

1 **Methods**

2 *Species distribution modelling*

3 We replicated earlier SDMs for OTU-C and OTU-O (Freestone et al. 2021), using both the observations
4 that they reported for the two taxa, and the refined observation records that we developed here for
5 each taxon. As with previous modelling, we only used the Australian Microbiome Initiative soil
6 sequencing data to train our models and did not use locations of records isolated from orchid
7 symbioses.

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9 As with earlier SDMs of soil microbes, we used MaxEnt version 3.3.3a (Phillips et al. 2006; Phillips and
10 Dudik 2008) implemented in the R package 'dismo' (Hijmans et al. 2017) to produce presence-
11 background models of distribution. The number of records for each OTU differed according to the two
12 refinements of the Australian Microbiome Initiative data (Table S1). However, in each model we
13 removed duplicate records within single grid cells were removed (Elith et al. 2011; Newbold et al.
14 2010). To account for stochasticity of the random background, we constructed five independent
15 background (pseudoabsence) data sets (Elliott et al. 2024), each 100 times the number of unique
16 occurrence locations of each OTU (i.e. the number of occupied grid cells with all duplicate records
17 removed). We optimised the modelling parameters using the *ENMevaluate* algorithm in the R package
18 'ENMeval' (Kass et al. 2021) by iteratively tuning both the regularization multiplier (0.0-2.0 at intervals
19 of 0.2) and the feature classes (linear and linear-quadratic; Elith et al. (2011); Merow et al. (2013). For
20 each combination of parameter settings, we evaluated the model against five unique background
21 draws, and assessed the model performance using the ensemble average. The combination that
22 consistently produced the lowest delta AICc was used to define the MaxEnt parameter settings (Table
23 S1). For each independent replicate, we developed logistic likelihoods of habitat suitability, ranging
24 from zero at the lowest likelihood of presence to one at the strongest prediction for presence (Phillips
25 et al. 2006).

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27 The MaxEnt distribution models were constructed in two phases. In the first phase, we replicated
28 earlier climatically-informed models (Freestone et al. 2021), using Bioclim parameters (Hijmans et al.
29 2005; Xu and Hutchinson 2011), calculated at 30 arc-second resolution ($\sim 1 \text{ km}^2$). The climatically-
30 informed models were constructed using mean temperatures of the wettest (Bio08) and driest
31 quarters (Bio09), the mean temperatures of the warmest (Bio10) and coolest quarters (Bio11), the
32 mean soil moisture indices of the wettest (Bio32) and driest quarters (Bio33), and the mean soil
33 moisture indices of the warmest (Bio34) and coolest quarters (Bio35). The second phase of SDMs were
34 developed using geomorphological and edaphic data that have previously proven useful in modelling

the distributions of short-range endemic plants (Lewandrowski et al. 2024; Tomlinson et al. 2019). These data represent elevation, aspect, and slope (Gallant and Austin 2012a, b; Gallant et al. 2011), clay, sand, and silt percentage at 15 cm depth (Viscarra Rossel et al. 2014a, c, d), pH (Viscarra Rossel et al. 2014b) and soil bulk density and depth (interpolated from national soil data provided by the Australian Collaborative Land Evaluation Program ACLEP, endorsed through the National Committee on Soil and Terrain NCST (www.clw.csiro.au/aclep)). As with earlier efforts to refine the bioclimatic correlates of distribution, we constructed a pilot model using all the edaphic and geomorphological correlates, and then rendered the most parsimonious model using the *dredge* and *model.avg* functions in the ‘MuMIn’ package in R (Barton 2013). The final model was constructed using elevation and slope, clay, sand, and silt composition, pH and soil bulk density. In the final phase, continental-scale projections of the climatic and edaphic models were multiplied to generate a composite estimate of habitat suitability for each microbial taxon.

We evaluated model performance by calculating the area under the threshold-independent receiver-operating characteristic (ROC) curve (AUC), using values >0.9 to indicate well-validated models (Swets 1988). We also calculated the True Skill Score (TSS) as a test of model robustness (Allouche et al. 2006; Williams et al. 2009) using the *evalSDM* function in the ‘mecofun’ v0.1.1 package (Zurell 2020). Models with TSS < 0.4 were identified as poor, while models with TSS > 0.6 were identified as performing well (Beauregard and de Blois 2014). We calculated a Boyce index of correlation between presence and suitability (Boyce et al. 2002) using the *ecospat.boyce* function in the ‘ecospat’ package (Di Cola et al. 2017). These performance metrics were calculated over 100-iteration bootstraps using 10% test presence, which reserves 10% of the known occurrence locations for testing the resulting models (Phillips et al. 2006; Phillips and Dudik 2008). Finally, a weighted ensemble mean of habitat suitability for both climatically-informed and edaphically-informed models was calculated, where models with higher TSS were weighted more heavily in the average than models with lower correlation scores (Elliott et al. 2024).

To assess the difference in potential distributions caused by changes in the identification of known locations between the Australian Microbiome Initiative data used by Freestone et al. (2021), and the location data developed here, we calculated niche overlap within taxa between the two model versions. Niche overlap was estimated by calculating Schoener’s D from the combined habitat suitability projection (i.e. incorporating both climatic and edaphic models) using the *calc.niche.overlap* function in the ‘ENMeval’ package (Kass et al. 2021). We also estimated the difference in potential area of occupancy between the two iterations of the SDM. To do this, we converted the ensemble

69 model projections to binary estimates using the TSS threshold as our limit to the habitable niche, and
70 calculated the area of habitat above this threshold using the *cellSize* function of the 'terra' R package
71 (Hijmans 2023).

72

73 **Results**

74 *Species distribution modelling*

75 The climate-only projections using the location data reported by Freestone et al. (2021) remain highly
76 consistent, with moderate likelihood of occurrence of OTU C around much of the periphery of
77 continental Australia and OTU O modelled to occur across the majority of southern, eastern and
78 northern Australia (Figure 1). The addition of an edaphic filter, however, substantially altered the areas
79 of projected habitat suitability, restricting OTU C to the southwest of Western Australia, and eastern
80 coastal regions particularly coastal areas of north-east Queensland (east of the Great Dividing Range),
81 and mountainous areas of south-eastern Victoria and New South Wales and Tasmania (Figure 1).
82 Primarily, the edaphic filter restricted OTU C to relatively shallow slopes with low bulk density (Figure
83 S1 and S2). The addition of an edaphic filter constrained the distribution of OTU O even more severely,
84 modelling the species to occur only in high altitude regions of Victoria, New South Wales and Tasmania
85 (Figure 1), in alkaline, low elevation soils (Figure S1 and S2).

86

87 By comparison, when modelled using the newer occurrence data, the distribution of OTU C was most
88 strongly correlated with relatively low moisture in the coldest quarter, and relatively high moisture in
89 the wettest quarter and steeper, sandy soils (Figure S1 and S2). The resulting combined distribution
90 showed high likelihoods of occurrence in south-west Australia, south-eastern coastal and mountainous
91 regions, and up the eastern coast to monsoonal north Queensland (Figure 1). The highest likelihoods
92 of occurrence (ranging from 88-97 %) were projected at locations along the southeastern coastline,
93 from the tip of the Fleurieu Peninsula in South Australia to Cape York. A total of 73% of presence
94 locations occurred within the modelled binary area of occupancy. The distribution of OTU O was most
95 strongly correlated with relatively low moisture in the coldest quarter and low bulk density, sandy soils
96 (Figure S1 and S2). The resulting combined distribution showed much more diverse distribution of
97 likely occurrence across most of southern Australia, specifically the southwest and southeastern parts
98 of the continent, and eastern Tasmania (Figure 1). The highest likelihood of occurrence (75 %) was
99 projected at an occurrence location in southeastern Victoria and Tasmania. A total of 86% of presence
100 locations occurred within the modelled binary area of occupancy.

101

102 The contemporary (2024 data) models for both OTUs appear to be generally robust; climate-only
103 models returned AUC > 0.7 (OTU C = 0.852, OTU O = 0.764), and TSS of ~0.6 (OTU C = 0.706, OTU O =
104 0.625), while edaphic models returned AUC > 0.7 (OTU C = 0.881, OTU O = 0.796), and TSS of ~0.6 (OTU
105 C = 0.732, OTU O = 0.665). Intraspecific niche overlap between the models trained with the Freestone
106 et al. (2021) occurrence data and the contemporary occurrence data was low (OTU C = 0.598; OTU O
107 = 0.269), projecting 23,147 km² more suitable area for OTU C, and 1,075,343 km² more suitable area
108 for OTU O.

Table S1: Number of training points and optimised parameters contributing to each iteration of the MaxEnt models for each mycorrhizal fungus OTU. N represents the total number of records, while (n) represent the unique training records after duplicates have been removed. “L” indicates a linear response function, and “LQ” indicates a linear-quadratic response function.

	Taxon	2021 training data						2024 training data					
		N (n)	curve	multiplier	AUC	TSS	Boyce	N (n)	curve	multiplier	AUC	TSS	Boyce
climatic models	OTU C	Replicate 1			0.805	0.615	0.824				0.854	0.711	0.547
		Replicate 2			0.794	0.602	0.791				0.864	0.713	0.579
		Replicate 3			0.797	0.607	0.824				0.853	0.717	0.664
		Replicate 4			0.813	0.638	0.787				0.839	0.689	0.630
		Replicate 5			0.774	0.579	0.812				0.851	0.700	0.656
		54 (49)	L	0.2	0.796	0.608	0.808	48 (35)	L	0.01	0.852	0.706	0.615
	OTU O	Replicate 1			0.891	0.770	0.726				0.770	0.623	0.695
		Replicate 2			0.912	0.804	0.693				0.757	0.625	0.594
		Replicate 3			0.930	0.839	0.755				0.784	0.656	0.713
		Replicate 4			0.906	0.800	0.730				0.758	0.610	0.700
		Replicate 5			0.908	0.795	0.765				0.750	0.612	0.634
		46 (39)	LQ	1.2	0.909	0.801	0.734	21 (20)	L	1.26	0.764	0.625	0.667
edaphic models	OTU C	Replicate 1			0.737	0.557	0.711				0.864	0.700	0.821
		Replicate 2			0.764	0.592	0.700				0.877	0.725	0.870
		Replicate 3			0.750	0.568	0.687				0.900	0.760	0.866
		Replicate 4			0.758	0.564	0.734				0.890	0.749	0.882
		Replicate 5			0.758	0.582	0.701				0.876	0.724	0.884
		54 (49)	L	0.8	0.753	0.572	0.707	48 (35)	LQ	1.2	0.881	0.732	0.865
	OTU O	Replicate 1			0.835	0.676	0.625				0.799	0.662	0.713
		Replicate 2			0.848	0.699	0.623				0.794	0.668	0.523
		Replicate 3			0.836	0.662	0.626				0.803	0.676	0.471
		Replicate 4			0.847	0.691	0.647				0.801	0.667	0.591
		Replicate 5			0.823	0.656	0.670				0.783	0.649	0.548
		46 (39)	L	0.2	0.838	0.677	0.638	21 (20)	LQ	1.0	0.796	0.665	0.569

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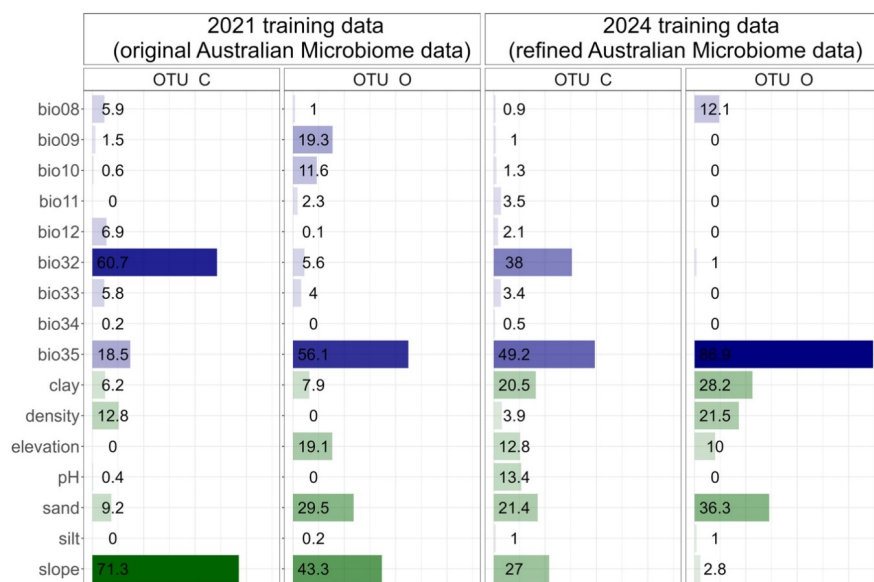


Figure S1. Variable importance climatic and edaphic drivers of distributions of mycorrhizal fungi OTU C and OTU O.

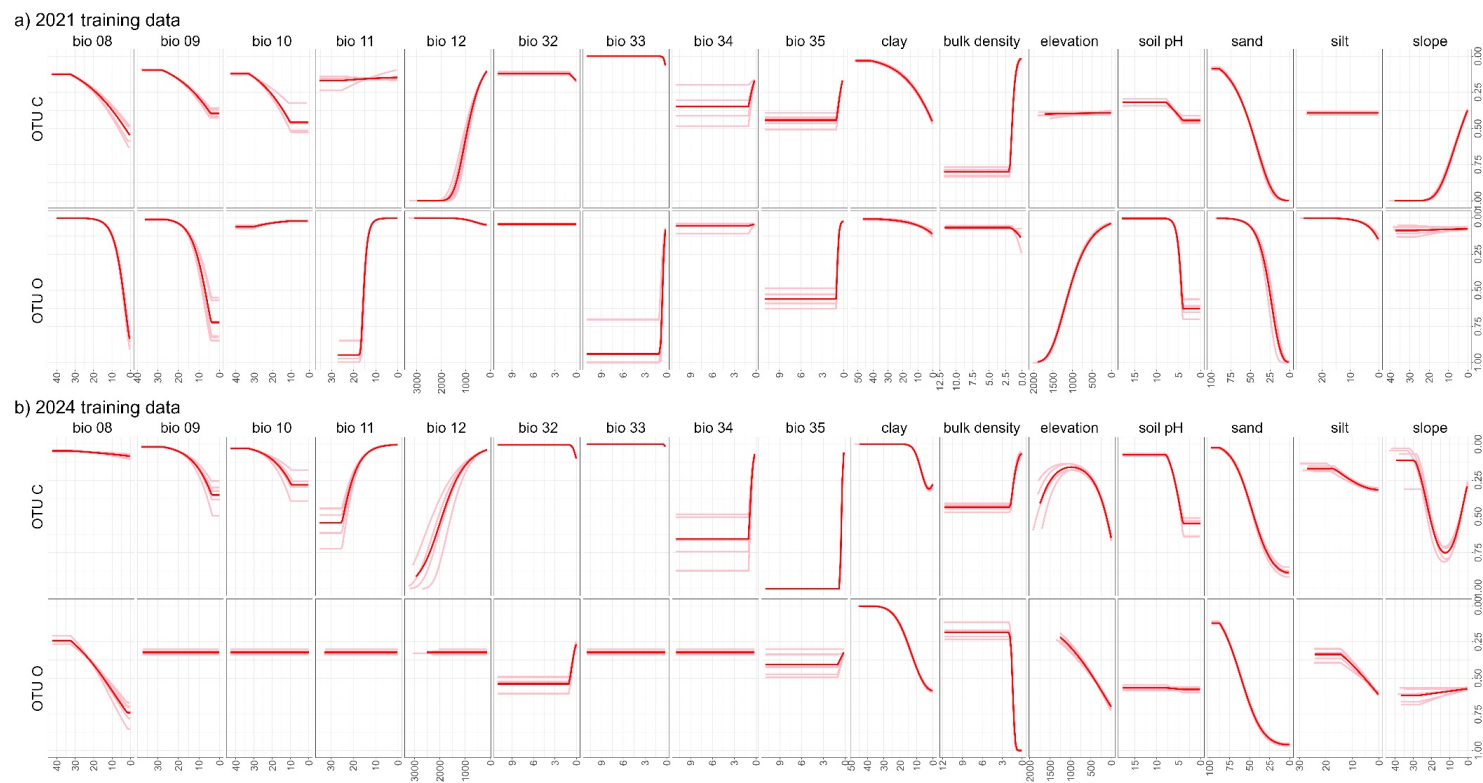


Figure S2: Response plots showing patterns of effect of both climatic and edaphic drivers contributing to **a)** the models informed by location data reported by Freestone et al. (2021), and **b)** drivers of the models informed by the refined occurrence data reported here.

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