluster indicating a single acquisition within the genus (**Fig. 6B**). IolG from species of

the genus *Enterovibrio* branched divergently from one another (**Fig. 6A**). Comparisons

between the IolG and RpoB trees show that the IolG tree does not follow species

evolutionary histories with the exception of *Grimontia* and *Enterovibrio* and indicate that

IolG was acquired by horizontal transfer in *Vibrio* and *Photobacterium* species **(Fig.**

S10B).

The IolA protein, a CoA-acylating methylmalonate-semialdehyde

dehydrogenase, was selected as the representative of region 2 and used as a seed for

BLAST analysis to identify homologs among the *Vibrionaceae*. This analysis uncovered

eight *Vibrio* species that contained IolG that did not have a copy of IolA or any of the

proteins present in region 2 (**Fig. S10A**). These included species from the Harveyi clade

mentioned above as well as *V. astriarenae*, *V. agarivorans*, *V. ponticus*, and *V. vulnificus*. In

the IolA tree, the bootstrap values for internal branch nodes for most *Vibrio* and

Photobacterium species were low and indicated that the relationships of IolA from these

species is not clear (**Fig. S10A**). In contrast, the bootstrap values for IolA from *Grimontia*

species were robust with short branch lengths and indicated that they are highly related

to one another (**Fig. S10A**). Branched divergently from these were IolA from

Enterovibrio species with greater than 85% confidence in many external nodes and IolA

from *V. penaeicida* and *V. nigripulchritudo* also clustered distantly within this group

similar to the IolG tree (**Fig. S10A**). The position of IolA from *Photobacterium* species

within the tree could not be determined as the internal bootstrap values were < 40%.

The IolA protein from *Photobacterium chitinilyticum* branched distantly with IolA from

Vibrio species similar to IolG from this species. In most *Vibrio* species, divergent

branches with long-branch lengths were present, which represented low IolA similarity

to each other. Comparisons between the IolG and IolA trees and comparative *iol* cluster

analysis suggest that region 1 and 2 were acquired separately, each with a different

origin and ancestral history (**Fig. 6 and Fig. S10A**). The phylogeny and *iol* cluster

comparisons demonstrate a polyphyletic origin for the *myo*-inositol metabolic clusters

likely acquired via horizontal transfer. However, there were no signatures of recent

horizontal transfer such as the presence of IS elements, transposases, integrases, phage

genes, or plasmid genes within 10 genes of the metabolic gene clusters (with the

exception of *V. rumoiensis*, which contained an integrase adjacent to *iolA*).

To examine *myo*-inositol metabolism evolutionary history further, an IolG tree

was constructed from IolG homologs outside of the *Vibrionaceae* family (**Fig. 7A**). Within

this tree, IolG from *Vibrio* species clustered most closely with *Plesiomonas shigelloides* and *Aeromonas* species, both pathogens of fish and humans and clustering divergently from these was IolG from *Providencia* species. A common denominator in all these groups was an 11-13 gene cluster that contained a sodium solute symporter (SSS) type transporter. The *iol* cluster was present in a limited number of strains of *A. allosaccharide*, *A. dhakensis, A. finlandensis, A. hydrophila, A. media, A. rivopollensis, A. simiae*, and *A. taiwanensis*. In *A. dhakensis* strains, also an important pathogen of fish, the *iol* genes were present at a tRNA-Ser locus, within a region that contained phage genes and genes for a restriction modification system (**Fig. 7B**). In *A. media, A. allosaccharophila*, and *A. finlandersis*, the *iol* gene cluster was also present adjacent to the same tRNA-Ser locus, but had different flanking genes and was present in one strain of each species.

In a separate group of *A. hydrophila* strains (>15 strains in the NCBI genome database), the *iol* gene cluster contained the *iolXYZ* transporter. The IolG from these *A. hydrophila* strains clustered divergently from other *Aeromonas* species and branched distantly with *Enterobacter* species. These *A. hydrophila* strains were previously characterized as hypervirulent fish pathogens. The *iol* cluster in these strains was inserted adjacent to a tRNA-Leu locus and was surrounded by integrase, transposase, and phage genes, markers of horizontal gene transfer (**Fig. 7B**). Branching divergently from these were IolG from species of the genera *Pectobacterium (formerly Erwinia species), Brenneria,* and *Dickeya* (**Fig. 7A**). Genomic analysis of *Brenneria, Dickeya,* and *Pectobacterium* showed that the *myo*-inositol metabolic genes were present in a single conserved cluster; in *Pectobacterium* and *Brenneria* the operon structure was *iolADGXYZ_idh_iolCEB* with an ABC-type transporter (*iolXYZ*). In *Dickeya* species, the region was similar to the region in *Pectobacterium* with the exception of three genes inserted between *iolD* and *iolG*. In *Pectobacterium* species, the *iol* cluster was flanked by an addiction system (toxin-antitoxin genes) and the region was located near a tRNA-

Asn locus (**Table S2-S5**). In *Brenneria izbisi,* the *iol* region was also located at the same tRNA-Asn locus, but in this species the cluster was flanked by a T6SS and an integrase (**Table S6**). For *Dickeya* and *Pectobacterium,* all species in the IolG tree showed short branch lengths indicating these proteins are highly related to one another within each genus suggesting IolG is ancestral to the genera. This indicates that the region was acquired once, which is also evidenced by their presence at the same genome location (tRNA-Asn).

The discovery of inositol catabolism among a relatively small group of *Vibrio* species made us wonder about the distribution of these genes among marine bacteria in general. Previous work by Fuchs and colleagues indicated that *iol* gene clusters were present in over 30 bacterial genera associated with aquatic environments (60). To investigate this further, we examined bacteria associated with different marine hosts for the presence of IolG. This analysis identified *iol* clusters in *Aliiroseovarius, Burkholderia, Caballeronia, Cobetia, Endozoicomonas, Hahella, Halomonas, Marinomonas, Marinobacterium, Labrenzia, Marinomonas, Marinobacter, Oceanspirallaceae, Paraburkholderia Pseudomonas,* and *Rhizobia* amongst others (**Fig. 7A**). The IolG phylogeny of these groups showed divergent sequences among closely related species, with species from Alpha-, Beta- and Gamma-Proteobacteria clustered together (**Fig. 7A**). Some genera showed tight clustering of IolG with short branch lengths, such as *Hahella, Halomonas, Marinomonas,* and *Pseudomonas* (**Fig. S11**). Whereas *Burkholderia* (previously *Pseudomonas), Caballeronia,* and *Paraburkholderia* species, all members of the *Burkholderiaceae* family, clustered with each other with short branch lengths and in some cases grouped with *Pseudomonas* species (**Fig. S11**). These genera as well as being significant human and animal pathogens are also characterized as symbionts of protozoa, cnidarians, insects, and plants (86-89). Within the groups that contained an *iol* cluster in our analysis were many genera isolated from reef sponges, corals, marine algae, crustaceans, molluscs and

marine fish. For example, *Endozoicomonas, Halomonas, Inquilinus, Labrenzia, Roseobacter,*

Pseudomonas, Photobacterium, and *Vibrio* are known symbionts or present in the

holobiont of corals (**Fig. S11**) (10, 90, 91). Additionally comparative analysis of the

cluster showed common themes such as the presence of a single cluster within which

was invariably the ABC-type transporter IolXYZ. A common variation among these

clusters was the presence or absence of IolA within the cluster or its presence elsewhere

on the genome (**Fig. S12**). Additionally, a difference between these *iol* clusters in marine

species compared to the clusters in Enterobacterales (*Brenneria, Dickeya, Enterobacter,*

Pectobacterium) was the presence of multiple isomerases and dehydrogenases genes

(**Fig. S12**). For example, in *Burkholderia cepacia* four additional dehydrogenase and

isomerases were present within the cluster and *Halomonas titanicae,* three additional

dehydrogenases and isomerases were present (**Fig. S12**).

DISCUSSION

Our examination of *V. coralliilyticus* response to changes in osmotic stress under

different growth temperatures demonstrated the importance of NaCl for optimal

growth and growth at high temperatures. The data showed that *V. coralliilyticus* can

grow in 1% - 4% NaCl, but grows optimally in 2% NaCl at 28°C and has an absolute

requirement for NaCl for growth at 37°C. Compared to other *Vibrio* species such as *V.*

parahaemolyticus that grow in up to 7% NaCl without the addition of compatible solutes,

V. coralliilyticus has a relatively low salinity tolerance of 4% NaCl (92-95). A major

difference between *V. coralliilyticus* and *V. parahaemolyticus* in their osmotic stress

response mechanisms is the absence of the ectoine biosynthesis cluster *ectABC_asp,*

which is required for *de novo* biosynthesis of ectoine. Deletion of the ectoine genes in *V.*

parahaemolyticus inhibited growth in NaCl concentration above 5% NaCl in the absence

of exogenous osmolytes (95). *V. coralliilyticus* biosynthesized GB from exogenous

choline and transported into the cell a wide range of osmolytes including choline, GB,

DMSP, DMG, and ectoine for osmotic protection similar to *V. parahaemolyticus* (92, 93).

Myo-inositol is a compatible solute more commonly associated with a few

hyperthermophile bacteria as well as many eukaryotic species such as algae and plants

(96-99). Therefore, it came as no surprise that *V. coralliilyticus* did not use *myo*-inositol

for osmotic protection. However, our bioinformatics analysis did identify a genomic

region on chromosome 2 in *V. coralliilyticus* that contained *myo*-inositol catabolism gene

clusters. This region was present in all *V. coralliilyticus* genomes in the NCBI genome

database showing it is a conserved phenotype in this species. Our analysis showed that

V. coralliilyticus strains can utilize *myo*-inositol as a sole carbon source with a 3 h lag

phase. The short lag phase is meaningful because previous studies on *S. enterica* have

shown a lag time of over 40 hours (67, 69, 70, 73). *Caulobacter vibrioides* (68, 79),

Rhizobium leguminosarum (formerly *trifolii*) (74), and *Sinorhizobium meliloti* (100) were

also shown to have long lag times of about 14 h when grown on *myo*-inositol as a sole

carbon source. A possible reason for this efficient use of *myo*-inositol by *V. coralliilyticus*

is the presence of two transporters for uptake into the cell, IolT1 and IolXYZ. As shown

in the deletion mutant analysis of these systems, both have somewhat similar *myo*-

inositol uptake affinities. Additionally, the regulation of the catabolism genes is likely

very different in these divergent species and also control of transport may be different.

Our analysis also showed that *V. harveyi* could not utilize *myo*-inositol as a carbon

source and this is likely due to the absence of region 2, and IolA specifically. Whether

these strains contained region 2 and lost it or never obtained the region is hard to

determine but given the high similarity of region 1 among these species the most

parsimonious explanation is that region 2 was never acquired. It is possible that the

region in *V. harveyi* could be used to metabolize derivatives of inositol.

We speculate that during periods of thermal stress, the increased production of

inositols by the coral and/or their endosymbiotic algae, as has been shown by Hillyer

and colleagues (53), is a metabolic opportunity for bacteria. The ability to consume

readily available inositols could provide a selective advantage for *Vibrio* commensal or

opportunistic pathogens to increase in abundance within the coral microbiome. In turn,

consumption of *myo*-inositol might result in depleting the availability of *myo*-inositol as

a stress protectant for algae, which could then lead to a decline in algal survival and

abundance. In addition, *myo*-inositol is used as a building block in various signal

transduction pathways, and the ability of *V. coralliilyticus* to catabolize this sugar could

pose a means for signaling interference. Utilization of predominantly a eukaryotic

metabolite could be a side consequence that gives *Vibrio* species a competitive

advantage over members of the coral microbiome or other eukaryotic host microbiomes

that allows the bacterium to exploit a novel food source and enhance colonization. This

competitive advantage could be enhanced during disruption of marine host-microbiota

interactions due to thermal, salinity, and/or acidic stresses that change microbial

diversity and abundance, similar to the human gut microbiome and human health.

Examination of the evolutionary history of IolG showed that the *iol* gene cluster

was acquired multiple times within *Vibrionaceae* and given the significant divergence

among species, these acquisitions were likely evolutionarily ancient events. Comparison

of the IolG and IolA trees showed they were not congruent indicating the two regions

were acquired separately. The closest relative to IolG outside of the Vibrionales were a

few members of the Aeromonadales (*Aeromonas*) and many Enterobacterales from the

genera *Brenneria, Dickeya, Enterobacteria, Pectobacterium, Plesiomonas, Providencia*. The

history of the region among these groups was very different, with signatures of

horizontal transfer present among *Aeromonas* species. *Aeromonas* are found in fresh and

marine water environments and include many species pathogenic to fish and humans.

Two different *myo*-inositol clusters were present in *Aeromonas* species, each containing a

single cluster. IolG from seven *Aeromonas* species and from *Plesiomonas shigelloides*

branched with IolG from *Vibrio* species and the *iol* cluster in these species encoded a
sodium solute symporter (SSS). *P. shigelloides* is the sole member of the genus and is
predominantly isolated from aquatic environments and their inhabitants. *P. shigelloides*
is presently within the family *Enterobacteriaceae*, but was previously a member of the
family *Vibrionaceae* and then *Aeromonadaceae* and has been described as a fish and
human pathogen (101). The *iol* cluster is present in all *P. shigelloides* genomes in the
NCBI database (as of March 2024) and this species has been shown to utilize *myo*-
inositol as a carbon source (101). Included in this IolG group were two *A. hydrophila*
strains WCX23 and 23-C-23, where the *iol* metabolic cluster was flanked on both ends
by genes encoding a type six secretion system (T6SS) and was inserted next to a tRNA-
His locus (**Fig. 7B**). In *A. dhakensis* and the other five species, the *iol* cluster was located
adjacent to a tRNA-Ser locus and flanked by signatures of mobile elements (**Fig. 7B**). In
hypervirulent *A. hydrophila* strains associated with epidemic disease in fish aquaculture
farms in China and the USA, the single *iol* cluster contained the IolXYZ ABC-type
transporter and clustered with IolG from *Enterobacter* species. In these hypervirulent *A.
hydrophila*, the *iol* cluster was flanked by an integrase and phage genes on one end and
an IS3 element on the opposite end and was inserted at a tRNA-Leu locus. Previous
studies showed that hypervirulent *A. hydrophila* strains all contained an *iol* cluster, could
utilize *myo*-inositol as a sole carbon source, and was an important trait differentiating
these strains from other *A. hydrophila* isolates (102-104). *Enterobacter* species are
ubiquitous in nature, present in soil and water, and are well known plant pathogens
and opportunistic pathogens of humans (105). Several species of *Enterobacter* have been
shown to utilize *myo*-inositol as a carbon source (105). Nested within IolG from
Enterobacter species was IolG from a single *A. taiwanensis* strain. However, the genome
for this species was incomplete so the genome context could not be explored further.
Overall, the data suggest that in *Aeromonas,* the *iol* gene cluster is a recent addition
acquired multiple times on mobile genetic elements and may have contributed to the

emergence of hypervirulent *Aeromonas* fish pathogens. Distantly related to these was

IolG from *Pectobacterium*, *Brenneria*, and *Dickeya* species which are broad host range

pathogens of plants with a worldwide distribution (**Fig. 7**) (106, 107). The *iol* cluster was

universally present in these genera suggesting it is a key phenotype of the group.

Emerging evidence from plant rhizosphere studies recently demonstrated that plant-

produced inositol catabolized by bacteria correlated with their higher root colonization

(108, 109). Whether the presence of *myo*-inositol catabolism genes aids in pathogen's

colonization of plants or is a beneficial trait picked up to take advantage of plant disease

releasing inositols remains to be determined. Our analysis also showed that the *iol*

cluster is present among a diverse range of marine species (**Fig. S11**). This is in

agreement with Fuchs and colleagues demonstrating that over 30 bacterial genera from

aquatic environments contained *iol* clusters (60). Many of these species are associated

with marine hosts including endosymbionts of corals (110, 111). The distribution of the

iol cluster within many genera was not universal, suggesting a possible role in niche

partitioning.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains, media, and culture conditions. All strains and plasmids used in this

study are listed in **Table 1**. Four *Vibrio coralliilyticus* strains were examined in this study,

strains CN52H-1, OCN014, BAA-450, and RE87. Unless stated otherwise, *V.*

coralliilyticus was grown at 28°C in either lysogeny broth (LB) (Fisher Scientific, Fair

Lawn, NJ) with 2% (wt/vol) NaCl (LB 2%NaCl) or M9 minimal media (47.8 mM

Na_2HPO_4, 22 mM KH_2PO_4, 18.7 mM NH_4Cl, 8.6 mM NaCl; Sigma Aldrich)

supplemented with 2 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.1 mM $CaCl_2$, 2% (wt/vol) NaCl and 20 mM glucose

as the sole carbon source (M9G 2% NaCl). *Escherichia coli* strains were grown in LB

supplemented with 1% (wt/vol) NaCl (LB1%) at 37°C. The strain *E. coli* β2155 *λpir* is a

diaminopimelic acid (DAP) auxotroph and was grown supplemented with 0.3 mM

DAP (112). The *V. harveyi* strain used for analysis was strain 393 (113). Chloramphenicol

(Cm) was added to media at a concentration of 12.5 µg/mL when specified.

Osmotic Stress Growth Analysis. *Vibrio coralliilyticus* was grown overnight in M9G 1%

NaCl at 28°C with aeration. A 2% inoculation of the overnight culture into fresh M9G

1% NaCl was grown to OD_{595} of ~ 0.50 at 28°C with aeration. Exponential cultures were

inoculated 1:40 into 200 µL fresh M9G media containing 1% to 6% NaCl. When using

compatible solutes glycine betaine (GB), dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP), ectoine,

choline, dimethylglycine (DMG), trimethylamine N-oxide (TMAO), gamma-

aminobutyric acid (GABA), creatine, *myo*-inositol (MI), and glycerol were used at a final

concentration of 1 mM in M9G 5% NaCl. Plates were incubated at 28°C with

intermittent shaking for 1 min every hour. Optical densities were taken at 595 nm every

hour for a total of 24 h using a Tecan Sunrise microplate reader and Magellan plate

reader software (Tecan Systems Inc., San Jose, CA).

Deletion Mutant Construction. In-frame non-polar deletion mutants of *iolG*

(HRJ43_RS06535), *iolT1* (HRJ43_RS06585), and *iolX* (HRJ43_RS06670) were constructed

using SOE PCR and allelic exchange as previously described (114). Truncations of the

genes of interest, *iolG* (18-bp of the 984-bp gene), *iolT1* (30-bp of the 1452-bp gene), and

iolX (24-bp of the 1008-bp gene) were generated using the primers listed in **Table 2**. The

truncated gene products were ligated with the suicide vector pDS132 using the Gibson

assembly protocol and then transformed into *E. coli* Dh5α λpir (115, 116). The plasmids

pDSΔ*iolG*, pDSΔ*iolT1*, and pDSΔ*iolX* were then purified and transformed into *E. coli*

β2155 *λpir* (DAP auxotroph). Then conjugation followed by homologous recombination

into the *V. coralliilyticus* CN52H-1 genome was completed. To select for the single

crossover of the plasmids into the genome, plating onto chloramphenicol (Cm) was

used and colonies were screened via PCR for the truncated allele. To induce a double-

crossover event, the single-cross strains were grown overnight in the absence of Cm.

The cultures were then spread on 10% sucrose plates, and healthy colonies were

screened for gene truncation, and plasmid excision. Colonies that still contained the

plasmid would appear soupy on the 10% sucrose plates because of the presence of *sacB*

selectable marker. In-frame deletions were confirmed with sequencing.

Metabolic Growth Analysis. Strains were grown overnight in M9G 2% NaCl at 28°C

with aeration. Overnight cultures were washed twice with PBS and then inoculated 1:40

into 200 μL fresh M9 media supplemented with 2% NaCl, and a specified carbon source

(glucose (20 mM) or *myo*-inositol (20 mM)). Plates were incubated at 28°C with

intermittent shaking for 1 min every hour. Optical densities were taken at 595 nm

hourly for a total of 30 h using a Tecan Sunrise microplate reader and Magellan plate

reader software (Tecan Systems Inc., San Jose, CA).

Preparation of cellular extracts and proton nuclear magnetic resonance (^{1}H-NMR).

Wild type *V. coralliilyticus* was grown overnight at 28°C in M9G 4% NaCl supplemented

with 1 mM choline. Stationary phase cells were pelleted and washed twice with PBS.

Three freeze-thaw cycles were performed with the cell pellets to increase lysis, and the

cells were resuspended in 750 μL ethanol. Debris was pelleted by centrifugation, and

the ethanol solution was transferred to a clean tube and evaporated under vacuum. The

pellet was resuspended in deuterium oxide (D_2O), and insoluble material was removed

by centrifugation. The solution was transferred to a 5-mm NMR tube for analysis on a

Bruker AVANCE 600NMR spectrometer at a proton frequency of 600.13 MHz with a

sweep of 12,376 Hz and a relaxation delay of 5 s. Sixteen scans were co-added for each

spectrum.

Phylogenetic analysis. Phylogenetic analysis was conducted using the program MEGA

X (117). The evolutionary history of IolG, IolA and RpoB was inferred using the

Neighbor-Joining method (118). The evolutionary distances were computed using the

Jones-Taylor-Thornton (JTT) matrix-based method and are in the units of the number of

amino acid substitutions per site (85). All ambiguous positions were removed for each

sequence pair (pairwise deletion option).

Ligand Docking Modeling. The transporter amino acid sequences were downloaded

from NCBI and aligned using ClustalW(84): *B. subtilis* IolT (WP_003234027.1), *S. enterica*

IolT1 (NP_463279.1), *V. coralliilyticus* IolT1 (WP_099607352.1), *V. coralliilyticus* IolT2

(WP_172853823.1), *C. crescentus* IbpA (WP_010918744.1), and *V. coralliilyticus* IolX

(WP_227495657.1). Transporter alignments were displayed and annotated using ESPript

(http://espript.ibcp.fr/ESPript/cgi-bin/ESPript.cgi) (119). Predicted protein structures

were obtained from AlphaFold (120). The Ligand model for *myo*-inositol (MI) was

obtained from Chemical Entities of Biological Interest (CheBI) EMBL (121). Polar

hydrogens were added to the ligand structures. The docking experiments were

performed using SeamDock which was set to use docking parameters for the Vina

software (Spacing: 1.0, Mode: 2, Energy Range: 5, Exhaustiveness: 8) (122).

Data Availability. All datasets are available upon request.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was supported in part by a National Science Foundation grant (award

IOS-1656688) to E.F.B. KBL was funded in part by the Chemistry-Biology Interface

predoctoral training program grant: 5T32GM008550.

Figure Legends

Fig. 1. Pathway of m*yo*-inositol catabolism. The pathway presented is based upon

enzymological studies in *B. subtilis* and genome comparison. Enzymes (red) and

intermediate compounds in the pathway are displayed.

Fig. 2. *Vibrio coralliilyticus* NaCl and temperature tolerance range. Growth curves of *V. coralliilyticus* strains in minimal media (M9) with glucose (M9G) and a final concentration of 1% to 6% NaCl. Growth was measured every hour for 24 h at **A.** 28°C strain CN52H-1, **B.** 37°C strain CN52H-1, **C.** 28°C strain OCN014, **D.** 37°C strain OCN014, **E.** 28°C strain BAA-450, **F.** 37°C strain BAA-450, **G.** 28°C strain RE-87, **H.** 37°C strain RE-87. Mean and standard deviation of three biological replicates are shown.

Fig. 3. *V. coralliilyticus* compatible solute biosynthesis and uptake systems. A. ^{1}H-NMR spectra of *V. coralliilyticus* CN52H-1 cellular extract grown in minimal media (M9G) 4% NaCl without choline and **B.** with the addition of 1 mM choline. The spectral peaks corresponding to glycine betaine are labeled with red asterisks. **C.** *V. coralliilyticus* was inoculated into M9G 5% NaCl with 1 mM GB (glycine betaine), DMSP (dimethylsulfoniopropionate), ectoine, choline, MI (*myo*-inositol), DMG (dimethylglycine), trimethylamine N-oxide (TMAO), gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA), creatine, or glycerol. Growth was measured for 24 h at 28°C and the calculated area under the curve calculated. Final OD is shown above each compatible solute that rescued growth. Mean and standard deviation of three biological replicates are shown.

Fig. 4. *V. coralliilyticus* utilized *myo*-inositol as a sole carbon source. A. Schematic of the gene order of *myo*-inositol transporter, catabolism and regulatory genes in *V. coralliilyticus*. **B.** Growth curve analysis in minimal media (M9 2% NaCl) containing either 20 mM glucose (squares) or 20 mM *myo*-inositol (MI, triangles) or no carbon source (circles) for *V. coralliilyticus* CN52H-1. **C.** *V. coralliilyticus* strains OCN014, BAA-450, and RE87. **D.** *V. harveyi* 393 and **E**. *V. coralliilyticus* Δ*iolG.* Growth was measured every hour for 30 h at 28°C. Mean and standard deviation of four biological replicates are shown.

Fig. 5. Growth pattern analysis of *V. coralliilyticus* *myo*-inositol transporters deletion mutants. Growth curves of wild type, Δ*iolT1*, Δ*iolX*, and Δ*iolT1*/ Δ*iolX* in minimal media

(M9 2% NaCl) with **A.** 20 mM glucose or **B.** 20 mM *myo*-inositol as a sole carbon source.

Growth was measured every hour for 30 h at 28°C. Mean and standard deviation of

three biological replicates are shown.

Fig. 6. Phylogenetic distribution of IolG and Iol cluster organization among

Vibrionaceae. **A.** IolG evolutionary history was inferred using the Neighbor-Joining

method (118) with bootstrap value of 1000 (123). The optimal tree with the sum of

branch length = 4.11930205 is shown. The tree is drawn to scale, and evolutionary

distances were computed using the JTT matrix-based method (85) with units of the

number of amino acid substitutions per site. Shown are 53 amino acid sequences,

ambiguous positions were removed for each sequence pair (pairwise deletion option)

with a total of 332 positions. Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA X (117).

IolG was present in 32 *Vibrio* (red), 11 *Photobacterium* (blue), 6 *Enterovibrio* (orange), and

4 *Grimontia* (brown) species. **B**. Iol cluster organization among *Vibrionaceae* species.

Arrows represent open reading frame and direction of transcription, slanted double

black lines represent genes between regions.

Fig. 7. IolG phylogeny among marine species. Condensed consensus tree with

collapsed branches is shown, original tree is shown in **Fig. S11**. IolG phylogeny was

inferred using the Neighbor-Joining method (118). The bootstrap test (1000 replicates)

are shown next to the branches. This analysis involved 358 amino acid sequences. Blue

and red collapsed branches represent Gamma-, purple represents Beta-, and green

represents Alpha-Proteobacteria. **B.** Genome context of *myo*-inositol metabolism clusters

within mobile genetic elements in *Aeromonas* species.

Table 1. Strains and plasmids used in this study

Strain/plasmid	Genotype or description	Reference/source
Vibrio coralliilyticus		
CN52H-1	Environmental isolate from reef coral	(16)
OCN014	Pathogen of the coral *Acropora cytherea*	(23)
BAA-450	Pathogen of the coral *Pocillopora damicornis*	(19)
RE87 (00-90-6)	Isolated from diseased Pacific oyster larvae	(80, 81)
Δ*iolG*	Deletion of HRJ43_RS06535 from CN52H-1	This study
Δ*iolT1*	Deletion of HRJ43_RS06585 from CN52H-1	This study
Δ*iolX*	Deletion of HRJ43_RS06670 from CN52H-1	This study
Δ*iolT1*/Δ*iolX*	*iolX* deletion in Δ*iolT2* mutant background	This study
Vibrio harveyi		
393	Isolated from barramundi in Australia	(113)
Escherichia coli		
DH5α *λpir*		ThermoFisher Scientific
B2155 *λpir*	Δ*dapA*::erm pir for bacterial conjugation	(112)
Plasmids		
pDS132	Suicide plasmid; CmR; *sacB*, R6Kg ori	(116)
pDS*iolG*	pDS132 harboring truncated *iolG* allele	This study
pDS*iolT1*	pDS132 harboring truncated *iolT1* allele	This study
pDS*iolX*	pDS132 harboring truncated *iolX* allele	This study

706   **Table 2. Primers used in this study**

Primer Name	Sequence (5′ – 3′)	Length (bp)
Mutant Primers		
AB fwd_*iolG*	accgcatgcgatatcgagctGTGGTTGAGGTGTACACC	549
AB rev_*iolG*	cttatagtgaATTAAACATTCTGTACTCCTTACAG	
CD fwd_*iolG*	aatgtttaatTCACTATAAGAAATTCAACCGGAAG	549
CD rev_*iolG*	gtggaattcccgggagagctTCCGGAAATCGTCCGCTATTTC	
flank fwd_*iolG*	acatcggtcagcgtatgtct	2369
flank rev_*iolG*	aaccgcgactacctttacca	
AB fwd_*iolT1*	accgcatgcgatatcgagctATGCTTTTCATCTCTCGTTC	549
AB rev_*iolT1*	gtacgtgcgcATGACTCGATGACATGTTTC	
CD fwd_*iolT1*	atcgagtcatGCGCACGTACAATAACATTG	549
CD rev_*iolT1*	gtggaattcccgggagagctCGATACCCCTGAAATGAGG	
flank fwd_*iolT1*	actttgttcccagctccgta	2809
flank rev_*iolT1*	gcgaacaaacaatggtgctg	
AB fwd_*iolX*	accgcatgcgatatcgagctCAACTATCGCCGAATAAGGTTATTTG	606
AB rev_*iolX*	aaccttttgTAATGATGGCATCATTGCC	
CD fwd_*iolX*	gccatcattaCAAAAAGGTTAATGGAATAACAGC	465
CD rev_*iolX*	gtggaattcccgggagagctATCGCGATACATCTTATCGTG	
flank fwd_*iolX*	cgatgacccaccgagatact	2248
flank rev_*iolX*	caccgtcagttcagtcatcg	

REFERENCES

1.   Kushmaro A, Rosenberg E, Fine M, Loya Y. 1997. Bleaching of the coral Oculina patagonica by
Vibrio AK-1. Marine Ecology Progress Series 147:159-165.
2.   Ben-Haim Y, Zicherman-Keren M, Rosenberg E. 2003. Temperature-regulated bleaching and lysis
of the coral Pocillopora damicornis by the novel pathogen Vibrio coralliilyticus. Appl Environ
Microbiol 69:4236-42.
3.   Munn CB. 2015. The Role of Vibrios in Diseases of Corals. Microbiol Spectr 3(4).
4.   Arotsker L, Siboni N, Ben-Dov E, Kramarsky-Winter E, Loya Y, Kushmaro A. 2009. Vibrio sp. as a
potentially important member of the Black Band Disease (BBD) consortium in Favia sp. corals.
FEMS Microbiol Ecol 70:515-24.
5.   Vezzulli L, Previati M, Pruzzo C, Marchese A, Bourne DG, Cerrano C. 2010. Vibrio infections
triggering mass mortality events in a warming Mediterranean Sea. Environ Microbiol 12:2007-
19.
6.   Vidal-Dupiol J, Ladrière O, Meistertzheim AL, Fouré L, Adjeroud M, Mitta G. 2011. Physiological
responses of the scleractinian coral Pocillopora damicornis to bacterial stress from Vibrio
coralliilyticus. J Exp Biol 214:1533-45.
7.   Rubio-Portillo E, Yarza P, Peñalver C, Ramos-Esplá AA, Antón J. 2014. New insights into Oculina
patagonica coral diseases and their associated Vibrio spp. communities. Isme j 8:1794-807.
8.   Rubio-Portillo E, Martin-Cuadrado AB, Caraballo-Rodríguez AM, Rohwer F, Dorrestein PC, Antón
J. 2020. Virulence as a Side Effect of Interspecies Interaction in Vibrio Coral Pathogens. mBio
11(4):e00201-20.
9.   Moriarty T, Leggat W, Huggett MJ, Ainsworth TD. 2020. Coral Disease Causes, Consequences,
and Risk within Coral Restoration. Trends Microbiol 28:793-807.
10. Voolstra CR, Raina JB, Dörr M, Cárdenas A, Pogoreutz C, Silveira CB, Mohamed AR, Bourne DG,
Luo H, Amin SA, Peixoto RS. 2024. The coral microbiome in sickness, in health and in a changing
world. Nat Rev Microbiol https://doi.org/10.1038/s41579-024-01015-3.
11. Santos Ede O, Alves N, Jr., Dias GM, Mazotto AM, Vermelho A, Vora GJ, Wilson B, Beltran VH,
Bourne DG, Le Roux F, Thompson FL. 2011. Genomic and proteomic analyses of the coral
pathogen Vibrio coralliilyticus reveal a diverse virulence repertoire. Isme j 5:1471-83.
12. Kooperman N, Ben-Dov E, Kramarsky-Winter E, Barak Z, Kushmaro A. 2007. Coral mucus-
associated bacterial communities from natural and aquarium environments. FEMS Microbiol
Lett 276:106-13.
13. Kimes NE, Grim CJ, Johnson WR, Hasan NA, Tall BD, Kothary MH, Kiss H, Munk AC, Tapia R,
Green L, Detter C, Bruce DC, Brettin TS, Colwell RR, Morris PJ. 2012. Temperature regulation of
virulence factors in the pathogen Vibrio coralliilyticus. Isme j 6:835-46.
14. Godwin S, Bent E, Borneman J, Pereg L. 2012. The role of coral-associated bacterial communities
in Australian Subtropical White Syndrome of Turbinaria mesenterina. PLoS One 7:e44243.
15. Ushijima B, Saw JH, Videau P, Häse CC. 2022. Comparison of Vibrio coralliilyticus virulence in
Pacific oyster larvae and corals. Microbiology (Reading) 168(4).
16. Ushijima B, Meyer JL, Thompson S, Pitts K, Marusich MF, Tittl J, Weatherup E, Reu J, Wetzell R,
Aeby GS, Häse CC, Paul VJ. 2020. Disease Diagnostics and Potential Coinfections by Vibrio
coralliilyticus During an Ongoing Coral Disease Outbreak in Florida. Front Microbiol 11:569354.
17. Ben-Haim Y, Rosenberg E. 2002. A novel Vibrio sp. pathogen of the coral Pocillopora damicornis.
Marine Biology 141:47-55.

18. Rosenberg E, Ben-Haim Y. 2002. Microbial diseases of corals and global warming. Environ
Microbiol 4:318-26.
19. Ben-Haim Y, Thompson FL, Thompson CC, Cnockaert MC, Hoste B, Swings J, Rosenberg E. 2003.
Vibrio coralliilyticus sp. nov., a temperature-dependent pathogen of the coral Pocillopora
damicornis. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 53:309-315.
20. Bourne DG, Munn CB. 2005. Diversity of bacteria associated with the coral Pocillopora
damicornis from the Great Barrier Reef. Environ Microbiol 7:1162-74.
21. Sussman M, Willis BL, Victor S, Bourne DG. 2008. Coral pathogens identified for White Syndrome
(WS) epizootics in the Indo-Pacific. PLoS One 3:e2393.
22. Ushijima B, Videau P, Burger AH, Shore-Maggio A, Runyon CM, Sudek M, Aeby GS, Callahan SM.
2014. Vibrio coralliilyticus strain OCN008 is an etiological agent of acute Montipora white
syndrome. Appl Environ Microbiol 80:2102-9.
23. Ushijima B, Videau P, Poscablo D, Stengel JW, Beurmann S, Burger AH, Aeby GS, Callahan SM.
2016. Mutation of the toxR or mshA genes from Vibrio coralliilyticus strain OCN014 reduces
infection of the coral Acropora cytherea. Environ Microbiol 18:4055-4067.
24. Richards GP, Watson MA, Needleman DS, Church KM, Häse CC. 2015. Mortalities of Eastern and
Pacific oyster Larvae caused by the pathogens Vibrio coralliilyticus and Vibrio tubiashii. Appl
Environ Microbiol 81:292-7.
25. Ushijima B, Richards GP, Watson MA, Schubiger CB, Häse CC. 2018. Factors affecting infection of
corals and larval oysters by Vibrio coralliilyticus. PLoS One 13:e0199475.
26. Richards GP, Watson MA, Madison D, Soffer N, Needleman DS, Soroka DS, Uknalis J, Baranzoni
GM, Church KM, Polson SW, Elston R, Langdon C, Sulakvelidze A. 2021. Bacteriophages against
Vibrio coralliilyticus and Vibrio tubiashii: Isolation, Characterization, and Remediation of Larval
Oyster Mortalities. Appl Environ Microbiol 87(10):e00008-21.
27. Kim HJ, Giri SS, Kim SG, Kim SW, Kwon J, Lee SB, Park SC. 2020. Isolation and Characterization of
Two Bacteriophages and Their Preventive Effects against Pathogenic Vibrio coralliilyticus
Causing Mortality of Pacific Oyster (Crassostrea gigas) Larvae. Microorganisms 8(6):926.
28. Kim HJ, Jun JW, Giri SS, Chi C, Yun S, Kim SG, Kim SW, Han SJ, Kwon J, Oh WT, Lee SB, Kim JH,
Park SC. 2020. Identification and Genome Analysis of Vibrio coralliilyticus Causing Mortality of
Pacific Oyster (Crassostrea gigas) Larvae. Pathogens 9(3):206.
29. Richards GP, Kingham BF, Shevchenko O, Watson MA, Needleman DS. 2018. Complete Genome
Sequence of Vibrio coralliilyticus RE22, a Marine Bacterium Pathogenic toward Larval Shellfish.
Microbiol Resour Announc 7(17):e01332-18.
30. Vega Thurber R, Willner-Hall D, Rodriguez-Mueller B, Desnues C, Edwards RA, Angly F, Dinsdale
E, Kelly L, Rohwer F. 2009. Metagenomic analysis of stressed coral holobionts. Environ Microbiol
11:2148-63.
31. Tout J, Siboni N, Messer LF, Garren M, Stocker R, Webster NS, Ralph PJ, Seymour JR. 2015.
Increased seawater temperature increases the abundance and alters the structure of natural
Vibrio populations associated with the coral Pocillopora damicornis. Front Microbiol 6:432.
32. Garren M, Son K, Tout J, Seymour JR, Stocker R. 2016. Temperature-induced behavioral switches
in a bacterial coral pathogen. Isme j 10:1363-72.
33. Gibbin E, Gavish A, Krueger T, Kramarsky-Winter E, Shapiro O, Guiet R, Jensen L, Vardi A,
Meibom A. 2019. Vibrio coralliilyticus infection triggers a behavioural response and perturbs
nutritional exchange and tissue integrity in a symbiotic coral. Isme j 13:989-1003.
34. Welsh RM, Rosales SM, Zaneveld JR, Payet JP, McMinds R, Hubbs SL, Vega Thurber RL. 2017.
Alien vs. predator: bacterial challenge alters coral microbiomes unless controlled by
Halobacteriovorax predators. PeerJ 5:e3315.

35. Rosado PM, Leite DCA, Duarte GAS, Chaloub RM, Jospin G, Nunes da Rocha U, J PS, Dini-
Andreote F, Eisen JA, Bourne DG, Peixoto RS. 2019. Marine probiotics: increasing coral
resistance to bleaching through microbiome manipulation. Isme j 13:921-936.
36. Kopp C, Domart-Coulon I, Escrig S, Humbel BM, Hignette M, Meibom A. 2015. Subcellular
investigation of photosynthesis-driven carbon assimilation in the symbiotic reef coral
Pocillopora damicornis. mBio 6(1):e02299-14.
37. Sproles AE, Kirk NL, Kitchen SA, Oakley CA, Grossman AR, Weis VM, Davy SK. 2018. Phylogenetic
characterization of transporter proteins in the cnidarian-dinoflagellate symbiosis. Mol
Phylogenet Evol 120:307-320.
38. Matthews JL, Oakley CA, Lutz A, Hillyer KE, Roessner U, Grossman AR, Weis VM, Davy SK. 2018.
Partner switching and metabolic flux in a model cnidarian-dinoflagellate symbiosis. Proc Biol Sci
285(1892):20182336.
39. LaJeunesse TC, Thornhill DJ, Cox EF, Stanton FG, Fitt WK, Schmidt GW. 2004. High diversity and
host specificity observed among symbiotic dinoflagellates in reef coral communities from
Hawaii. Coral Reefs 23:596-603.
40. Tanaka Y, Miyajima T, Koike I, Hayashibara T, Ogawa H. 2006. Translocation and conservation of
organic nitrogen within the coral-zooxanthella symbiotic system of Acropora pulchra, as
demonstrated by dual isotope-labeling techniques. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and
Ecology 336:110-119.
41. Rädecker N, Pogoreutz C, Voolstra CR, Wiedenmann J, Wild C. 2015. Nitrogen cycling in corals:
the key to understanding holobiont functioning? Trends Microbiol 23:490-7.
42. Rosic N, Ling EY, Chan CK, Lee HC, Kaniewska P, Edwards D, Dove S, Hoegh-Guldberg O. 2015.
Unfolding the secrets of coral-algal symbiosis. Isme j 9:844-56.
43. Cui G, Liew YJ, Konciute MK, Zhan Y, Hung SH, Thistle J, Gastoldi L, Schmidt-Roach S, Dekker J,
Aranda M. 2022. Nutritional control regulates symbiont proliferation and life history in coral-
dinoflagellate symbiosis. BMC Biol 20:103.
44. Rands ML, Loughman BC, Douglas AE. 1993. The Symbiotic Interface in an Alga-Invertebrate
Symbiosis. Proceedings: Biological Sciences 253:161-165.
45. Muscatine L, Porter JW. 1977. Reef Corals: Mutualistic Symbioses Adapted to Nutrient-Poor
Environments. BioScience 27:454-460.
46. Aranda M, Li Y, Liew YJ, Baumgarten S, Simakov O, Wilson MC, Piel J, Ashoor H, Bougouffa S,
Bajic VB, Ryu T, Ravasi T, Bayer T, Micklem G, Kim H, Bhak J, LaJeunesse TC, Voolstra CR. 2016.
Genomes of coral dinoflagellate symbionts highlight evolutionary adaptations conducive to a
symbiotic lifestyle. Sci Rep 6:39734.
47. LaJeunesse TC, Parkinson JE, Gabrielson PW, Jeong HJ, Reimer JD, Voolstra CR, Santos SR. 2018.
Systematic Revision of Symbiodiniaceae Highlights the Antiquity and Diversity of Coral
Endosymbionts. Curr Biol 28:2570-2580.e6.
48. Ashley IA, Kitchen SA, Gorman LM, Grossman AR, Oakley CA, Suggett DJ, Weis VM, Rosset SL,
Davy SK. 2022. Genomic conservation and putative downstream functionality of the
phosphatidylinositol signalling pathway in the cnidarian-dinoflagellate symbiosis. Front
Microbiol 13:1094255.
49. Michell RH. 2008. Inositol derivatives: evolution and functions. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 9:151-61.
50. Majumder AL, Chatterjee A, Ghosh Dastidar K, Majee M. 2003. Diversification and evolution of
L-myo-inositol 1-phosphate synthase. FEBS Lett 553:3-10.
51. Turner BL, Papházy MJ, Haygarth PM, McKelvie ID. 2002. Inositol phosphates in the
environment. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci 357:449-69.

52.   Lehnert EM, Mouchka ME, Burriesci MS, Gallo ND, Schwarz JA, Pringle JR. 2014. Extensive
848   differences in gene expression between symbiotic and aposymbiotic cnidarians. G3 (Bethesda)
849   4:277-95.

850   53.   Hillyer KE, Dias DA, Lutz A, Roessner U, Davy SK. 2017. Mapping carbon fate during bleaching in
851   a model cnidarian symbiosis: the application of (13) C metabolomics. New Phytol 214:1551-
852   1562.

853   54.   Blatt MR, Thiel G, Trentham DR. 1990. Reversible inactivation of K+ channels of Vicia stomatal
854   guard cells following the photolysis of caged inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate. Nature 346:766-9.

855   55.   Thiel G, MacRobbie EA, Hanke DE. 1990. Raising the intracellular level of inositol 1,4,5-
856   trisphosphate changes plasma membrane ion transport in characean algae. Embo j 9:1737-41.

857   56.   Al-Mushhin AAM, Qari SH, Fakhr MA, Alnusairi GSH, Alnusaire TS, AA AL, Latef A, Ali OM, Khan
858   AA, Soliman MH. 2021. Exogenous Myo-Inositol Alleviates Salt Stress by Enhancing Antioxidants
859   and Membrane Stability via the Upregulation of Stress Responsive Genes in Chenopodium
860   quinoa L. Plants (Basel) 10(11):2416.

861   57.   Das-Chatterjee A, Goswami L, Maitra S, Dastidar KG, Ray S, Majumder AL. 2006. Introgression of
862   a novel salt-tolerant L-myo-inositol 1-phosphate synthase from Porteresia coarctata (Roxb.)
863   Tateoka (PcINO1) confers salt tolerance to evolutionary diverse organisms. FEBS Lett 580:3980-
864   8.

865   58.   Nelson DE, Koukoumanos M, Bohnert HJ. 1999. Myo-inositol-dependent sodium uptake in ice
866   plant. Plant Physiol 119:165-72.

867   59.   Gillaspy GE. 2011. The cellular language of myo-inositol signaling. New Phytol 192:823-839.

868   60.   Weber M, Fuchs TM. 2022. Metabolism in the Niche: a Large-Scale Genome-Based Survey
869   Reveals Inositol Utilization To Be Widespread among Soil, Commensal, and Pathogenic Bacteria.
870   Microbiol Spectr 10:e0201322.

871   61.   Felsl A, Brokatzky D, Kröger C, Heermann R, Fuchs TM. 2023. Hierarchic regulation of a
872   metabolic pathway: H-NS, CRP, and SsrB control myo-inositol utilization by Salmonella enterica.
873   Microbiol Spectr:e0272423.

874   62.   Yoshida KI, Aoyama D, Ishio I, Shibayama T, Fujita Y. 1997. Organization and transcription of the
875   myo-inositol operon, iol, of Bacillus subtilis. J Bacteriol 179:4591-8.

876   63.   Yoshida K, Yamamoto Y, Omae K, Yamamoto M, Fujita Y. 2002. Identification of two myo-inositol
877   transporter genes of Bacillus subtilis. J Bacteriol 184:983-91.

878   64.   Yoshida K, Yamaguchi M, Morinaga T, Kinehara M, Ikeuchi M, Ashida H, Fujita Y. 2008. myo-
879   Inositol catabolism in Bacillus subtilis. J Biol Chem 283:10415-24.

880   65.   Yoshida KI, Sanbongi A, Murakami A, Suzuki H, Takenaka S, Takami H. 2012. Three inositol
881   dehydrogenases involved in utilization and interconversion of inositol stereoisomers in a
882   thermophile, Geobacillus kaustophilus HTA426. Microbiology (Reading) 158:1942-1952.

883   66.   Yoshida KI, Shibayama T, Aoyama D, Fujita Y. 1999. Interaction of a repressor and its binding
884   sites for regulation of the Bacillus subtilis iol divergon. J Mol Biol 285:917-29.

885   67.   Berman T, Magasanik B. 1966. The pathway of myo-inositol degradation in Aerobacter
886   aerogenes. Ring scission. J Biol Chem 241:807-13.

887   68.   Boutte CC, Srinivasan BS, Flannick JA, Novak AF, Martens AT, Batzoglou S, Viollier PH, Crosson S.
888   2008. Genetic and computational identification of a conserved bacterial metabolic module. PLoS
889   Genet 4:e1000310.

890   69.   Kröger C, Fuchs TM. 2009. Characterization of the myo-inositol utilization island of Salmonella
891   enterica serovar Typhimurium. J Bacteriol 191:545-54.

892   70.   Kröger C, Stolz J, Fuchs TM. 2010. myo-Inositol transport by Salmonella enterica serovar
893   Typhimurium. Microbiology (Reading) 156:128-138.

71. Fry J, Wood M, Poole PS. 2001. Investigation of myo-inositol catabolism in Rhizobium
leguminosarum bv. viciae and its effect on nodulation competitiveness. Mol Plant Microbe
Interact 14:1016-25.
72. Gauchat-Feiss D, Frey J, Belet M, Deshusses J. 1985. Cloning of genes involved in myo-inositol
transport in a Pseudomonas sp. J Bacteriol 162:324-7.
73. Legakis NJ, Papavassiliou JT, Xilinas ME. 1976. Inositol as a selective substrate for the growth of
Klebsiellae and Serratiae. Zentralbl Bakteriol Orig A 235:453-8.
74. Primrose SB, Ronson CW. 1980. Polyol metabolism by Rhizobium trifolii. J Bacteriol 141:1109-14.
75. Reber G, Belet M, Deshusses J. 1980. Energetics of myo-inositol transport in Pseudomonas
putida. Experientia 36:528-9.
76. Krings E, Krumbach K, Bathe B, Kelle R, Wendisch VF, Sahm H, Eggeling L. 2006. Characterization
of myo-inositol utilization by Corynebacterium glutamicum: the stimulon, identification of
transporters, and influence on L-lysine formation. J Bacteriol 188:8054-61.
77. Hellinckx J, Fuchs TM. 2017. Hysteresis in myo-inositol utilization by Salmonella Typhimurium.
Microbiologyopen 6(2):e00431.
78. Müller J, Spriewald S, Stecher B, Stadler E, Fuchs TM. 2019. Evolutionary Stability of Salmonella
Competition with the Gut Microbiota: How the Environment Fosters Heterogeneity in
Exploitative and Interference Competition. J Mol Biol 431:4732-4748.
79. Herrou J, Crosson S. 2013. myo-inositol and D-ribose ligand discrimination in an ABC periplasmic
binding protein. J Bacteriol 195:2379-88.
80. Elston RA, Hasegawa H, Humphrey KL, Polyak IK, Häse CC. 2008. Re-emergence of Vibrio
tubiashii in bivalve shellfish aquaculture: severity, environmental drivers, geographic extent and
management. Dis Aquat Organ 82:119-34.
81. Kehlet-Delgado H, Richards GP, Häse C, Mueller RS. 2017. Three Draft Genome Sequences of
Vibrio coralliilyticus Strains Isolated from Bivalve Hatcheries. Genome Announc 5(41):e01162-
17.
82. Tang K, Zhan W, Zhou Y, Xu T, Chen X, Wang W, Zeng Z, Wang Y, Wang X. 2020. Antagonism
between coral pathogen Vibrio coralliilyticus and other bacteria in the gastric cavity of
scleractinian coral Galaxea fascicularis. Science China Earth Sciences 63:157-166.
83. Drew D, North RA, Nagarathinam K, Tanabe M. 2021. Structures and General Transport
Mechanisms by the Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS). Chem Rev 121:5289-5335.
84. Thompson JD, Higgins DG, Gibson TJ. 1994. CLUSTAL W: improving the sensitivity of progressive
multiple sequence alignment through sequence weighting, position-specific gap penalties and
weight matrix choice. Nucleic Acids Res 22:4673-80.
85. Jones DT, Taylor WR, Thornton JM. 1992. The rapid generation of mutation data matrices from
protein sequences. Comput Appl Biosci 8:275-82.
86. Ohbayashi T, Cossard R, Lextrait G, Hosokawa T, Lesieur V, Takeshita K, Tago K, Mergaert P,
Kikuchi Y. 2022. Intercontinental Diversity of Caballeronia Gut Symbionts in the Conifer Pest Bug
Leptoglossus occidentalis. Microbes Environ 37(3):ME22042.
87. Shu L, Zhang B, Queller DC, Strassmann JE. 2018. Burkholderia bacteria use chemotaxis to find
social amoeba Dictyostelium discoideum hosts. Isme j 12:1977-1993.
88. Kaltenpoth M, Flórez LV. 2020. Versatile and Dynamic Symbioses Between Insects and
Burkholderia Bacteria. Annu Rev Entomol 65:145-170.
89. Acuña-Rodríguez IS, Newsham KK, Gundel PE, Torres-Díaz C, Molina-Montenegro MA. 2020.
Functional roles of microbial symbionts in plant cold tolerance. Ecol Lett 23:1034-1048.
90. Tran C. 2022. Coral-microbe interactions: their importance to reef function and survival. Emerg
Top Life Sci 6:33-44.

91.   Sweet M, Villela H, Keller-Costa T, Costa R, Romano S, Bourne DG, Cárdenas A, Huggett MJ,
Kerwin AH, Kuek F, Medina M, Meyer JL, Müller M, Pollock FJ, Rappé MS, Sere M, Sharp KH,
Voolstra CR, Zaccardi N, Ziegler M, Peixoto R. 2021. Insights into the Cultured Bacterial Fraction
of Corals. mSystems 6:e0124920.
92.   Gregory GJ, Boas KE, Boyd EF. 2020. The organosulfur compound dimethylsulfoniopropionate
(DMSP) is utilized as an osmoprotectant by Vibrio species. Appl Environ Microbiol 87(5):e02235-
20.
93.   Gregory GJ, Dutta A, Parashar V, Boyd EF. 2020. Investigations of Dimethylglycine, Glycine
Betaine, and Ectoine Uptake by a Betaine-Carnitine-Choline Transporter Family Transporter with
Diverse Substrate Specificity in Vibrio Species. J Bacteriol 202:e00314-20.
94.   Naughton LM, Blumerman SL, Carlberg M, Boyd EF. 2009. Osmoadaptation among Vibrio species
and unique genomic features and physiological responses of Vibrio parahaemolyticus. Appl
Environ Microbiol 75:2802-10.
95.   Ongagna-Yhombi SY, Boyd EF. 2013. Biosynthesis of the osmoprotectant ectoine, but not glycine
betaine, is critical for survival of osmotically stressed Vibrio parahaemolyticus cells. Appl Environ
Microbiol 79:5038-49.
96.   Martins LO, Carreto LS, Da Costa MS, Santos H. 1996. New compatible solutes related to Di-myo-
inositol-phosphate in members of the order Thermotogales. J Bacteriol 178:5644-51.
97.   Empadinhas N, Mendes V, Simões C, Santos MS, Mingote A, Lamosa P, Santos H, Costa MS.
2007. Organic solutes in Rubrobacter xylanophilus: the first example of di-myo-inositol-
phosphate in a thermophile. Extremophiles 11:667-73.
98.   Lamosa P, Rodrigues MV, Gonçalves LG, Carr J, Ventura R, Maycock C, Raven ND, Santos H.
2013. Organic solutes in the deepest phylogenetic branches of the Bacteria: identification of
α(1-6)glucosyl-α(1-2)glucosylglycerate in Persephonella marina. Extremophiles 17:137-46.
99.   Rodrigues MV, Borges N, Almeida CP, Lamosa P, Santos H. 2009. A unique beta-1,2-
mannosyltransferase of Thermotoga maritima that uses di-myo-inositol phosphate as the
mannosyl acceptor. J Bacteriol 191:6105-15.
100. Galbraith MP, Feng SF, Borneman J, Triplett EW, de Bruijn FJ, Rossbachl S. 1998. A functional
myo-inositol catabolism pathway is essential for rhizopine utilization by Sinorhizobium meliloti.
Microbiology (Reading) 144 (Pt 10):2915-2924.
101. Janda JM, Abbott SL, McIver CJ. 2016. Plesiomonas shigelloides Revisited. Clin Microbiol Rev
29:349-74.
102. Xu T, Rasmussen-Ivey CR, Moen FS, Fernández-Bravo A, Lamy B, Beaz-Hidalgo R, Khan CD, Castro
Escarpulli G, Yasin ISM, Figueras MJ, Azzam-Sayuti M, Karim MM, Alam KMM, Le TTT, Thao NHP,
Addo S, Duodu S, Ali S, Latif T, Mey S, Somony T, Liles MR. 2023. A Global Survey of
Hypervirulent Aeromonas hydrophila (vAh) Identified vAh Strains in the Lower Mekong River
Basin and Diverse Opportunistic Pathogens from Farmed Fish and Other Environmental Sources.
Microbiol Spectr 11:e0370522.
103. Hossain MJ, Waldbieser GC, Sun D, Capps NK, Hemstreet WB, Carlisle K, Griffin MJ, Khoo L,
Goodwin AE, Sonstegard TS, Schroeder S, Hayden K, Newton JC, Terhune JS, Liles MR. 2013.
Implication of lateral genetic transfer in the emergence of Aeromonas hydrophila isolates of
epidemic outbreaks in channel catfish. PLoS One 8:e80943.
104. Rasmussen-Ivey CR, Hossain MJ, Odom SE, Terhune JS, Hemstreet WG, Shoemaker CA, Zhang D,
Xu DH, Griffin MJ, Liu YJ, Figueras MJ, Santos SR, Newton JC, Liles MR. 2016. Classification of a
Hypervirulent Aeromonas hydrophila Pathotype Responsible for Epidemic Outbreaks in Warm-
Water Fishes. Front Microbiol 7:1615.
105. Davin-Regli A, Lavigne JP, Pagès JM. 2019. Enterobacter spp.: Update on Taxonomy, Clinical
Aspects, and Emerging Antimicrobial Resistance. Clin Microbiol Rev 32(4):e00002-19.

106. Ma B, Hibbing ME, Kim HS, Reedy RM, Yedidia I, Breuer J, Glasner JD, Perna NT, Kelman A,
Charkowski AO. 2007. Host range and molecular phylogenies of the soft rot enterobacterial
genera pectobacterium and dickeya. Phytopathology 97:1150-63.

107. Charkowski AO. 2018. The Changing Face of Bacterial Soft-Rot Diseases. Annu Rev Phytopathol
56:269-288.

108. O'Banion BS, Jones P, Demetros AA, Kelley BR, Knoor LH, Wagner AS, Chen JG, Muchero W,
Reynolds TB, Jacobson D, Lebeis SL. 2023. Plant myo-inositol transport influences bacterial
colonization phenotypes. Curr Biol 33:3111-3124.e5.

109. Sánchez-Gil JJ, Poppeliers SWM, Vacheron J, Zhang H, Odijk B, Keel C, de Jonge R. 2023. The
conserved iol gene cluster in Pseudomonas is involved in rhizosphere competence. Curr Biol
33:3097-3110.e6.

110. Matthews JL, Khalil A, Siboni N, Bougoure J, Guagliardo P, Kuzhiumparambil U, DeMaere M, Le
Reun NM, Seymour JR, Suggett DJ, Raina JB. 2023. Coral endosymbiont growth is enhanced by
metabolic interactions with bacteria. Nat Commun 14:6864.

111. T DA, Krause L, Bridge T, Torda G, Raina JB, Zakrzewski M, Gates RD, Padilla-Gamiño JL, Spalding
HL, Smith C, Woolsey ES, Bourne DG, Bongaerts P, Hoegh-Guldberg O, Leggat W. 2015. The coral
core microbiome identifies rare bacterial taxa as ubiquitous endosymbionts. Isme j 9:2261-74.

112. Dehio C, Meyer M. 1997. Maintenance of broad-host-range incompatibility group P and group Q
plasmids and transposition of Tn5 in Bartonella henselae following conjugal plasmid transfer
from Escherichia coli. J Bacteriol 179:538-40.

113. Pederson K, Verdonck L, Austin B, Austin D, Blanch AR, Grimont PAD, Jofre J, Koblavi S, Larsen JL,
Tianinen T, Vigneulle M, Swings J. 1998. Taxonomic evidence that Vibrio carchariae Grimes et al.
1985 is a junior synonym of Vibrio harveyi (Johnson and Shunk 1936) Baumann et al. 1981.
International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology 48:748-749.

114. Gregory GJ, Morreale DP, Carpenter MR, Kalburge SS, Boyd EF. 2019. Quorum Sensing
Regulators AphA and OpaR Control Expression of the Operon Responsible for Biosynthesis of the
Compatible Solute Ectoine. Appl Environ Microbiol 85(22):e01543-19.

115. Gibson DG. 2011. Enzymatic assembly of overlapping DNA fragments. Methods Enzymol
498:349-61.

116. Philippe N, Alcaraz JP, Coursange E, Geiselmann J, Schneider D. 2004. Improvement of pCVD442,
a suicide plasmid for gene allele exchange in bacteria. Plasmid 51:246-55.

117. Kumar S, Stecher G, Li M, Knyaz C, Tamura K. 2018. MEGA X: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics
Analysis across Computing Platforms. Mol Biol Evol 35:1547-1549.

118. Saitou N, Nei M. 1987. The neighbor-joining method: a new method for reconstructing
phylogenetic trees. Mol Biol Evol 4:406-25.

119. Robert X, Gouet P. 2014. Deciphering key features in protein structures with the new ENDscript
server. Nucleic Acids Res 42:W320-4.

120. Jumper J, Evans R, Pritzel A, Green T, Figurnov M, Ronneberger O, Tunyasuvunakool K, Bates R,
Žídek A, Potapenko A, Bridgland A, Meyer C, Kohl SAA, Ballard AJ, Cowie A, Romera-Paredes B,
Nikolov S, Jain R, Adler J, Back T, Petersen S, Reiman D, Clancy E, Zielinski M, Steinegger M,
Pacholska M, Berghammer T, Bodenstein S, Silver D, Vinyals O, Senior AW, Kavukcuoglu K, Kohli
P, Hassabis D. 2021. Highly accurate protein structure prediction with AlphaFold. Nature
596:583-589.

121. Hastings J, Owen G, Dekker A, Ennis M, Kale N, Muthukrishnan V, Turner S, Swainston N,
Mendes P, Steinbeck C. 2016. ChEBI in 2016: Improved services and an expanding collection of
metabolites. Nucleic Acids Res 44:D1214-9.

122.   Murail S, de Vries SJ, Rey J, Moroy G, Tufféry P. 2021. SeamDock: An Interactive and
1036   Collaborative Online Docking Resource to Assist Small Compound Molecular Docking. Front Mol
1037   Biosci 8:716466.
1038   123.   Felsenstein J. 1985. CONFIDENCE LIMITS ON PHYLOGENIES: AN APPROACH USING THE
1039   BOOTSTRAP. Evolution 39:783-791.

1040

Fig. 1. Pathway of m*yo*-inositol catabolism. The pathway presented is based upon studies in *B. subtilis* and *Salmonellla enterica*. Enzymes (red) and intermediate compounds in the pathway are displayed.

Fig. 2. *Vibrio coralliilyticus* **NaCl tolerance range.** Growth curves of *V. coralliilyticus* strains in minimal media (M9) with glucose (M9G) with a final concentration of 1% to 6% NaCl. Growth was measured every hour for 24 h at **A.** 28°C strain CN52H-1, **B.** 37°C strain CN52H-1, **C.** 28°C strain OCN014, **D.** 37°C strain OCN014, **E.** 28°C strain BAA-450, **F.** 37°C strain BAA-450, **G.** 28°C strain RE-87, **H.** 37°C strain RE-87 . Mean and standard deviation of three biological replicates are shown.

Fig. 3. *V. coralliilyticus* compatible solute biosynthesis and uptake systems. A. ¹H-NMR spectra of *V. coralliilyticus* CN52H-1 cellular extract grown in minimal media (M9G) 4% NaCl without choline and **B.** with the addition of 1 mM choline. The spectral peaks corresponding to glycine betaine are labeled with red asterisks. **C.** *V. coralliilyticus* was inoculated into M9G 5% NaCl with 1 mM GB (glycine betaine), DMSP (dimethylsulfoniopropionate), ectoine, choline, MI (*myo*-inositol), DMG (dimethylglycine), trimethylamine N-oxide (TMAO), gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA), creatine, or glycerol. Growth was measured for 24 h at 28°C and the calculated area under the curve AUC calculated shown above each compatible solute that rescued growth. Mean and standard deviation of three biological replicates are shown.

Fig. 4. *V. coralliilyticus* **utilized** *myo*-**inositol as a sole carbon source. A.** Schematic of the gene order of *myo*-inositol transporter, catabolism and regulatory genes in *V. coralliilyticus*. **B.** Growth curve analysis in minimal media (M9 2% NaCl) containing either 20 mM glucose (squares) or 20 mM *myo*-inositol (MI, triangles) or no carbon source (circles) for *V. coralliilyticus* CN52H-1. **C.** *V. coralliilyticus* strains OCN014, BAA-450, and RE-87. **D.** *V. harveyi* 393 and **E.** *V. coralliilyticus ΔiolG.* Growth was measured every hour for 30 h at 28°C. Mean and standard deviation of four biological replicates are shown.

Fig. 5. Growth pattern analysis of *V. coralliilyticus myo*-inositol transporters deletion mutants. Growth analysis of wild type, Δ*iolT1*, Δ*iolX*, and Δ*iolT1*/ Δ*iolX* in minimal media (M9 2% NaCl) with **A.** 20 mM glucose or **B.** 20 mM *myo*-inositol as a sole carbon source. Growth was measured every hour for 30 h at 28°C. Mean and standard deviation of three biological replicates are shown.

Fig. 6. Phylogenetic distribution of IolG and Iol cluster organization among *Vibrionaceae*. A. IolG evolutionary history was inferred using the Neighbor-Joining method (118) with bootstrap value of 1000 (123). The optimal tree with the sum of branch length = 4.11930205 is shown. The tree is drawn to scale, and evolutionary distances were computed using the JTT matrix-based method (85) with units of the number of amino acid substitutions per site. Shown are 53 amino acid sequences, ambiguous positions were removed for each sequence pair (pairwise deletion option) with a total of 332 positions. Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA X (117). IolG was present in only 32 *Vibrio* (red), 11 *Photobacterium* (blue), 6 *Enterovibrio* (orange), and 4 *Grimontia* (brown) species. **B**. Iol cluster organization among *Vibrionaceae* species. Arrows represent open reading frame and direction of transcription, double black lines represent genes between regions.

Fig. 7. IolG phylogeny among marine species. Condensed consensus tree with collapsed branches is shown, original tree is shown in **Fig. S11**. IolG phylogeny was inferred using the Neighbor-Joining method (118). This analysis involved 358 amino acid sequences. Blue and red collapsed branches represent Gamma-, purple represents Beta-, and green represents Alpha-Proteobacteria. **B.** Genome context of *myo*-inositol metabolism clusters within mobile genetic elements in *Aeromonas* species.