

1 **Uncovering the mycorrhizal community of two *Habenaria* orchids in South Africa**

2 Modjadji C Makwela¹, Almuth Hammerbacher^{2*}, Maria Vivas³, Martin P A Coetzee¹, Brenda
3 D Wingfield ¹, Gerrit van Ede⁴, Tanay Bose ¹

4 ¹Department of Biochemistry, Genetics and Microbiology, Forestry and Agricultural
5 Biotechnology Institute (FABI), University of Pretoria, South Africa

6 ²Department of Zoology and Entomology, Forestry and Agricultural Biotechnology Institute
7 (FABI), University of Pretoria, South Africa

8 ³Institute for Dehesa Research (INDEHESA). Universidad de Extremadura, Plasencia, Spain

9 ⁴Private Bag XC4, Postlink Suite 38, Woodhill, Pretoria 0083, South Africa

10 *Corresponding author – Almuth.Hammerbacher@fabi.up.ac.za

11

12 **Abstract**

13 Southern Africa is a biodiversity hotspot for a variety of orchids, including *Habenaria*.
14 However, we know very little about the orchid mycorrhizae that are associated with these
15 orchids. To bridge this gap, we compared the community of orchid mycorrhizae that are
16 associated with two indigenous *Habenaria* species, *H. barbertoni* and *H. epipactidea*, using a
17 high-throughput sequencing platform. We selected these two orchids because their distribution
18 zones overlap in South Africa. Furthermore, *H. barbertoni* is endangered, whereas *H.*
19 *epipactidea* is not. We hypothesised that the mycorrhizal diversity and composition linked with
20 the roots of these two orchids would overlap, but that some distinct fungal taxa would exist,
21 and these distinct fungi would include unusual taxa. Analyses of the DNA sequence data
22 revealed that the two orchids shared 35 fungal OTUs. Twenty-four and seventeen OTUs were
23 exclusively detected in the roots of *H. barbertoni* and *H. epipactidea*, respectively. Mycorrhizal

24 fungi from the rust lineage Atractiellales (Atractiellomycetes, Pucciniomycotina) were only
25 detected in the roots of the endangered *H. barbertoni*, which represents the first report of these
26 fungi associated with orchids outside of the Andean rainforest. Our findings increase
27 knowledge of the diversity of mycorrhizae associated with indigenous orchids on the African
28 continent.

29

30 **Keywords** Agaricomycetes, Atractiellomycetes, *Habenaria*, orchid mycorrhizae, Pleosporales

31

32 **1. Introduction**

33 The Orchidaceae is one of the largest and most diverse families of flowering plants
34 (Givnish et al. 2015; Swarts and Dixon 2009). This diversity is reflected in the ability of the
35 plants to thrive in a wide range of habitats and climatic zones, including tropical, subtropical,
36 and alpine environments (Fay 2010). Orchids have a variety of unusual morphological and
37 physiological characteristics that help them adapt to different ecological environments, such as
38 symbiotic associations with specialised pollinators and mycorrhizal fungi (Byers 2021; Chase
39 et al. 2015; Favre-Godal et al. 2020; Štípková et al. 2020; Tremblay 1992).

40 Orchid mycorrhizae are fungi that symbiotically associate with orchid roots (Dearnaley
41 2007; Rasmussen and Rasmussen 2009). These fungi are a fundamental part of the orchid's
42 life cycle because they assist in the germination of seeds and nutrient acquisition throughout
43 the adult orchid's life (Favre-Godal et al. 2020). The vast majority of orchid mycorrhizae are
44 members of the lineage Basidiomycota, with only a few Ascomycota described so far
45 (Dearnaley 2007; Favre-Godal et al. 2020). Orchids were once thought to exclusively associate
46 with fungi from the '*Rhizoctonia*' group (Dearnaley et al. 2012). Newer research has shown that
47 orchid mycorrhizae originate from diverse fungal lineages (Jacquemyn et al. 2015; Kottke et

48 al. 2008; Kottke et al. 2010; Martos et al. 2009; Martos et al. 2012; McCormick et al. 2018;
49 Oja et al. 2015; Suárez et al. 2006; Suárez et al. 2008; Valadares et al. 2021). However, our
50 knowledge of the mycorrhizal diversity associated with some ubiquitous orchid genera, such
51 as *Habenaria*, is limited.

52 *Habenaria* is one of the largest genera of terrestrial orchids with 835 described species
53 (Govaerts et al. 2021). Species from this genus are widely distributed in the tropics and
54 subtropics, extending into temperate areas (Pridgeon et al. 2001). Southern Africa represents
55 one of the major centres of diversity for this genus (Kurzweil and Weber 1992). In South
56 Africa, 29 *Habenaria* species have been identified along the entire eastern coastline (Johnson
57 and Bytebier 2015). Several of these species thrive only in small refugia, such as *H. barbertoni*,
58 *H. bicolor*, *H. humilior*, *H. kraenzliniana* and *H. mossii* while others, such as *H. epipactidea*,
59 *H. arenaria*, *H. clavata*, *H. dregeana* and *H. falcicornis*, are widely distributed (Johnson and
60 Bytebier 2015). Echoing the global trend, several South African *Habenaria* species are
61 becoming rarer and are on the brink of extinction (SANBI Red List of South African Plants
62 2022, <http://redlist.sanbi.org/genus.php?genus=2829>)

63 In this study, we catalogued and compared the diversity of mycorrhizal fungi associated
64 with the roots of two native *Habenaria* species from South Africa, *H. barbertoni* and *H.*
65 *epipactidea* (Fig. 1A, B). In South Africa, both of these orchid species have overlapping
66 distribution zones, but *H. barbertoni* is of conservation concern, whilst the *H. epipactidea* is
67 not. We hypothesized that (1) the mycorrhizal diversity and composition associated with the
68 roots of these two orchid species would be similar, but that some unique fungal taxa would
69 exist in each species; and (2) the fungi which associate with the endangered *H. barbertoni* will
70 include unusual taxa.

71 **2. Materials and methods**

72 2.1 Collection of orchid samples

73 In May 2018, three samples each of *Habenaria barbertoni* and *Habenaria epipactidea*
74 were collected from a plot (-25.912111, 28.418389) near Pretoria, South Africa (Fig 1C, D).
75 The two orchid populations in this plot were separated by a linear distance of less than 400 m.

76 After collection, roots and tubers from each plant were repeatedly rinsed with tap water
77 followed by sterile deionised water. Roots and tuber samples were dried using paper towels
78 and stored at -20 °C until the extraction of DNA.

79 2.2 Extraction of DNA from orchid roots

80 All frozen root samples from both orchid species were separately homogenised using
81 liquid nitrogen. Between homogenization of different plant samples, the mortar and pestle were
82 surface sterilised with a 1% (v/v) sodium hypochlorite solution, followed by repeated rinsing
83 with sterile deionized water. Total genomic DNA was extracted from 50 mg of homogenised
84 root tissues using the MoBio Dneasy Powerplant Pro DNA Isolation Kit (Qiagen, Germany)
85 according to the manufacturer's instructions. The concentration of each DNA sample was
86 quantified using a NanoDrop™ 2000 spectrophotometer. Thereafter, all DNA samples were
87 stored at -20 °C until PCR amplification of the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) of mycorrhizal
88 fungi.

89 2.3 Amplification of fungi from root DNA extracts

90 For each DNA sample, two sets of PCR reactions were performed targeting the complete
91 ITS region (ITS1 spacer region -5.8S gene -ITS2 spacer region) using orchid mycorrhizae
92 specific primers. The first set of five technical replicates per sample was amplified using the
93 primers ITS1-OF and ITS4-OF (Taylor and McCormick 2008). The second set of five technical

94 replicates was amplified using the primers ITS1 and ITS4-Tul (Figure S1; Taylor and
95 McCormick 2008; White et al. 1990). The second set of amplifications aimed to capture the
96 diversity of fungi from the Tulasnellaceae (Taylor and McCormick 2008).

97 PCR reactions of 25 μ l included 5 μ l of 5 \times GoTaq Flexi Buffer (Promega, MI), 2.5 μ l
98 of MgCl₂ (Promega, MI), 0.1 μ l of dNTPs (Promega, MI), 1 μ l of BSA (Amresco, OH), 0.125
99 μ l of GoTaq Hot Start Polymerase (Promega, MI), 0.5 μ l of each primer, 2 μ l (conc. 20 ng/ μ l)
100 of DNA extracted from roots and the final volume was made up with PCR grade water. The
101 PCR temperature cycling for each primer pair was 96 °C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles of
102 94 °C for 30 sec, 60 °C for 40 sec (ITS1-OF + ITS4-OF) / 54 °C for 40 sec (ITS1 + ITS4-Tul),
103 72 °C for 1 min, and a final elongation for 72 °C for 10 min (Taylor and McCormick 2008).
104 Positive amplification of the gene regions was verified using gel electrophoresis.

105 2.4 Pooling of PCR products

106 To determine the relative concentrations of the PCR products, the gel images were
107 analysed using the software ImageJ v1.52q (Figure S1; Schneider et al. 2012). To standardize
108 the DNA contribution, the PCR replicates for each DNA sample were pooled into a single unit
109 based on the band intensity. Thereafter, 25 μ l of each pooled PCR product was purified twice
110 using Agencourt AMPure XP PCR purification beads (Beckman Coulter Genomics, USA) and
111 visualized using gel electrophoresis (Figure S1).

112 2.5 Preparation and sequencing of amplicon libraries

113 Purified PCR products from the pooling step were submitted to Inqaba Biotechnical
114 Industries (Pty) Ltd, South Africa for amplicon library preparation and Illumina MiSeq
115 sequencing. The raw Illumina MiSeq sequencing data were deposited in the NCBI Sequence

116 Read Archive (<https://submit.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/subs/sra/>) under the accession number
117 PRJNA693177.

118 *2.6 Bioinformatics analyses of high-throughput sequence data*

119 The single-end high-throughput sequencing data were demultiplexed by the sequencing
120 facility. Fungal ITS 1 data were analysed using the bioinformatics workflow provided by
121 Quantitative Insights into Microbial Ecology 2 (QIIME 2) v2020.8 (Bolyen et al. 2019).
122 Filtering, trimming, denoising, and removing singletons and chimaeras were accomplished
123 using the 'q2-dada2' plugin (Callahan et al. 2016). During this step, the filtering settings were
124 set at a Phred quality score of 30 and a sequence length cut-off of 200 bp. All sequences that
125 did not fulfil these criteria were removed from the analyses. The 'q2-vsearch' plugin (Rognes
126 et al. 2016) was used for *de novo* assembly of the reads with 98 % sequence similarity. Using
127 the UNITE fungal ITS database v8.3 (Abarenkov et al. 2021) as a reference, the 'qiime feature-
128 classifier' (Rognes et al. 2016) was used to assign taxonomy to the operational taxonomic units
129 (OTUs).

130 *2.7 Mycorrhizal community diversity and composition*

131 The mycorrhizal taxonomic composition of the two orchid species (*H. barbertoni* and *H.*
132 *epipactidea*) was summarised in a taxonomic tree using the 'Metacoder' package of the R
133 software (Foster et al. 2016; R Core Team 2021). Moreover, a heat map depicting the
134 abundance of taxa between the two orchid species was constructed using the plot heatmap
135 function available through the 'phyloseq' package (McMurdie and Holmes 2013) of R
136 software.

137 To analyse the mycorrhizal diversity of the two orchid species, richness, and Shannon
138 and Simpson diversity indices were calculated for each sample. To analyse mycorrhizal species

139 richness, the number of taxa per sample was calculated. The effect of the different orchid
140 species on the richness and each diversity index was analysed using a one-way ANOVA
141 followed by a Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) *post hoc* test to do pairwise
142 comparisons of the means. In all cases, model validity was checked and the 'agricolae' package
143 of the R software was used to analyse mycorrhizal diversity (de Mendiburu 2021; R Core Team
144 2021).

145 Differences among the mycorrhizal community composition of *H. barbertoni* and *H.*
146 *epipactidea* were depicted using a Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA). PCoA was
147 conducted on an abundance matrix using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity. To assess whether the two
148 orchid species showed statistically different mycorrhizal community composition, we
149 employed a permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA). The vegan
150 package of the R software (Oksanen et al. 2020; R Core Team 2021) was used to analyse the
151 community composition.

152 **3. Results**

153 *3.1 Bioinformatics analyses of high-throughput sequence data*

154 High-throughput sequencing of six root DNA samples resulted in 292,232 raw reads.
155 After quality filtering, 236,419 reads were used for downstream analysis. Assembling of these
156 filtered reads corresponded to 75 fungal OTUs from the phyla Ascomycota (61.3%),
157 Basidiomycota (34.6%), Mortierellomycota (2.6%), and Mucoromycota (1.3%) (Fig. 2, 3).

158 The fungal OTUs identified in the roots of the two orchid species overlapped but their
159 presence differed amongst orchid species (Fig. 3). For example, fungal OTUs from the orchid
160 mycorrhizal orders Cantharellales and Sebaciniales were more abundant in the roots of *H.*
161 *barbertoni* than in the roots of *H. epipactidea* (Fig. 3). Twenty-four fungal OTUs were unique

162 to the roots of *H. barbertoni*. Some of these distinct fungal OTUs belonged to the orders
163 Pleosporales, Sebaciales, and Atractiellales (Fig. 3). Sixteen OTUs were unique in *H.*
164 *epipactidea*, which included taxa from the Pleosporales and Sebaciales (Fig. 3).

165 A total of 59 fungal OTUs were detected from the roots of *H. barbertoni* (Fig. 3) of which
166 35 OTUs represented Ascomycota, 17 Basidiomycota while the remaining were from
167 Mortierellomycota and Mucoromycota (Fig. 3). Three fungal orders containing orchid
168 mycorrhizae were detected from the Basidiomycota. These were the Cantharellales (3 OTUs),
169 Sebaciales (1 OTU), and Atractiellales (2 OTUs) (Fig. 3).

170 *Habenaria epipactidea* roots harboured a total of 51 fungal OTUs (Fig. 3). Among these,
171 30 OTUs represented Ascomycota, 18 were from the Basidiomycota, and the rest were from
172 Mortierellomycota and Mucoromycota (Fig. 3). Among the Basidiomycota OTUs, two orders
173 were detected with previously described orchid mycorrhizae. These are the Cantharellales (3
174 OTUs), and Sebaciales (1 OTU) (Fig. 3).

175 Apart from orchid mycorrhizal fungi, other fungi were also detected in the orchid roots.
176 These fungi were from the orders Pleosporales, Capnodiales, Chaetothyriales, Hypocreales,
177 Sordariales, Trichosphaeriales, Xylariales, Leucosporidiales, Sporidiobolales, Tremellales,
178 and Mortierellales (Fig. 2, 3). Both orchid species contained a diverse assemblage of fungi
179 from the classes Microbotryomycetes and Tremellomycetes (Fig. 2, 3), including mostly yeast-
180 like unicellular fungi, such as those from the families Leucosporidiaceae, Sporidiobolaceae,
181 Filobasidiaceae, Trimorphomycetaceae, and a few more (Fig. 2, 3).

182 3.2 Mycorrhizal community diversity and composition

183 Mycorrhizal community diversity (richness and Shannon and Simpson indexes) did not
184 differ between *H. barbertoni* and *H. epipactidea* ($P > 0.05$; Fig. 4). The PCoA plot showed a

185 dispersed pattern in the mycorrhizal community composition between the two orchid species
186 (Figure 5). However, the PERMANOVA did not confirm that the orchid species explained the
187 variation in mycorrhizal community composition ($F = 6.05$, $r^2 = 0.60$, $P = 0.1$).

188 **4. Discussion**

189 Using high-throughput sequencing, we compared the communities of orchid mycorrhizal
190 fungi associated with the roots of two South African endemic orchid species, *H. barbertoni*
191 and *H. epipactidea*. Analyses of the sequence data revealed a significant number of taxa that
192 were shared between the two orchid species. However, twenty-four fungal OTUs were found
193 exclusively in the roots of *H. barbertoni*, while seventeen were found only in the roots of *H.*
194 *epipactidea*. The roots of the endangered orchid *H. barbertoni* contained OTUs from the orchid
195 mycorrhizae orders Atractiellales, Cantharellales, and Sebaciniales.

196 A large number of fungal OTUs were found in both orchid species. This was not
197 surprising given that these orchid species are from the same genus, *Habenaria* and have an
198 overlapping distribution in South Africa (Johnson and Bytebier 2015). This was evident at our
199 sampling site where the populations of both orchids were growing close to each other. A similar
200 pattern was also seen in studies comparing mycorrhizal diversity associated with orchids from
201 the same genus (Ercole et al. 2015; Waterman et al. 2011; Xing et al. 2015; Yukawa et al.
202 2009). However, despite the similarity in the general diversity and community composition,
203 the abundance of many individual shared fungal OTUs differed widely in the two orchid
204 species.

205 The read abundances of common mycorrhizal OTUs from the Cantharellales differed
206 substantially between the two orchid species. It is, however, well known that read abundances
207 between-species comparisons can be skewed (Amend et al. 2010; Johnson et al. 2021) and

208 caution must be exercised when assessing hypotheses based on read abundance data (Amend
209 et al. 2010; Anslan et al. 2018; Nilsson et al. 2019). Read counts in our study were consistent
210 between the biological replicates of each orchid species and thus it is unlikely that the variation
211 in abundance of mutually shared fungal OTUs stems from sequencing bias. As a result, we
212 believe the observed variations in abundance are related to plant age and species. Both of these
213 factors influence the structural barriers in plants, influencing the colonization by mycorrhizal
214 fungi (Chomicki et al. 2014; Soudzilovskaia et al. 2020; Teste et al. 2020).

215 We detected some orchid mycorrhizal fungal OTUs that were unique in one of the orchid
216 species. These included fungal OTUs from the orders Atractiellales and Sebaciniales. Among
217 these, two OTUs from the Atractiellales (Atractiellomycetes) were exclusively detected in the
218 roots of *H. barbertoni*. These included *Atractiella rhizophila* and an ‘unidentified
219 Atractiellales’. This class is the only lineage of rust fungi (Pucciniomycotina) that form
220 symbiotic associations with orchids (Kottke et al. 2010). To date, Atractiellomycetes were
221 exclusively detected in the roots of epiphytic neotropical orchids from the northern Andean
222 mountain rainforest (Kottke et al. 2010). Finding these fungi associated with a South African
223 orchid species is particularly interesting and further research is needed.

224 Kottke et al. (2010) suggested that the association between Atractiellomycetes and
225 orchids is an example of an early evolutionary event in the development of orchid mycorrhizae.
226 This group of mycorrhizae originated during the Late Cretaceous, 100-66 mya (Brundrett and
227 Tedersoo 2018). However, classes within Pucciniomycotina, such as the Atractiellomycetes,
228 emerged much earlier, between 211–383 Mya (He et al. 2019; Zhao et al. 2017). As a result,
229 following the mass extinction event during the Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary (65.5 mya),
230 orchids most likely formed symbiotic interactions with Atractiellomycetes and other unique

231 fungi for adapting to the changing environment (Benton et al. 2021). This and other strategies
232 allowed orchids to radiate rapidly during this period (Ramírez et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2018).

233 We detected several OTUs of saprophytic and phytopathogenic fungi from the orders
234 Pleosporales, Capnodiales, Hypocreales, and Xylariales. Pleosporales have been previously
235 described as growth-promoting orchid associated fungi, but their mycorrhizal status has not
236 been confirmed yet (Jacquemyn et al., 2017). In addition, a few OTUs from unknown *Fusarium*
237 species were detected. This genus includes fungi that are pathogenic to several orchid species
238 (Srivastava et al. 2018). However, recent studies have indicated that *Fusarium oxysporum* can
239 also form orchid mycorrhizal associations (Jiang et al. 2019). Similar to those orchid
240 mycorrhizae identified from mycoheterotrophic orchids, some of these saprophytic or
241 pathogenic fungi detected in this study perhaps form symbiotic associations with *Habenaria*
242 (Johnson et al. 2021; Kottke et al. 2010; Martos et al. 2009). Infection trials would be needed
243 to confirm this hypothesis.

244 We detected an assortment of yeast-like unicellular fungi from the phyla
245 Microbotryomycetes and Tremellomycetes (Basidiomycota). So far, no yeast-like unicellular
246 fungi are known to form symbiotic relationships with plants. However, research revealed that
247 these yeast-like unicellular fungi can increase mycorrhizal colonisation leading to improved
248 nutrient absorption and enhanced stress tolerance in plants (Alonso et al. 2008; Azcón et al.
249 2013; Botha 2011; Gollner et al. 2006; Mestre and Fontenla 2021; Sampedro et al. 2004;
250 Yurkov et al. 2012). Consequently, these unicellular fungi may be endophytes of the two
251 *Habenaria* species (Scholtysik et al. 2013; Solis et al. 2015) which may perform similar
252 services in the orchid-mycorrhizae symbiosis.

253 Previously, both Waterman et al. (2011) and Makwela et al. (2022) studied the diversity
254 of mycorrhizae associated with endemic South African orchids. The current study and the one

255 by Makwela and co-workers were both conducted in the Gauteng Province of South Africa,
256 whereas Waterman and co-workers focussed on the orchid species from the Eastern and
257 Western Cape Provinces. The sampling sites of our study were significantly different from the
258 other study conducted in Gauteng and geographically separated by big urban developments.
259 Nevertheless, comparing the studies from Gauteng revealed both overlapping (Cantharellales
260 and Sebaciales) and unique orchid mycorrhizal fungi. However, the abundance of these
261 overlapping fungal OTUs significantly differed between these studies. For example,
262 Cantharellales were more abundant among *Habernaria* species than in *Brachycorythis conica*
263 subsp. *transvaalensis*, while Sebaciales were present at lower frequencies. It is noteworthy
264 that fungi from the Ceratobasidiaceae were abundant among the orchids from the Cape
265 Provinces but absent from the orchids studied in Gauteng. Based on these studies, we
266 hypothesise that the Ceratobasidiaceae may be widespread in the soil of coastal Southern Africa
267 but are rare inland.

268 **5. Conclusions**

269 We compared the community of mycorrhizal fungi associated with the roots of two
270 indigenous *Habernaria* species from South Africa. Our data showed that the mycorrhizal
271 community associated with these two species was similar, but each orchid also harboured a
272 few unique fungal associates. We also detected mycorrhizal fungi from the Atractiellomycetes
273 that were uniquely associated with the roots of *H. barbertoni*. Previously, these fungi were
274 exclusively reported from orchids living in Peruvian forests. At the same time, we identified
275 several fungi that potentially might fulfil mycorrhizal functions, such as the Pleosporales and
276 *F. oxysporum*. In future, isolations of the fungi identified in this study for use and infection
277 study will be necessary to test their role in the orchids' life history. Overall, the findings of this
278 study add to our understanding of the mycorrhizal diversity associated with indigenous South

279 African orchids and can ultimately be utilised to help conserve endangered species such as *H.*
280 *barbertoni*.

281 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

282 The authors state that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
283 connections that may seem to have influenced the work described in this publication.

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- 488

489 **Figure legends**

490 **Figure 1.** Above-ground plant with inflorescence, (A) *Habenaria barbertoni* and, (B)
491 *Habenaria epipactidea*. Tuberous root system used in this study for metabarcoding orchid
492 mycorrhizal diversity (C) *Habenaria barbertoni* and, (D) *Habenaria epipactidea*.

493 **Figure 2.** Taxonomic composition of fungi associated with *Habenaria barbertoni* and
494 *Habenaria epipactidea* roots. Where available, the heat tree depicts a fungal community
495 structure as a taxonomic hierarchy up to the species level. The size of each node and edge is
496 proportional to the number of OTUs within each taxon, and the colour indicates taxon
497 abundance (sum of reads).

498 **Figure 3.** A heat map depicting the fungal OTUs found in the roots of *Habenaria barbertoni*
499 and *Habenaria epipactidea*. The Venn diagram shows the shared and distinct fungal OTUs
500 identified in these two orchids. OTUs detected from both orchid species = black font,
501 *Habenaria barbertoni* only = red font, and *Habenaria epipactidea* only = blue font.

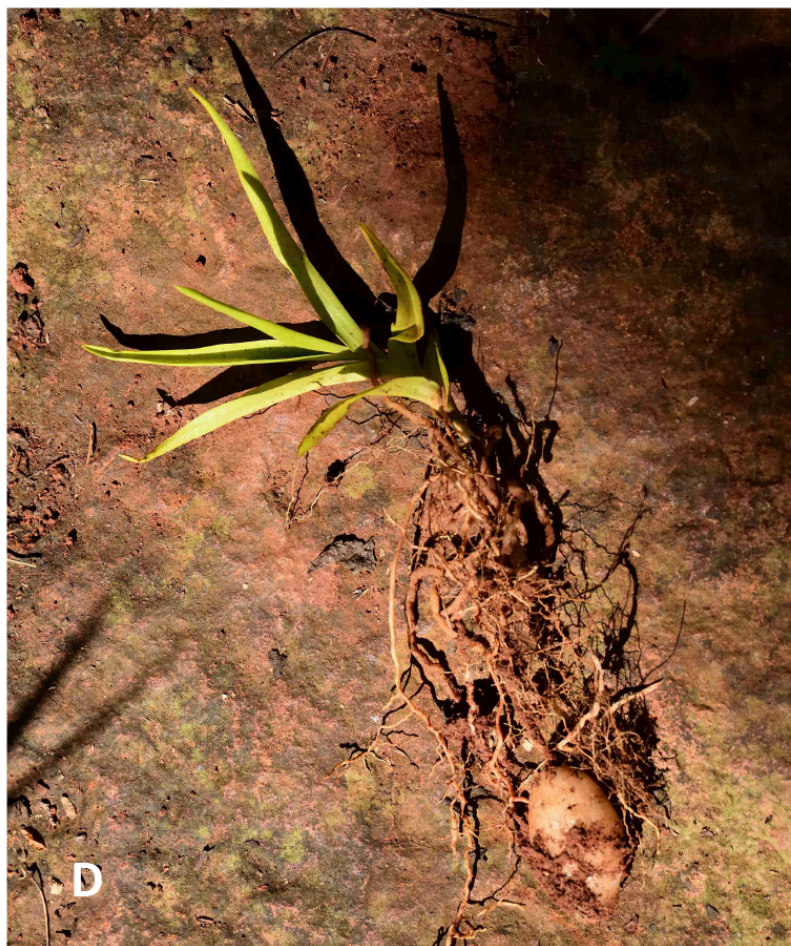
502 **Figure 4.** Box plots analysing fungal diversity indices of *Habenaria barbertoni* and *Habenaria*
503 *epipactidea* roots.

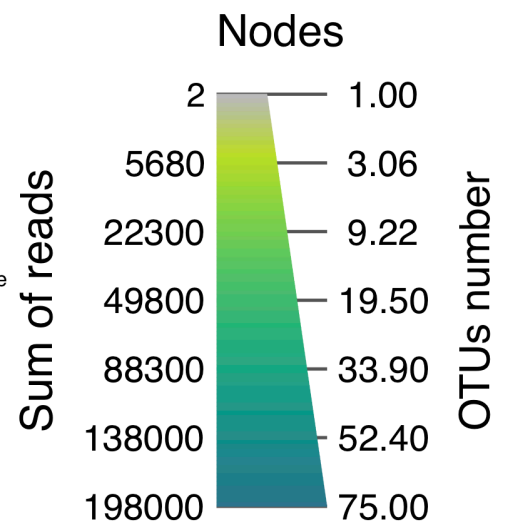
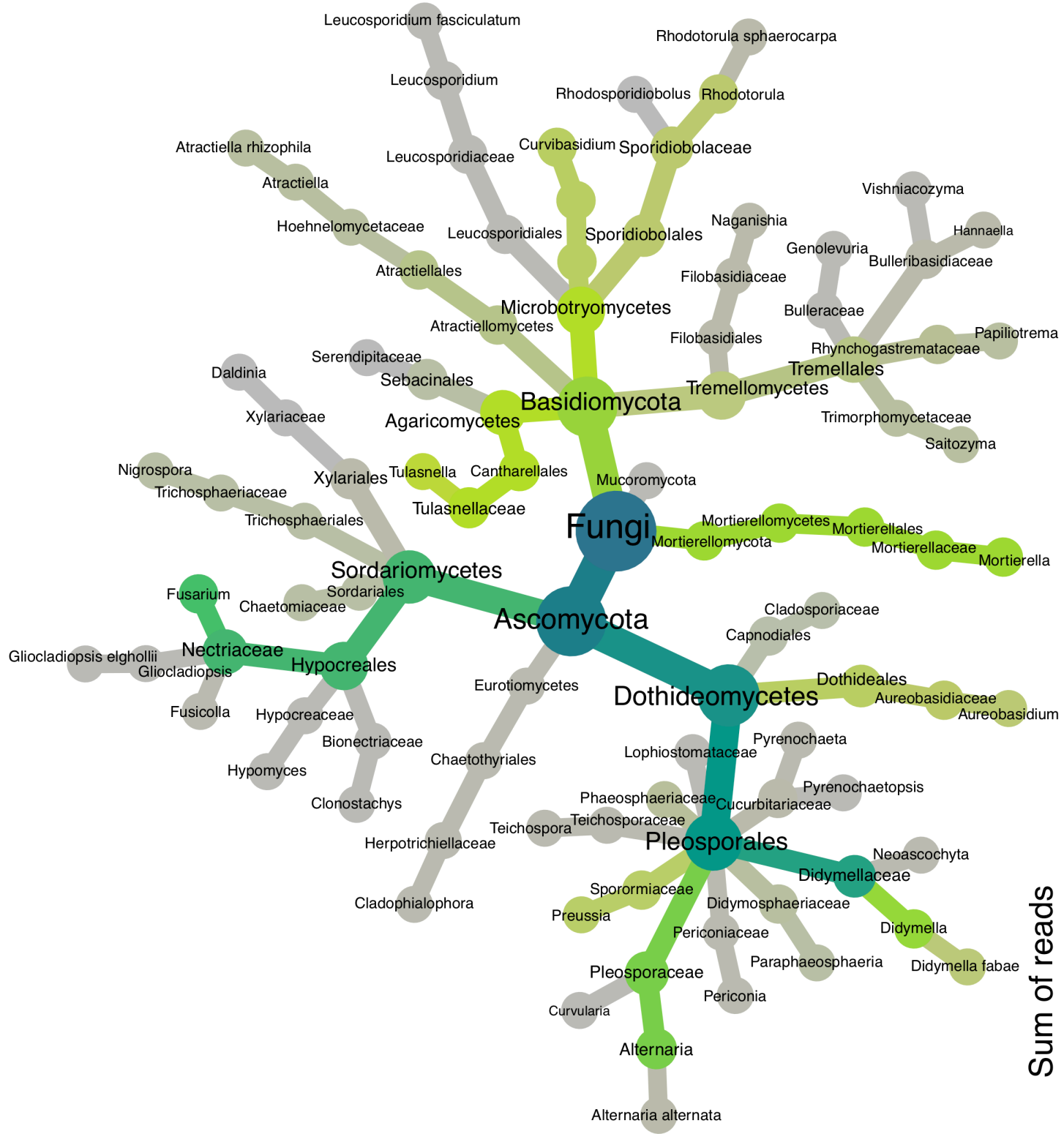
504 **Figure 5.** Principal Coordinate Analysis of mycorrhizal community composition associated
505 with the roots of *Habenaria barbertoni* and *Habenaria epipactidea*.

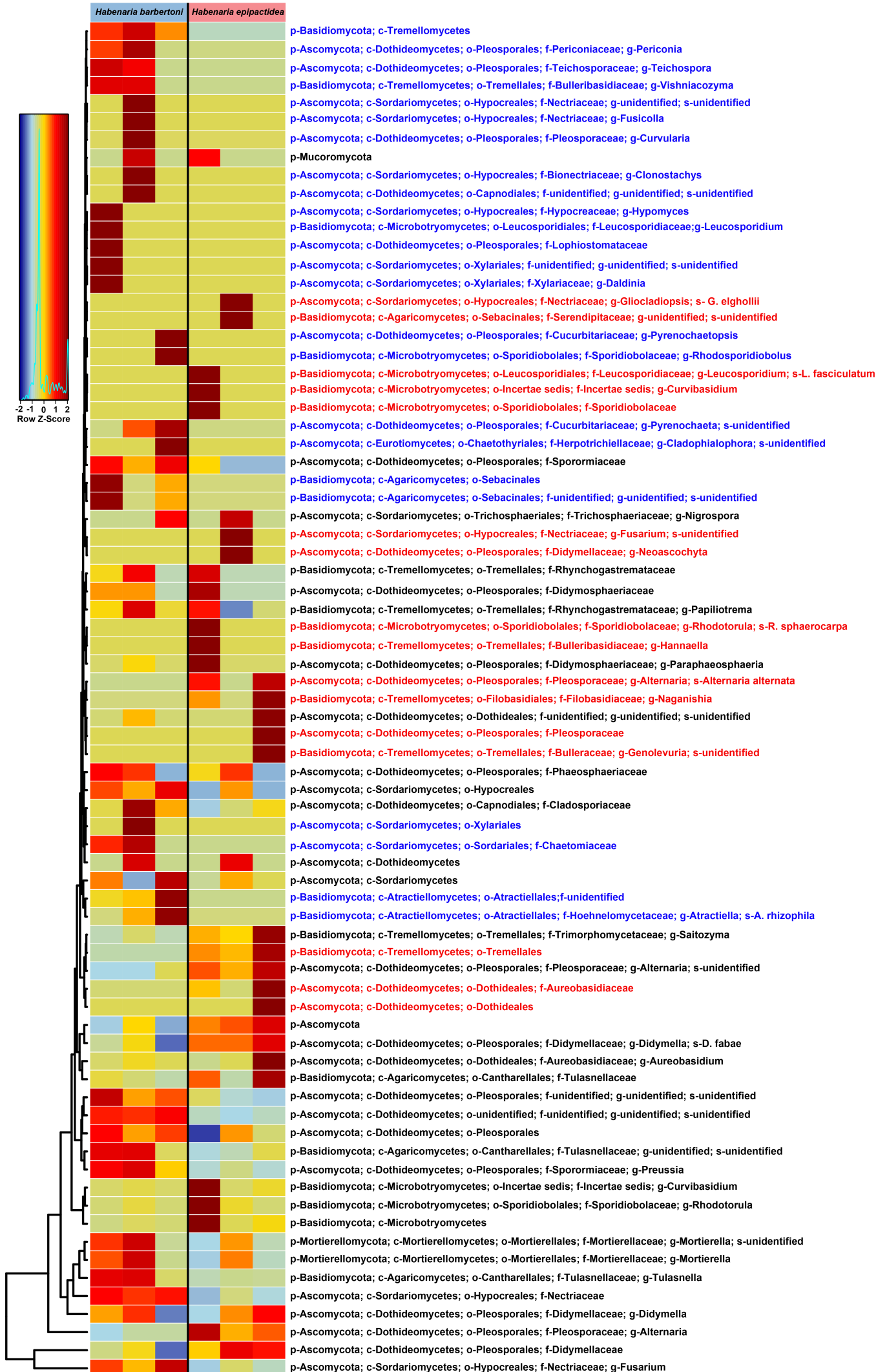
506 **Figure S1.** PCR product purification steps used in this study. After merging the replicates for
507 each PCR reaction using either of the primer pairs, the products were purified with Agencourt
508 AMPure XP PCR purification beads. Following that, the relative concentrations of the PCR
509 products were determined using ImageJ v1.52q. To standardise the DNA contribution, the PCR
510 products were pooled into a single unit based on band intensity. All pools were purified in
511 between the steps.

512

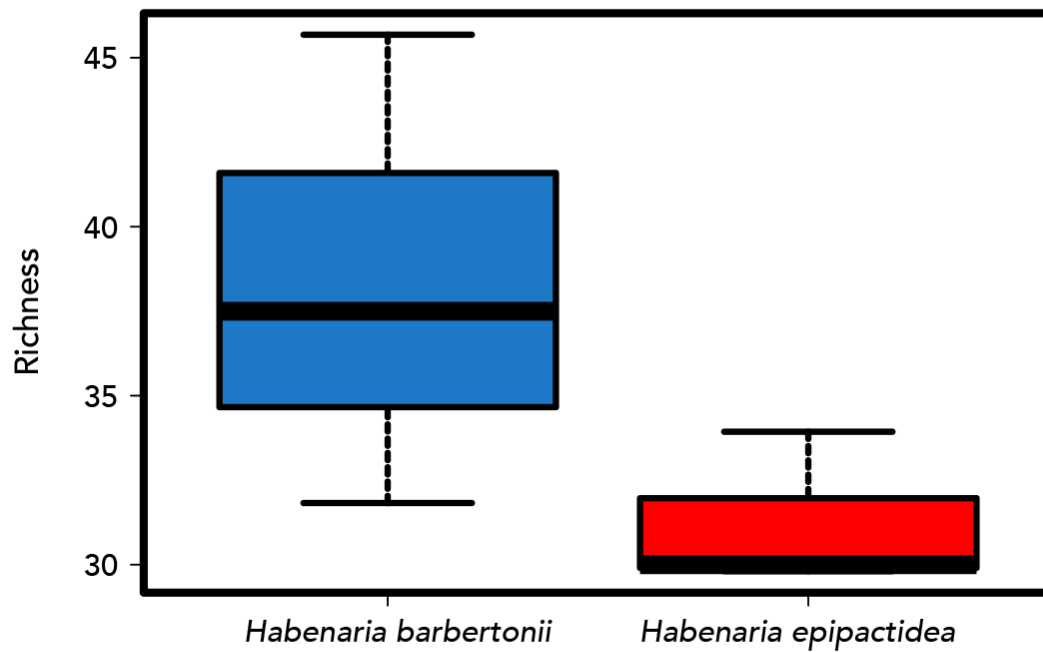
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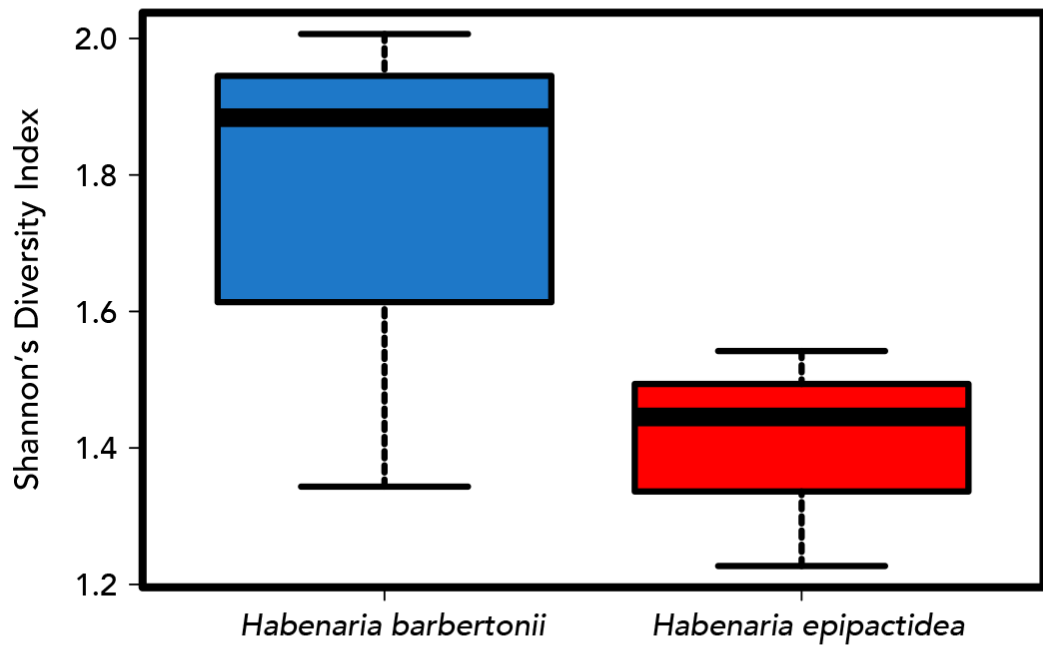




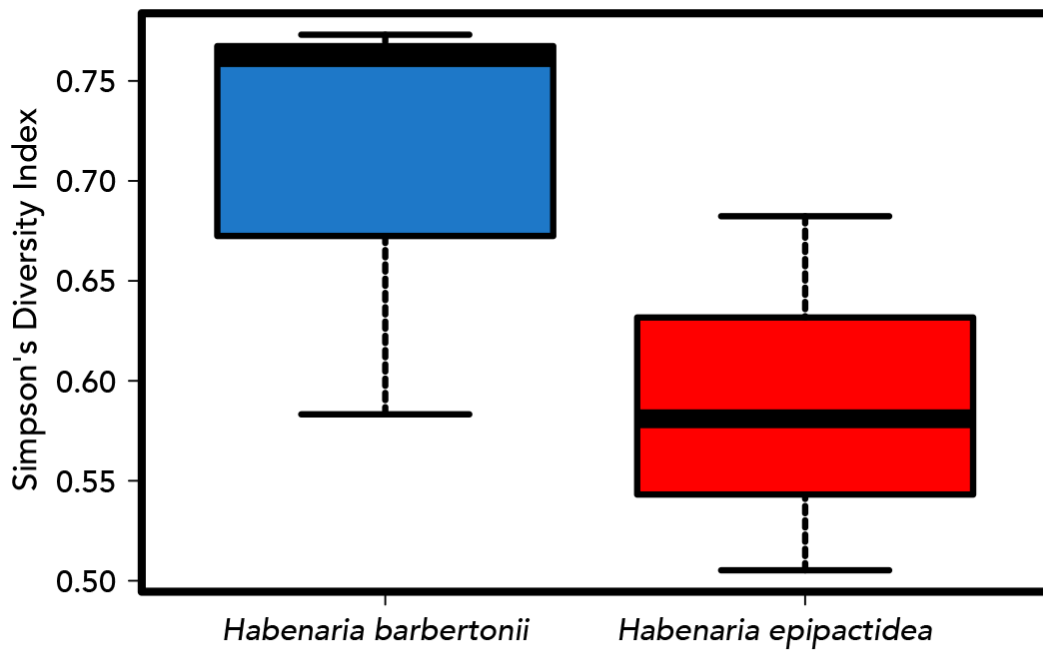
p=0.17 (ANOVA)



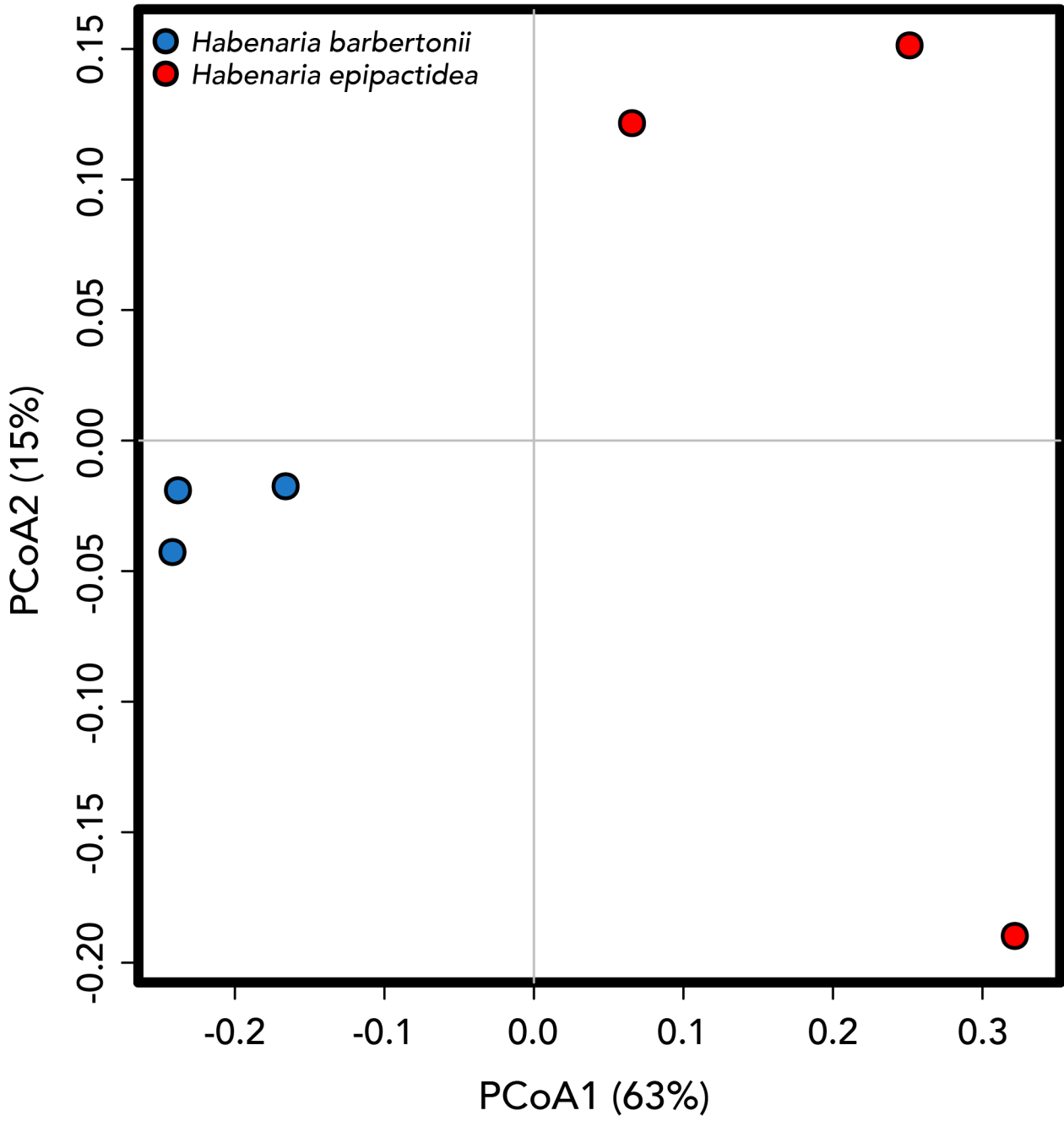
p=0.2 (ANOVA)



p=0.22 (ANOVA)



PCoA Bray-Curtis



Three PCR replicates were combined into a single unit for each sample and primer pair

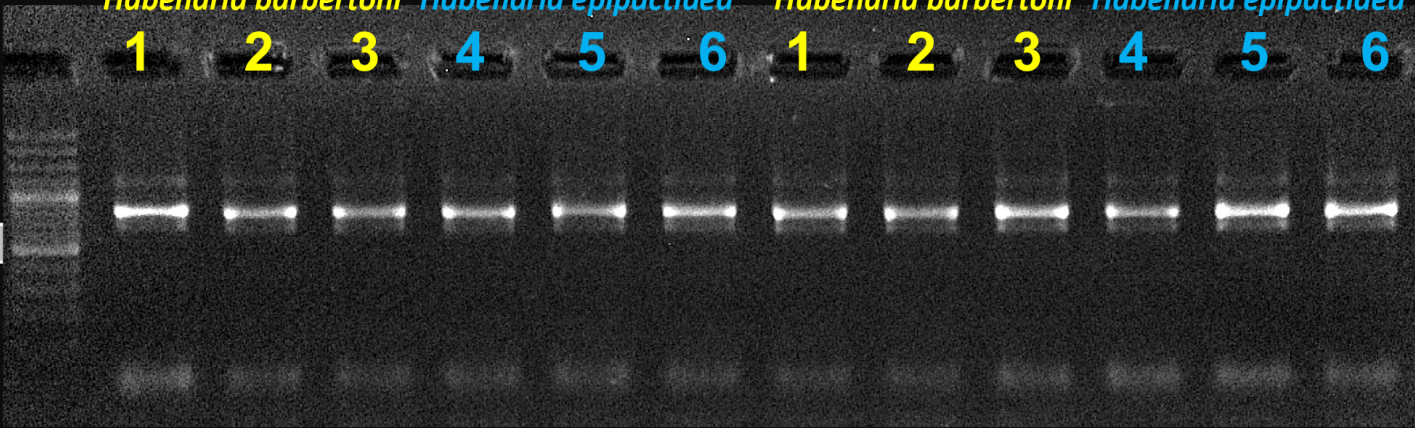


Primers: ITS1-OF/ITS4-OF

Primers: ITS1/ITS4-Tul

Habenaria barbertoni *Habenaria epipactidea* *Habenaria barbertoni* *Habenaria epipactidea*

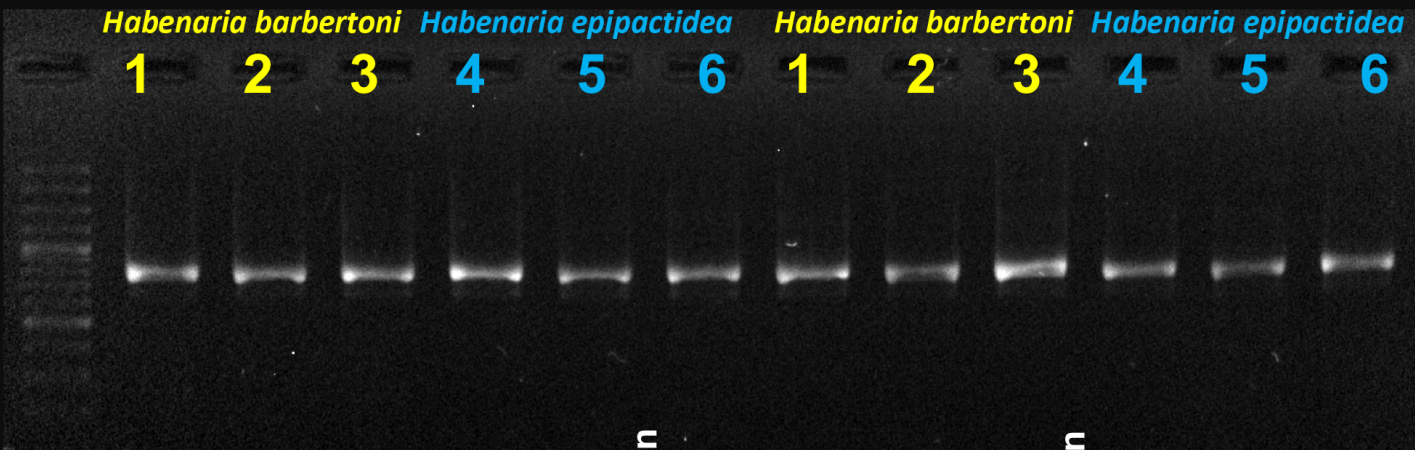
1 2 3 4 5 6 1 2 3 4 5 6



Purification with purification beads

Habenaria barbertoni *Habenaria epipactidea* *Habenaria barbertoni* *Habenaria epipactidea*

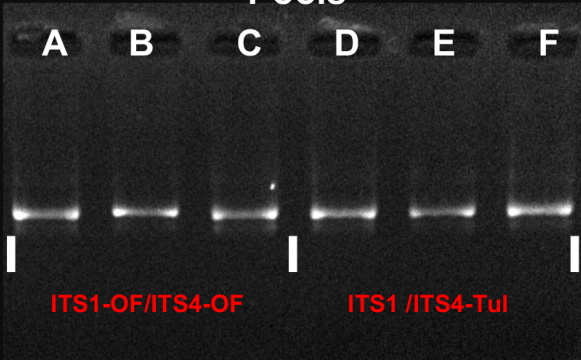
1 2 3 4 5 6 1 2 3 4 5 6



First pooling

Pools

A B C D E F



ITS1-OF/ITS4-OF

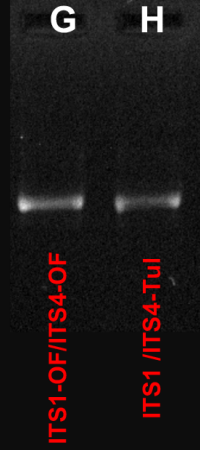
ITS1 /ITS4-Tul

Purification

Second pooling

Pools

G H



ITS1-OF/ITS4-OF

ITS1 /ITS4-Tul

Purification

Final sample submitted for Illumina sequencing

