# A peer-reviewed version of this preprint was published in PeerJ on 25 July 2018.

<u>View the peer-reviewed version</u> (peerj.com/articles/5246), which is the preferred citable publication unless you specifically need to cite this preprint.

Fennell M, Wade M, Bacon KL. 2018. Japanese knotweed (*Fallopia japonica*): an analysis of capacity to cause structural damage (compared to other plants) and typical rhizome extension. PeerJ 6:e5246 <a href="https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.5246">https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.5246</a>



# Japanese knotweed (Fallopia japonica): An analysis of capacity to cause structural damage (compared to other plants) and typical rhizome extension

Mark Fennell  $^{\text{Corresp., 1}}$  , Max Wade  $^{\text{1}}$  , Karen L Bacon  $^{\text{2}}$ 

Corresponding Author: Mark Fennell Email address: mark.fennell@aecom.com

Fallopia japonica (Japanese knotweed) is a well-known invasive alien species in the United Kingdom and elsewhere in Europe and North America. The plant is known to have a negative impact on local biodiversity, flood risk, and ecosystem services; but in the UK it is also considered to pose a significant risk to the structural integrity of buildings that are within 7 m of the above ground portions of the plant. This has led to the presence of the plant regularly being used to refuse mortgage applications. Despite the significant socioeconomic impacts of such automatic mortgage option restriction, little research has been conducted to investigate this issue. The '7 m rule' is derived from widely adopted government guidance in the UK. This study considered if there is evidence to support this phenomenon in the literature, reports the findings of a survey of invasive species control contractors and property surveyors to determine if field observations support these assertions, and reports a case study of 68 properties, located on three streets in northern England where F. japonicawas recorded. Additionally, given the importance of proximity, the 7 m rule is also tested based on data collected during the excavation based removal of F. japonicafrom 81 sites. No support was found to suggest that F. japonicacauses significant damage to built structures, even when it is growing in close proximity to them and certainly no more damage than other plant species that are not subject to such stringent lending policies. It was found that the 7 m rule is not a statistically robust tool for estimating likely rhizome extension. F. japonica rhizome rarely extends more than 4 m from above ground plants and is typically found within 2 m for small stands and 2.5 m for large stands. Based on these findings, the practice of automatically restricting mortgage options for home buyers when *F. japonica* is present, is not commensurate with the risk.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> AECOM, Cambridge, United Kingdom

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> School of Geography, University of Leeds, Leeds, United Kingdom



1 Japanese knotweed (Fallopia japonica): An analysis of capacity to cause structural damage (versus other plants) and typical rhizome extension 2 3 Mark Fennell<sup>1\*</sup>, Max Wade<sup>1</sup>, Karen L. Bacon<sup>2</sup> 4 5 <sup>1</sup>AECOM, Unit 1 Wellbrook Court, Girton, Cambridge, CB3 0NA, United Kingdom 6 7 <sup>2</sup>School of Geography, University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT, United Kingdom 8 9 \*Corresponding Author 10 Mark Fennell 11 mark.fennell@aecom.com 12



#### Abstract

-	

14

16 Fallopia japonica (Japanese knotweed) is a well-known invasive alien species in the United 17 Kingdom and elsewhere in Europe and North America. The plant is known to have a negative impact on local biodiversity, flood risk, and ecosystem services; but in the UK it is also 18 considered to pose a significant risk to the structural integrity of buildings that are within 7 m of 19 20 the above ground portions of the plant. This has led to the presence of the plant regularly being used to refuse mortgage applications. Despite the significant socioeconomic impacts of such 21 automatic mortgage option restriction, little research has been conducted to investigate this issue. 22 The '7 m rule' is derived from widely adopted government guidance in the UK. This study 23 considered if there is evidence to support this phenomenon in the literature, reports the findings 24 25 of a survey of invasive species control contractors and property surveyors to determine if field 26 observations support these assertions, and reports a case study of 68 properties, located on three 27 streets in northern England where F. japonica was recorded. Additionally, given the importance 28 of proximity, the 7 m rule is also tested based on data collected during the excavation based 29 removal of F. japonica from 81 sites. No support was found to suggest that F. japonica causes significant damage to built structures, even when it is growing in close proximity to them and 30 31 certainly no more damage than other plant species that are not subject to such stringent lending 32 policies. It was found that the 7 m rule is not a statistically robust tool for estimating likely 33 rhizome extension. F. japonica rhizome rarely extends more than 4 m from above ground plants and is typically found within 2 m for small stands and 2.5 m for large stands. Based on these 34 35 findings, the practice of automatically restricting mortgage options for home buyers when F. *japonica* is present, is not commensurate with the risk. 36



#### 1. Introduction

- 39 Japanese knotweed (Fallopia japonica) is a tall, herbaceous, perennial plant with woody
- 40 rhizomes when mature. F. japonica is now recognised as one of the most problematic weeds in
- 41 the UK and Ireland (Environment Agency, 2013; Property Care Association, 2018). It is also
- 42 recognised as one of the worst invasive alien species (IAS) at a European scale (Nentwig et al.,
- 43 2017) and globally (Lowe et al., 2000), being particularly invasive in parts of North America,
- Europe, Australia and New Zealand (CABI, 2018a). On a global scale its reputation as a
- 45 problematic invasive alien species (IAS) primarily stems from its vigorous growth and impacts
- on riparian habitats (Child & Wade, 2000) coupled with difficulty of eradication (Bailey, 2013;
- 47 Jones et al., 2018). Verified impacts include the creation of dense monodominant stands (Gillies,
- 48 Clements & Grenz, 2016; MDNR, 2012); reductions in ecosystem services in riparian zones, e.g.
- 49 by impeding access (Environment Agency, 2013; Gerber et al., 2008; Kidd, 2000; Urgenson,
- 50 2006); negative effects on native plant and invertebrate assemblages in riparian habitats (Gerber
- 51 2008); reductions in species richness (Aguilera et al., 2010; Hejda et al., 2009; Urgenson, 2006)
- 52 and abundance of native understory herbs, shrubs, and juvenile trees in riparian woodlands
- 53 (Urgenson, 2006); modifications to nutrient cycles (Urgenson, 2006); and impacts on flood
- 54 defence through impeding water flow and facilitation of riverbank erosion (Booy, Wade & Roy,
- 55 2015; Environment Agency, 2013; Kidd, 2000).
- 57 The plant is associated with significant economic impacts in the UK, particularly in the
- 58 development sector, due in large part to soil containing the species being classified as controlled
- 59 waste, which can result in significant waste management costs (Williams et al., 2010; Pearce,
- 60 2015). Economic impacts have been estimated at £166,000,000 per year (Williams et al., 2010)
- 61 in the UK; however, the validity of this, frequently misquoted, figure is strongly debated (Pearce,
- 62 2015).

63

- 64 Fallopia japonica was introduced to Europe from Japan in the mid-19th Century by the Bavarian
- 65 Phillip von Siebold, a renowned importer of exotic plants at this time (Bailey, 2013). In 1850,
- on Siebold sent a package to Kew Gardens in London, which included a female (male sterile) F.
- 67 *japonica* plant (Bailey, 2013). Once established in Kew Gardens it was distributed throughout
- the UK, being planted in Victorian parks and gardens (Bailey, 2013). Despite rumblings from



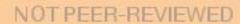
Victorian gardeners as far back as 1898, e.g. William Robinson (Bailey & Conolly, 2000), about 70 the plant's invasiveness, it was available for sale in UK nurseries up until at least 1990 (Philip, 71 1990). It was first recorded outside cultivation in South Wales in 1886 (Storrie, 1886) and is currently recorded in most hectads within the UK and Ireland (BSBI, 2018; Figure 1A). 72 73 74 By the late 1970s, the invasive nature of F. japonica was becoming widely recognised (Bailey, 2013) in the UK (also see Section 2.1 below). Within the popular press and through various 75 online sources, F. japonica is increasingly sensationalised and is credited on a regular basis with 76 an ability to 'grow through concrete' and 'destroy building foundations' (e.g. Ellery, 2016; 77 Sweeny, 2017; Willey, 2018). Accordingly, in the 21st Century, property surveyors and lenders 78 started taking an increasingly risk-averse approach to the species (RICS, 2012). Ultimately, this 79 80 has led to the presence of F. japonica on or near a residential property preventing its sale (RICS, 81 2012; Pearce, 2015). Frequently, financial institutions will automatically restrict mortgage 82 options where F. japonica is within the boundary of the property or within 7 m of a habitable 83 space, conservatory, or garage. This '7m rule' is derived from widely adopted government 84 guidance, which states that F. japonica rhizome may extend 7 m laterally from a parent plant 85 (Environment Agency, 2013). 86 Where F. japonica is preventing a property sale, this issue can typically be eliminated if 87 88 evidence can be provided to a lender that an appropriate treatment programme, effective against 89 F. japonica, is in place (RICS, 2012). Such control programmes can be expensive; between 90 £2,000 and £5,000 in total for a typical three-bedroom semi-detached house (at December 2011; RICS, 2012). Additionally, the stigma associated with the species can result in diminution of 91 92 property value (Santo, 2017) even following control action. The cumulative impact of the above 93 is that home owners can lose all, or a significant portion, of their property's value. This 94 automatic restriction of mortgage options where F. japonica is present on or near a property has led to significant hardship and associated, often reported, emotional stress (Dunn, 2015; The 95 96 Telegraph, 2015). The claimed ability of *F. japonica* to cause significant structural damage is 97 widely acknowledged within the professional weed control sector in the UK as not being representative of the vast majority of casual field observations and that, due to current public 98



perception, impacts on the market value of a property are out of proportion to the cost of 99 remediation (Santo, 2017). 100 101 102 In order to understand if the lender response to F. japonica presence, described above, is proportionate, the impacts typically associated with F. japonica must be compared to those of 103 other plants. The potential for plants, in general, to cause issues in the built environment is well 104 understood. Accordingly, in the UK, developers follow guidance (NHBC, 2017) when building 105 near trees. The automatic restriction, however, of mortgage options due to the mere presence of a 106 plant species is a new phenomenon. Although this is currently a UK phenomenon, recent reports 107 have emerged of F. japonica presence impacting property sales in the Republic of Ireland 108 (personal correspondence: Collette O'Flynn, National Biodiversity Data Centre, Ireland, 2018), 109 110 suggesting that this issue has the potential to spread, and sensationalist articles have begun to appear in North American tabloids (The Calgary Eyeopener, 2015). 111 112 Plants are known to cause damage to built structures primarily by three mechanisms: (i) indirect 113 114 damage, via subsidence or heave, caused by plant mediated modifications to soil water content (Biddle, 2001; O'Callaghan & Kelly, 2005), (ii) direct damage due to physical impact, typically 115 116 associated with falling trees (O'Callaghan & Kelly, 2005), and (iii) direct damage caused by physical pressure exerted through growth (Biddle, 1998, 2001). 117 118 There are many causes of subsidence, with plants only contributing to a proportion of the total 119 120 and only then on shrinkable clay soils. Plant mediated subsidence in such soils occurs when plants remove water from the soil through a process called transpiration and, as a result of this 121 122 removal of water, the soil shrinks. This is particularly common during the summer months and/or periods of drought. The soil swells again once water is returned via rainfall. If foundations are 123 not sufficiently deep or strong to withstand such stress, this process can lead to structural damage 124 over time, typically characterised by vertical cracks up through the brickwork. Swelling of soil 125 can also occur when mature trees, that were helping regulate soil moisture content, are removed 126 127 (NHBC, 2017). 128



129 While the mechanisms behind impact-based direct damage are relatively straight forward, a range of factors — biological, chemical and physical — become relevant with respect to direct 130 131 damage caused by physical pressure. Plants acquire the energy they need to grow through 132 photosynthesis, which converts light energy, carbon dioxide and water into chemical energy that can later be released to fuel the plant's activities. Driven by the energy produced by 133 photosynthesis, plant roots and rhizomes grow through the soil seeking water and nutrients. 134 Ultimately, using the products of both photosynthesis and the materials collected by 135 roots/rhizomes, plants grow (increase in biomass) and reproduce. These growing underground 136 plant structures follow the path of least resistance through the soil along water and/or chemical 137 gradients, typically from areas of low water or nutrient concentration to areas of higher water or 138 nutrient concentration (Rellán-Álvarez, Lobet & Dinneny, 2016). When solid structures (natural 139 or anthropogenic) are encountered by extending plant tissue, highly sensitive receptors on the 140 outer surface on the plant detect the change in pressure, resulting in the release of plant growth 141 142 regulators and chemical signals that stimulate differential growth rates within plant tissues, ultimately causing the plant to grow away from the solid structure and find the path of least 143 resistance (Takeda et al., 2008) where possible. However, where a plant becomes trapped 144 145 between two structures and growth away from or around the structure is no longer possible, the risk of damage increases. The greatest risk of direct damage occurs close to the main trunk, stem 146 or crown; this is due to incremental growth of such structures over time and secondary 147 thickening of the roots/rhizomes, which are thickest in close proximity to such structures. 148 149 150 The impacts of F. japonica on residential property sale and value are ultimately predicated on the species' ability to cause significant structural damage, but this proposition has never been 151 152 scientifically tested. This paper, therefore, proposes a methodology for conducting such assessments and implements the proposed methodology using a case study of 68 residential 153 154 properties in the north of England, with the aim of determining the capacity of F. japonica to cause structural damage relative to other common plants in the UK. The paper also includes an 155 assessment of published records of F. japonica's ability to cause structural damage; an 156 assessment of how plants cause structural damage in the context of F. japonica's biology; and an 157 158 assessment of the findings of two surveys conducted on members of the Royal Institution of 159 Chartered Surveyors (RICS) and the Property Care Association's (PCA) Invasive Weed Control





160	Group (IWCG). Additionally, given the importance of proximity, the 7 m rule is also tested,
161	based on an assessment of a survey carried out on members of the PCA IWCG, with the aim of
162	determining typical rhizome extension distance relative to above ground F. japonica plants.
163	



#### 2. Materials & Methods

165 166

164

#### 2.1. Study Species: Fallopia japonica

167

F. japonica is a tall, vigorous, clump-forming, herbaceous perennial, which grows up to 2–3 m in 168 height (Figure 2A) and often forms dense thickets. The stems are robust, bamboo-like, slightly 169 170 fleshy and hollow, with a diameter of up to 4 cm. Tall-brown to bronze canes remain over winter and persist for approximately 3 years. Leaves are 10–15 cm long, lush, light green, and shield-171 172 shaped with a flattened base (Figure 2B). Growth over successive years builds up a sturdy dense 173 crown at the base of canes (Figure 2C). New growth primarily emerges from crowns at the start 174 of the growth season, but also directly from rhizomes. Rhizomes are initially white, extremely fleshy and fragile while extending (Figure 2D), but mature into yellow/orange sturdier woody 175 176 structures (Figure 2D). The majority of rhizome is found in the upper 50 cm of soil, but it can 177 penetrate down to 3 m and, depending on soil type and site features, spread up to 10 m from parent plants is possible under very rare circumstances (Booy, Wade & Roy, 2015). Only female 178 (male sterile) plants are known to be present in the UK, which form drooping grape-like clusters 179 180 of flowers with distinct stigmas. Seeds are shiny, triangular, dark brown, 3–4 mm long, 2 mm 181 wide and sterile in the UK. See Booy, Wade & Roy (2015) for additional information on the biology of the species. F. japonica can regenerate from rhizome fragments weighing as little as 182 0.7 g (Brock & Wade, 1992), providing a node is present, and stem sections, where suitable 183 conditions are present (very moist, well-lit soils with high nutrient availability). The species is 184 dispersed effectively in transported soil and by water (Environment Agency, 2013; Booy, Wade 185 & Roy, 2015). F. japonica is tolerant of a wide range of habitat and soil types, but is most 186 187 frequently found in disturbed urban habitats, particularly brownfield sites, railway verges and the 188 banks of waterways, where it thrives in damp soils. F. japonica is closely related to two other members of the Fallopia genus, F. sachalinensis and 190 191 Fallopia x bohemica, which have similar invasive ranges and have similar impacts. Of note, in 192 some parts of its invasive range, Fallopia x bohemica spreads via the production of large

189

193

numbers of wind-dispersed viable seeds that germinate at rates approaching 100% in some



populations (Gillies, Clements & Grenz, 2016). However, in the UK, spread by this means does
not currently occur in the UK.

196

197

#### 2.2. Literature Assessment

In order to contextualise impacts associated with F. japonica within the larger subject of the 198 199 capacity of plants that cause structural damage, this study assessed various guidance documents and papers published on the topic of plants causing damage and the relationship between various 200 201 plant traits and capacity to cause damage. The primary points of interest from these documents 202 are highlighted in Section 3.1.1. Additionally, a focused literature search on Web of Science was conducted on 27th June 2017 to identify academic papers that provide reference to or evidence of 203 204 F. japonica-mediated damage to structures. The search terms used for the Web of Science search were "Fallopia japonica" and "Polygonum cuspidatum", an old name for the same species, and 205 206 within the returned publications "damage". The abstracts were reviewed to determine what type 207 of damage was referred to within the paper.

208

209

#### 2.3. F. japonica Impact Survey

210 A survey of F. japonica management contractors (PCA) and property surveyors (RICS) was conducted to collect evidence either for or against the assertion that F. japonica is a major cause 211 of structural damage to properties. Survey forms were sent out to contractors and surveyors to 212 determine, based on their last field observation of F. japonica, the presence, if any, of damage 213 214 linked to the presence of the plant across a range of built structure types (see Table 1 for included questions; see Supplemental Information 1 for individual responses). In total, 51 PCA members 215 216 and 71 RICS surveyors provided records relating to 122 properties (Table 1). Each respondent was also asked how near the closest evident aboveground F. japonica plant was from the 217 218 residential building on the site that they had visited. This was cross-referenced against reports of 219 damage (Table 2). Yes/No responses are presented as raw numbers and converted to percentage 220 values and differences between PCA and RICS respondents were considered. Statistical analyses were undertaken in PAST version 3.15 (Hammer et al., 2001). 221

222

223

#### 2.4. F. japonica Rhizome Extent Survey



225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

The survey of PCA contractors also asked respondents to provide details, based on the last five F. japonica excavation-based remediation works that they had conducted, on the above ground area of *F. japonica* and to provide the horizontal (i.e. distance from visible above ground plants) and vertical (i.e. distance from soil surface) extent of rhizomes encountered. In total, 26 contractors provided records of 81 excavations with sufficient detail (e.g. clear rhizome extent linked to an identified individual stand) to be included in the assessment. Eight records were removed due to reporting multiple stands, partial excavation or disturbed sites where it was not possible to accurately determine the rhizome extent from an individual stand (see Supplemental Information 1). Subsequently, stands were sub-classified into either "small" or "large" categories. The small category included any plants that covered a soil area of 4 m<sup>2</sup> or less, aimed at encompassing the typical size of stands found in small residential gardens. Stands covering an area greater than this were placed into the large category. This allowed for an examination of the relationship between above-ground area and rhizome extension, as well as an analysis of typical rhizome extension. Data were tested for normality (Anderson Darling test) and difference between stand categories (large or small) were tested using the Mann Whitney U test for nonnormally distributed data. Data analyses were conducted using PAST version 3.15 (Hammer et al., 2001).

241

242243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

#### 2.5. Case Study

A survey was conducted on 68 residential properties located on three streets in northern England. The houses on all three streets were built prior to 1900 (CDRC, 2018). All properties have been abandoned for at least ten years and were in a state of disrepair, with most having cracked patios and crumbling brickwork (particularly on boundary walls). *F. japonica* was previously known to be present on properties located on all three streets. An assessment was carried out in September 2017 to determine any constraints that the species might pose to restoration and re-development (see Supplementary Information 2 for details). These sites represented a close to "worst case" scenario in terms of susceptibility to damage from unchecked plant growth. With this in mind, a survey was conducted to determine presence and associated damage for *F. japonica*, trees, woody shrubs and woody climbers. All damage was compared against a baseline of existing damage that was present due to neglect, weathering and wear and tear over the lifetime of the



properties, regardless of plant presence. Where plants were associated with damage to a structure, the damage was quantified based on the scale presented in Table 3 (see also Supplemental Information 2). Figure 3 presents examples of the rating scale that was applied.

By chance, a large number of *Buddleja davidii* (buddleia) plants were present at the case study sites. As such, this species was included in the assessment separately from other woody plants. *B. davidii* in a non-native woody shrub that is known to be invasive in the UK and elsewhere (CABI, 2018b). Damage associated with the following species or plant groups are discussed in this case study: *F. japonica*, *B. davidii*, 'trees' (other woody, independently standing mature plants) and 'woody climbers' (woody plants that are not independently standing, e.g. attached to walls). In addition to presence, for *F. japonica*, mature (with crowns) and immature (without crowns) plants were assessed. Similarly, for *B. davidii*, mature (woody) and immature (not woody) plants were considered.



268 3. Results

269

#### 270 3.1. Literature Assessment

271

#### 3.1.1. Plants and Structural Damage

273

272

The literature assessment revealed that indirect damage, typically characterised by subsidence caused by modifications to soil moisture content, was by far the most relevant mechanism identified by which plants caused major damage to built structures (Biddle, 2001; O'Callaghan & Kelly, 2005) and high water-use tree species were the most likely plant type to cause this type of damage (NHBC, 2017).

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

Such impacts are only a potential problem on shrinkable clay soils (Biddle, 2001; O'Callaghan & Kelly, 2005). Clay soils are found in less than 50% of the United Kingdom and not all clay soils will be extremely shrinkable. The degree to which a clay soil is shrinkable depends on its mineral composition. All clay minerals are built from combinations of two types of molecular sheet, (i) a sheet with repeating units of silicon surrounded by four oxygen atoms in a tetrahedron and (ii) a sheet with an aluminium or magnesium atom surrounded by six oxygen or six hydroxyl molecules in an octahedron. How these sheets are arranged determines how ridged the clay soil is. For example, soils composed of alternating sheets, one tetrahedron followed by one octahedron, and so on, and held together by a pair of hydrogen ions are quite ridged. However, when an aluminium octahedral sheet is between two silicon tetrahedral sheets and held together by weak oxygen bonds a clay called montmorillonite is formed, which is a relatively weak clay susceptible to shrinkage (Chapman, 2012). Surveys by the Botanical Society of Britain and Ireland (Figure 1A) show that F. japonica has been found in most areas of Britain but only a small fraction of this area is identified by the British Geological Society as having moderate to high risk of swell-shrinkage (Figure 1B), with most shrinkable clays being found in the south east of England. Additionally, it is likely that the area at actual risk of plant-mediated shrinkage is lower again because not all of this area necessarily has the correct mineral combination required to be at high risk for facilitation of subsidence.

298	
299	The second most relevant mechanism by which plants cause damage, was identified as direct
300	damage due to physical impact, typically characterised by trees falling and striking buildings and
301	power lines (O'Callaghan & Kelly, 2005) and is only relevant to large plants such as trees.
302	
303	Finally, plants can also cause direct damage to buildings and structures by pressure exerted
304	through growth; however, this is comparatively rare in terms of meaningful damage; it is also
305	well understood (Biddle, 1998, 2001). While growth at the base of plants, or of roots near the
306	surface, exerts relatively small forces, paving slabs or low boundary walls can be lifted or pushed
307	aside. Heavy loaded or stronger structures are more likely to withstand these forces without
308	damage, as plants preferentially distort around such obstruction before damage occurs (British
309	Standard, 5837:2012). Certain combinations of variables can increase the potential for damage,
310	e.g. water leaking from damaged drains, sewers or water mains can encourage localised root
311	growth, as plants typically grow towards areas of higher water availability, which can lead to
312	roots/rhizomes entering a drain or sewer through the defect and proliferating, causing blockage
313	and an enlarging of the initial defect. The risks associated with direct pressure based damage are
314	(i) primarily associated with trees, (ii) vary for different types of structures, and (iii) diminish
315	rapidly with distance. Minimum recommended planting distances for young trees or new
316	planting, to avoid direct damage to a structure from future tree growth, are described in British
317	Standard (5837:2012) and range from (i) no minimum distance required for planting trees near
318	buildings, heavily loaded structures, services > 1 m deep, and masonry boundary walls, where
319	the tree will have a stem diameter below 0.3 m (at 1.5 m above ground level) at maturity to (ii) 3
320	m distance required for planting trees near paths and drives with flexible surfaces, paving slabs,
321	and services < 1 m deep, where the tree will have a stem diameter above 0.6 m (at 1.5 m above
322	ground level) at maturity (British Standard, 5837:2012).
323	
324	These three mechanisms described above are evaluated against the biology and growth
325	characteristics of F. japonica in Sections 4.1 and 4.2.
326	
327	Based on the literature assessment, there is essentially no evidence to support the claim that $F$ .
328	japonica causes damage in excess of the norm for many plants. While evidence was found to



support the claim that trees can cause major damage, no such evidence could be found for F. japonica. Of particular interest were records of insurance claims related to trees being involved in subsidence issues: 12,800 such records, between 2002 and 2005, were identified by Mercer, Reeves & O'Callaghan (2011), 1,030 of which met their criteria for records having sufficient detail to assess and as being important from a subsidence risk perspective. The top five genera implicated in subsidence-related insurance claims were Oak (*Quercus*), Ash (*Fraxinus*), Cyprus (Cupressus), Maple (Acer), and Willow (Salix). At maturity, these trees frequently reach 24 m, 23 m, 20 m, 18 m, and 24 m respectively. No evidence of any insurance claims was identified for F. japonica with respect to structural damage. While many recent papers include in their description of F. japonica that the species can cause notable damage to built structures (e.g. Mclean, S. 2010, Djeddour & Shaw, 2010), this claim is never supported by evidence.

Based on the search terms "Fallopia japonica" and "Polygonum cuspidatum", the Web of Science search returned 778 journal papers published between 1937 and 2016. When the term "damage" is included the number of papers dropped to 46. Five were removed for being irrelevant. Of the remaining 41 papers, 15 focused on biocontrol, 20 on general biology/genetics, two on ecological damage and two on other interactions. None of the abstracts suggested that the papers would focus on structural damage but some did refer to it as a "known problem". This highlights the limited academic engagement with the problem – it appears to be accepted without supporting evidence that *F. japonica* causes clear and problematic structural damage.

#### 3.2. Survey Results

#### 3.2.1. Survey results (reported damage)

In total, 51 contractors and 71 surveyors responded to the survey. Details of the responses are provided in Table 1 and Table 2. The results of the two property damage surveys (PCA and RICS) showed clearly that reports for defects or structural damage to residential properties, where *F. japonica* is present, were extremely rare (between 2% and 6%). As the survey data are interpreted as a worse case situation, it is likely that more detailed surveys would reduce this number, if better designed to discriminate between causation, exacerbation and correlation. This statement is relevant to all types of damage reported. Reports of defects to lighter structures such



as sheds or paths were more apparent, with 35% (PCA) and 23% (RICS) of respondents noticing such damage. Reports of damage to drains or subterranean services were low, 16% (PCA) and 3% (RICS). The only question to obtain a "yes" above 50% was for Question 4 from the PCA contractor surveys where 51% noticed evidence for loss of amenity. However, only 18% of surveyors considered that the *F. japonica* observed was likely to impact garden amenity (Table 1). There was also a clear difference between the responses of surveyors and contractors for Question 3 (Table 1), with contractors reporting more damage than surveyors. It should be noted that PCA contractor members are more likely to be called out where problematic stands of *F. japonica* are present, which could account for the differences observed between groups. It could also be explained by differences between the two groups with respect to training, perception or bias. Investigating this was beyond the scope of the current study.

371

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

Each respondent was also asked how near the closest evident aboveground F. japonica plant was 372 373 from the residential building on the site that they had visited (Table 2). This was cross-referenced 374 (Table 2) against reports of damage, as per Ouestion 1 (Table 1). One contractor (PCA) reported 375 damage caused by F. japonica (Table 1); in this case the closest reported plant to the property was 1 m (Table 2). Four surveyors (RICS) reported damage caused by F. japonica (Table 1). 376 377 Two stated that the nearest plants were 0 m from the property, one stated 1 m from the property and one stated 4 m from the property (Table 2). It is worth noting that the report at 4 m was for a 378 379 property built prior to 1900. No other responses suggested that F. japonica had caused damage to the residential property. Among contractors reporting no damage to the residential property, 380 381 25 reported F. japonica growing within 4 m of the residential property and a further nine reported F. japonica growing within 7 m of the residential property. Among surveyors, 21 382 383 reported F. japonica within 4 m of the residential property and a further ten reported F. japonica within 7 m of the residential property and none of these reports were linked to damage to the 384 property. See Table 2 for more detail. 385

386

387

#### 3.2.2. Survey results (reported rhizome extension)

There was a statistically significant difference (Mann Whitney U; p < 0.05) in the horizontal extent of *F. japonica* rhizomes between small and large stands, with larger stands found to have further reaching rhizomes (Figure 4). None of the small stands included in the assessment had



rhizomes extending further than 4 m, and the majority (75%) had rhizomes extending 2 m or less. The average rhizome extension reported for small stands was 1.4 m. Only one plant in the large category had rhizome extension greater than 5 m (identified as a statistical outlier); all other records were below 4 m and the majority (75%) had rhizome extensions of 2.5 m or less.

There was also a statistically significant difference (Mann Whitney U; p < 0.001) between the large and small stands for vertical rhizome extent, with larger stands found to have deeper reaching rhizomes (Figure 5). No records with vertical rhizome extent in excess of 3.5 m were recorded. The small stands had rhizomes with a mean 1.02 m depth and a maximum of 2 m, whereas the maximum vertical extent recorded for the large stands was 3.2 m and the mean was 1.64.

#### 3.3. Case study

In all but the most severe examples, the level of damage caused by plants did not exceed damage that was observed elsewhere within the study area in locations where plants were not growing. It would appear, in the context of dilapidation, that plants are generally not the cause but rather an accelerator to natural weathering and dilapidation.

*F. japonica* was identified within the boundary of six properties (five mature stands and one immature stand) and the plant was identified within 7 m of the main building of a further 12 properties, leading to a total of 18 properties where *F. japonica* was within the area identified by the "7 m rule" as being at risk. *B. davidii* was identified on 62 properties (31 mature and 31 immature). Trees were observed on six properties and woody climbers were observed on four.

In general, *F. japonica* was linked to less damage than the other species/species groups assessed (Table 4). Where *F. japonica* was linked to damage, mature plants were more likely to exacerbate the damage than to have been the original cause. There were no reported incidences of immature *F. japonica* causing or exacerbating damage.

*F. japonica* was not linked to any damage to the main buildings. The three other groups were linked to damage, at varying degrees, typically in the form of simple co-occurrence (e.g. as in



appearing together without a clear causal link) or interference with brickwork through exacerbation of existing weakness. Mature woody *B. davidii* was more likely to exacerbate damage than immature *B. davidii*, with immature *B. davidii* rarely exceeding co-occurrence or minor exacerbation. There was only one example of a plant being linked to causing direct damage to a building, rather that exacerbating it. This was a tree falling against a house.

With respect to damage to walls, *F. japonica* was correlated with two occurrences of damage; in both cases it was emerging from a crack and causing no detectable variation away from baseline damage elsewhere in the wall. The three other plant groups were linked to more damage than *F. japonica*, to varying degrees, typically in the form of simple co-occurrence or interference with brickwork through exacerbation of existing weakness. In all groups, the average damage score was higher than that of *F. japonica* (Table 4). Mature woody *B. davidii* was more likely to exacerbate damage than immature *B. davidii*, with immature *B. davidii* rarely exceeding co-occurrence or minor exacerbation. There were only two examples of a plant being linked to causing damage to walls, rather than exacerbating it, a tree pushing over a boundary wall and *B. davidii* pushing over a small retaining wall.

With respect to damage to paving, *F. japonica* was correlated with six occurrences of damage. In three cases it was emerging from a crack and causing no detectable variation away from baseline damage elsewhere in the paving, and in three other cases it was exacerbating existing damage (one minor, two moderate examples). *B. davidii* was linked to more damage to paving than *F. japonica*, typically in the form of simple co-occurrence or interference with paving through exacerbation of existing weakness. The average damage score was considerably higher for *B. davidii* than *F. japonica*. Mature woody *B. davidii* was more likely to exacerbate damage than immature *B. davidii*, with immature *B. davidii* rarely exceeding correlation or minor exacerbation. There was only one example of a plant being linked to causing damage to paving, rather that exacerbating it, which was a tree where the roots had lifted a large area of concrete paving with significant associated cracking.



#### 4. Discussion

451 452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

#### 4.1. Indirect damage: in the context of F. japonica

Plants are considered to cause structural damage to buildings primarily through indirect damage. e.g. through subsidence caused by modification to soil water content. High water-use tall trees are the main plant type implicated. Subsidence, with respect to plants, is only an issue on shrinkable clay soils, which are reasonably restricted in extent (Figure 1). Importantly, to properly assess risk, individual site investigation is required to determine the exact type of clay present in a clay-soil area. The rate that water is removed from soil by plants varies depending on the characteristics of the plant and also by the total biomass of the plants. There is a strong linear relationship between water use and plant biomass (i.e. larger plants remove more water from the soil), as noted by Nielsen et al., (2015). Plants with higher water use and larger biomass are therefore the most likely to cause subsidence through the action of their roots removing water from soil. Some unpublished work suggests that F. japonica may be a high water use plant (Guzner, Galster & Vanderklein, 2013); however, even if this is the case, it is not a high biomass plant by comparison to mature woody trees such as oak. The plants that are most likely to influence subsidence in the UK are listed in the NHBC (2017) guidance for building near trees. These species range in height between 10 m and 28 m. In comparison, F. japonica typically only grows to between 2 m and 3 m. The potential for plants to influence subsidence is calculated based on a zone of influence of between 0.5, 0.75, and 1.25 times the height of the plant (NHBC, 2017), depending on the water demand at maturity of the species in question (low, moderate, or high, respectively). For F. japonica, this would suggest a maximum zone of influence of 3.75 m (the typical maximum height of the plant is 3 m, hence 3 x 1.25). However, when compared to mature trees, given the comparatively diminutive size of F. japonica, both in terms of above ground and below ground biomass, it is more likely to be at the lower end of the scale. As such, a calculation of  $0.5 \times 3 = 1.5 \text{ m}$  or  $0.75 \times 3 = 2.25 \text{ m}$  is more likely to reflect the potential zone of influence of F. japonica at maturity. Furthermore, the mean rhizome length of small F. japonica stands, such as those more likely to be found in residential properties, is 1.4 m (Section 4.2 and Figure 4), which falls comfortably within the lower zone. Such areas of influence are unlikely to be able to create a large enough area of soil shrinkage to impact all but the flimsiest of structure and, even then, only on properties shown to have shrinkable clay soil. As such, the risk



associated with *F. japonica* causing subsidence based damage falls well below many other

species commonly found in properties in the UK.

484

485

#### 4.2. Direct damage: in the context of F. japonica

- 486 In some situations, trees and vegetation can adversely affect structures by direct action, e.g.
- 487 structural failure of trees (collapse and impact), impact of branches with superstructures,
- 488 displacement/lift/distortion, and disruption of underground services and pipelines (British
- 489 Standard, 5837:2012).

490

- The leading causes of damage due to direct physical contact by plants, i.e. collapsing vegetation
- 492 striking buildings and power lines and branch impact, are not relevant in any meaningful way to
- 493 F. japonica as the species is not tall enough and does not possess heavy enough aboveground
- 494 structures. This is due to the fact that *F. japonica* aboveground material dies back at the end of
- each growth season; as such, the plant cannot accumulate sufficient above ground size and weigh
- 496 from successive years of growth.

497

512

498 Plants can also cause damage by exerting accumulating physical pressure on structures as they 499 grow over time; however, as stated above, this is comparatively rare in terms of meaningful 500 damage. Damage of this type is typically characterised by superficial or cosmetic damage to paving. However more significant damage can occur where plants become trapped between two 501 structures, e.g. two walls in close proximity to each other, and are allowed to exert pressure for 502 an extended period of time without intervention (i.e. woody plants are allowed to mature in areas 503 where management would be advisable) or where roots find their way into drains and pipes, as 504 505 described above. The mechanisms by which plants grow and cause such damage are well 506 understood (Biddle, 1998, 2001), as are the planting distances required to limit or avoid such damage (British Standard, 5837:2012). While F. japonica can cause such damage due to direct 507 action over time, it does not exceed that caused by woody species. The case study described in 508 this paper demonstrates that F. japonica is less capable of causing this type of damage than trees 509 and woody shrubs. Where F. japonica is implicated in such damage, this is likely to typically be 510 511 a result of the plant exploiting a weakness or defect that was already present, rather than the plant

initiating the damage, or it is simply a case of F. japonica emerging from an existing crack



without influence. Regardless, even if it is assumed that *F. japonica* can equal trees in causing such damage (which is not the case), based on well understood principles (British Standard, 5837:2012), a safe distance for mature *F. japonica* (crowns between 30 and 60 cm) would be 0.5 m for buildings and heavily loaded structures, and 1.5 m for paths and drives with flexible surfaces or paving slabs.

Additionally, the frequently stated ability of *F. japonica* to 'grow through concrete' is simply not supported by any evidence, as it is not possible due to the laws and principles of physics and biology. The extending tip of the *F. japonica* rhizome is remarkably soft and fleshy (Figure 1) and it would be impossible for it to grow through intact concrete; however, these same characteristics make the extending rhizome adept at finding cracks and *F. japonica* has been shown to have significant ability to alter the direction of rhizome growth (Smith *et al.*, 2007), highlighting the plant's biological preference to go around obstructions, rather than through them. Where *F. japonica* is implicated in such damage, existing cracks or weaknesses are

#### 4.3. Typical Rhizome Extension

always present.

When the above is considered, the typical maximum rhizome extension of *F. japonica* is not all that relevant with respect to structural damage. Regardless, the results of the survey detailed above demonstrate that even large stands of *F. japonica* do not usually produce rhizomes that extend further than 4 m, showing that the "7 m rule" is not a statistically robust tool for estimating likely rhizome extension from above ground plants. The mean rhizome extent for small stands was 1.4 m and for large stands (above 4 m²) was 2.02 m. Similarly, the mean vertical extent recorded averaged between 1.02 m for the small stands and 1.64 for the large stands, with a maximum of 3.2 m.



539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

#### 5. Conclusions

The biology of F. japonica makes it less capable of causing significant structural damage than many woody plant species. This conclusion has been reached for all three of the main mechanisms by which plants are known to cause structural damage: subsidence (indirect); collapse and impact (direct); and accumulating pressure due to growth (direct). There is essentially no support for F. japonica as a major cause of damage to property in the literature, and this study found that F. japonica is less likely to cause damage than other common species. Based on the results obtained though surveys completed by PCA members, it is clear that the '7 m rule' is not a statistically robust tool for estimating likely rhizome extension. F. japonica rhizome rarely extends more than 4 m from above ground plants and is typically found within 2 m for small stands and 2.5 m for large stands. When this is considered in conjunction with the water-use requirements of an herbaceous perennial, and the limited presence of shrinkable clay soils in the UK, the likelihood of F. japonica as a major cause of structural damage depletes even further. While F. japonica is clearly a problematic invasive non-native species with respect to environmental impacts and land management, this study provides evidence that F. japonica should not be considered any more of a risk, with respect to capacity to cause structural damage in urban environments, than a range of other species of plant, and less so than many. In this context, although the impacts of F. japonica on biodiversity and other ecosystem services remain a cause for concern, there is no evidence to support automatic mortgage restriction based on the species' presence within 7 m of a building.



Ackr	iowlec	lgem	ents
1 1 0 1 1 1	10 ,, 10	~_~	CIICO

We thanks Prof Pippa Chapman, University of Leeds, for helpful discussion relating to soil
properties; Chloe Spurgeon, AECOM/University of East Anglia, for supporting the literature
assessment; Dr Damian Smith, AECOM, for supporting the assessment of the case study
properties in the north of England; Andy Wakefield, AECOM, for support with respect to
arboriculture; the Property Care Association for supporting the collection of contractor member
Japanese knotweed impacts and rhizome extent data and all PCA members that provided such
data; the Royal Institution of Chartered Surveyors for supporting the collection of surveyor
Japanese knotweed impacts data and all RICS surveyors that provided such data; the Botanical
Society of Britain and Ireland for permission to use their $F$ . $japonica$ map data in Figure 1; and
the British Geological Society for permission to use their shrinkable clay soil map in Figure 1.



571	References
572	
573	Aguilera AG, Alpert P, Dukes JS, Harrington R. 2010. Impacts of the invasive plant Fallopia
574	japonica (Houtt.) on plant communities and ecosystem processes. Biological Invasions, 12: 1243
575	DOI: 10.1007/s10530-009-9543-z.
576	
577	Bailey J. 2013. Chapter 14 The Rise and Fall of Japanese Knotweed? In: Rotherham, I. &
578	Lambert, R., ed. Invasive and Introduced Plants and Animals Human Perceptions, Attitudes and
579	Approaches to Management. New York: Routledge.
580	
581	Bailey J., Conolly A. 2000. Prize-winners to pariahs - A history of Japanese Knotweed s.l.
582	(Polygonaceae) in the British Isles. Watsonia, 23: 93-110.
583	
584	Biddle G. 1998. Tree Root Damage To Buildings. Volumes 1 Causes Diagnosis and Remedy.
585	Newcastle upon Tyne: Willowmead Publishing.
586	
587	Biddle G. 2001. Tree Root Damage to Buildings. Shallow Foundation and Soil Properties
588	Committee Sessions at ASCE Civil Engineering Conference 2001. American Society of Civil
589	Engineers.
590	
591	Brock JH, Wade M (1992) Regeneration of Fallopia japonica, weed, from rhizome and stems:
592	Observations from greenhouse trials. IXe Colloque International sur la Biologie des Mauvaises
593	Herbes, Dijon, France, pp85-94
594	
595	BGI (British Geological Survey). 2018. BGS GeoSure: shrink-swell. [Online]. [21 March 2018].
596	Available from: <a href="http://www.bgs.ac.uk/products/geosure/shrink_swell.html">http://www.bgs.ac.uk/products/geosure/shrink_swell.html</a>
597	
598	Booy O, Wade PM, Roy H. 2015. Field Guide to Invasive Plants and Animals. London:
599	Bloomsbury.
600	



British Standard. 2012. British Standard 5837:2012, Trees in relation to design, demolition and 601 construction – Recommendations. The British Standards Institution, BSI Standards Limited. 602 603 BSBI (Botanical Society of Britain and Ireland). 2018. BSBI distribution maps: Fallopia 604 japonica. [Online]. [21 March 2018]. Available from: 605 https://bsbi.org/maps?taxonid=2cd4p9h.vr0 606 607 608 CABI. 2018a. Data Sheet: Fallopia japonica. [Online]. [21 March 2018]. Available from: https://www.cabi.org/isc/datasheet/23875 609 610 CABI. 2018b. Data Sheet: Buddleja davidii. [Online]. [15 June 2018]. Available from: 611 612 https://www.cabi.org/isc/datasheet/10314 613 CDRC. 2018. CDRC Maps: Dwelling – Age Model. [Online]. [21 March 2018]. Available from: 614 https://maps.cdrc.ac.uk/#/metrics/dwellingage/ 615 616 617 Chapman PJ. 2012. Soil in the Environment. In: Holden, J (ed) An Introduction to Physical Geography Harrow UK: Pearson, pp 269–306. 618 619 620 Child LE & Wade PM. 2000. The Japanese knotweed manual: the management and control of an 621 invasive alien weed. Packard, Chichester. 622 623 Djeddour D, Shaw R. 2010. The Biological Control of Fallopia Japonica in Great Britain: Review and Current Status. Outlooks on Pest Management. 21, 15-18 DOI: 10.1564/21feb04. 624 625 Dunn J. (Daily Mail). 2015. Lab technician 'battered wife to death with a perfume bottle then 626 627 killed himself after being driven mad by invading Japanese knotweed'. [Online]. [21 March 2018]. Available from: http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-3271083/Lab-technician-628 629 battered-wife-death-perfume-bottle-killed-driven-mad-invading-Japanese-knotweed-notstopped.html#ixzz5ASijusIm 630 631



Ellery B. (Daily Mail). 2016. Invasion of the alien knotweed! Despairing family can't sell home-632 because of monster next door that grows eight inches a day, damages foundations and grows 633 634 through brickwork. [Online]. [21 March 2018]. Available from: http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-3761534/Invasion-alien-knotweed-Despairing-family-t-635 sell-home-monster-door-grows-eight-inches-day-damages-foundations-grows-brickwork.html 636 637 Environment Agency. 2013. Managing Japanese Knotweed on Development Sites: The 638 Knotweed Code of Practice. Environment Agency, Bristol. 639 640 Gerber E, Krebs C, Murrell C, Moretti M, Rocklin R, Schaffner U. 2008. Exotic invasive 641 knotweeds (Fallopia spp.) negatively affect native plant and invertebrate assemblages in 642 643 European riparian habitats. *Biological Conservation*, 141: 646-654. 644 Gillies S, Clements DR, Grenz J. 2016. Knotweed (Fallopia spp.) Invasion of North America 645 Utilizes Hybridization, Epigenetics, Seed Dispersal (Unexpectedly), and an Arsenal of 646 Physiological Tactics. *Invasive Plant Science and Management*, 9 (1), 71-80. 647 648 649 Guzner M, Galster J, Vanderklein D. 2013. Soil water sources for non-native species Japanese Knotweed, phragmites and multiflora rose. [abstract] 98th ESA Annual Conference 2013. 650 651 Hammer Ø, Harper DAT, Ryan PD. 2001. PAST: Paleontological Statistics software package for 652 653 education and data analysis. Palaeontologia Electronica 4(1): 9 Available from: 654 https://folk.uio.no/ohammer/past/ 655 Jones D, Bruce G, Fowler MS, Law-Cooper R, Graham I, Abel A, Street-Perrott FA, Eastwood 656 657 D. 2018. Optimising physiochemical control of invasive Japanese knotweed. *Biol Invasions*. DOI: 10.1007/s10530-018-1684-5 658 659 660 Kidd H. 2000. Japanese knotweed – the world's largest female! *Pesticide Outlook*, 11(3): 99-661 100. 662



Lowe S, Browne M, Boudjelas S, De Poorter M. 2000. 100 of the World's Worst Invasive Alien 663 Species A selection from the Global Invasive Species Database. Species Specialist Group 664 (ISSG), World Conservation Union (IUCN). 665 666 Mclean S. 2010. Identification of the presence and impact of Japanese knotweed on development 667 668 sites. Journal of Building Appraisal, 5(4), pp.289-292. 669 Mercer G, Reeves A, O'Callaghan D. 2011 The relationship between trees, distance to buildings 670 and subsidence events on shrinkable clay soil. Arboricultural Journal, 33: 229–245 671 672 673 MDNR (Michigan Department of Natural Resources). 2012. Invasive Species—Best Control 674 Practices, knotweed - Fallopia japonica (Polygonum cuspidatum). Michigan Natural Features Inventory 2/2012 675 676 Nentwig W, Bacher S. Kumschick S, Pyšek P, Vilà M. 2017. More than "100 worst" alien 677 678 species in Europe. Biological Invasions, DOI: 10.1007/s10530-017-1651-6. 679 680 NHBC. 2017. NHBC Standards 2017, 4.2 Building near trees. 681 682 Nielsen DC, Lyon D, Hergert GW, Higgins R, Holman J. 2015. Cover Crop Biomass Production and Water Use in the Central Great Plains. Agronomy Journal. 107: 2047–2058. 683 684 10.2134/agronj15.0186. 685 686 O'Callaghan DJ & Kelly O. 2005. Tree-related subsidence: Pruning is not the answer. Journal of Building Appraisal, 1: 113. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jba.2940011 687 688 PCA (Property Care Association). 2018. Code of practice for the management of Japanese 689 690 knotweed. PCA, Huntingdon. 691 Pearce F. 2015. The New Wild: Why invasive species will be nature's salvation. Beacon Press, 692 693 Boston.

594	
595	Philip C. 1990. The Plant Finder, Edition 4. Headmain Ltd, UK.
596	
597	Rellán-Álvarez R, Lobet G, Dinneny JR. 2016. Environmental Control of Root System Biology.
598	Annual Review of Plant Biology, Vol. 67:619-642 (Volume publication date April 2016) First
599	published online as a Review in Advance on February 22, 2016. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-
700	<u>arplant-043015-111848</u>
701	
702	Royal Institution of Chartered Surveyors (RICS). 2012. Japanese Knotweed and residential
703	property, RICS information paper, 1st edition (IP 27/2012).
704	
705	Santo P. 2017. Assessing diminution in value of residential properties affected by Japanese
706	Knotweed. Journal of Building Survey, Appraisal & Valuation Vol. 6 No. 3, published by Henry
707	Stewart Publications, London
708	
709	Smith JMD, Ward JP, Child LE, Owen MR. 2007. A simulation model of rhizome networks for
710	Fallopia japonica (Japanese Knotweed) in the United Kingdom. Ecological Modelling, 200
711	(3/4): 421–432.
712	
713	Storrie J. 1886. The Flora of Cardiff: A Descriptive List of the Indigenous Plants Found in the
714	District of the Cardiff Naturalists' Society, with a List of the Other British and Exotic Species,
715	Found on Cardiff Ballast Hills. Cardiff Naturalists' Society, Cardiff.
716	
717	Sweeny T (Independent.ie). 2017. This invasive plant can grow through concrete walls and wipe
718	out the value of your house in just months. [Online]. [21 March 2018]. Available from:
719	https://www.independent.ie/life/home-garden/homes/this-invasive-plant-can-grow-through-
720	concrete-walls-and-wipe-out-the-value-of-your-house-in-just-months-35584689.html
721	
722	Takeda S, Gapper C, Kaya H, Bell E, Kuchitsu K, Dolan L. 2008 Local Positive Feedback
723	Regulation Determines Cell Shape in Root Hair Cells. Science. 319: 1241–244
724	



725 The Calgary Eyeopener. 2015. Concrete-breaking Japanese knotweed sprouting in Alberta [Online]. [21 March 2018]. Available from: http://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/calgary/concrete-726 727 breaking-japanese-knotweed-sprouting-in-alberta-1.3124590 728 729 The Telegraph. 2015. Murder and suicide by husband driven mad over knotweed. [Online]. [21] March 2018]. Available from: https://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/uknews/law-and-730 731 order/11930169/Murder-and-suicide-by-husband-driven-mad-over-knotweed.html 732 Urgenson LS. 2006 The Ecological Consequences of Knotweed Invasion into Riparian Forests. 733 A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of: 734 Masters of Science (Forest Resources) University of Washington 735 736 Willey C. (Wilsons Estate Agents). 2018. Beware the Japanese Knotweed! [Online]. [21 March 737 2018]. Available from: http://www.wilsonsestateagents.co.uk/articles/2018/01/127-beware-the-738 739 japanese-knotweed. 740 Williams F, Eschen R, Harris A, Djeddour D, Pratt C, Shaw RS, Varia S, Lamontagne-Godwin 741 J, Thomas SE, Murphy ST. 2010. The Economic Cost of Invasive Non-Native Species to the 742 743 British Economy. Wallingford: CABI. 744



### Table 1(on next page)

Results from yes/no questions to contractors and surveyors.

Results are presented as percentages for easier comparison between contractor and surveyor respondents and rounded to the nearest whole number. The actual number of responses are included in brackets. n = sample size. Three surveyors did not answer the third and fourth questions making n = 68 for those responses. (See supplemental information 1 for more details.)



	<b>Contractor responses (n = 51)</b>		Surveyor resp	oonses (n = 71)
Question	Yes	No	Yes	No
Q1: Was there evidence of defects				
or structural damage to the	2% (1)	98% (50)	6% (4)	94% (67)
residential building caused by the	270 (1)	9870 (30)	070 (4)	J470 (O7)
Japanese knotweed?				
Q2: Was there evidence of defects				
or structural damage to retaining				
garden walls, sheds, garages,	35% (18)	65% (33)	23% (16)	77% (55)
greenhouses or lightly built garden	33% (18)			
structures caused by the Japanese				
knotweed?				
Q3: Was there evidence of defects				
or structural damage to drains,				
sewers and other subterranean	16% (8)	64% (43)	3% (2)	97% (66)
services caused by the Japanese				
knotweed?				
Q4: Was there evidence of loss of				
amenity to the garden or grounds	51% (26)	49% (21)	18% (13)	82% (55)
resulting from the presence of	51% (26)	49/0 (21)	10/0 (13)	02/0 (33)
Japanese knotweed?				



## Table 2(on next page)

F. japonica proximity to residential properties as reported by survey respondents and number of reports of damage (see supplemental information 1 for more details).

Distance from residential property in 1 m bins until 11 m	Number reported by contractors; n = 46. Reports of damage in brackets.	Number reported by surveyors (n = 65). Reports of damage in brackets.		
0 – 1.0	10 (1)	9 (3)		
1.1 – 2	8 (0)	3 (0)		
2.1 – 3	4 (0)	7 (0)		
3.1 - 4	2 (0)	6 (1)		
4.1 - 5	3 (0)	5 (0)		
5.1 – 6	3 (0)	1 (0)		
6.1 - 7	3 (0)	4 (0)		
7.1 – 8	2 (0)	3 (0)		
8.1 – 9	2 (0)	1 (0)		
9.1 – 10	2 (0)	8 (0)		
10.1 – 11	No record	1 (0)		
11.1 – 20	4 (0)	9 (0)		
20.1 - 30	2 (0)	4 (0)		
30.1 - 40	No record	No record		
40.1 - 50	No record	3 (0)		
50.1 or greater	1 (0)	1 (0)		

2

3



## Table 3(on next page)

Scale used to quantify damage where plants were present.

Rating	Rating description
0	Not associated with damage (e.g. just growing in soil or present beneath the soil)
1	Correlation with existing damage (e.g. emerging from a crack in paving or a gap in brickwork, but with no detectable variation away from baseline damage)
2	Minor exacerbation of existing damage (e.g. a detectable increase in crack width away from baseline damage)
3	Moderate exacerbation of existing damage (e.g. a detectable addition to damage away from baseline damage, i.e. new cracks forming around an initial crack)
4	Major exacerbation (damage beyond cracking, e.g. a damaged wall becoming undermined)
5	Causing minor damage (e.g. creating a crack)
6	Causing medium damage (e.g. creating a crack which has spread to form additional cracks)
7	Causing major damage (damage beyond cracking, e.g. a previous undamaged wall becoming undermined, or concrete hard standing being significantly lifted and cracked, or a roof being smashed in due to collapse)



## **Table 4**(on next page)

Summary data of damage linked to each of the different plant classes included in the survey.

Av. damage score = the average damage value assigned to each species for each particular type of damage. For *F. japonica* % of properties with the species present includes those with a Knotweed plant within 7 m of the main residential building (see supplemental information 2).

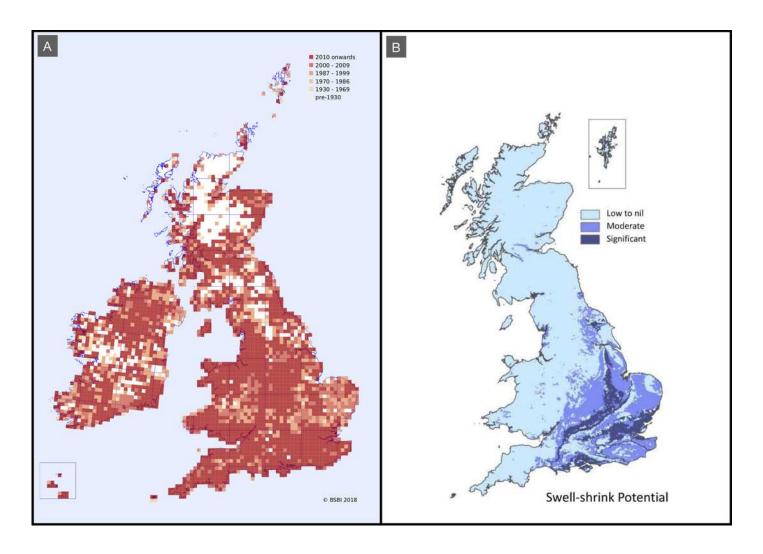
Plant damage to house		Plant damage to walls		Plant damage to pavi		ing			
	Plants linked to damage, % of occurrences	Plants linked to damage, % of total properties	Av damage score	Plants linked to damage, % of occurrences	Plants linked to damage, % of total properties	Av damage score	Plants linked to damage, % of occurrences	Plants linked to damage, % of total properties	Av damage score
F. japonica	0%	0%	0	11%	3%	0.029	33%	9%	0.176
	0/18	0/68		2/18	2/68		6/18	6/68	
B. davidii	68%	62%	0.75	79%	72%	1.529	73%	66%	0.824
	42/62	42/68		49/62	49.68		45/62	45/68	
Trees	33%	3%	0.132	67%	6%	0.235	50%	4%	0.176
	2/6	2/68		4/6	4/68		3/6	3/68	
Woody	75%	4%	0.103	75%	4%	0.044	0%	0%	0
Climbers	3/4	3/68		3/4	3/68		0/4	0/68	



# Figure 1

Distributions maps showing *F. japonica* records and soil shrink-swell potential.

(A) Records from the Botanical Society of Britain and Ireland live database based on presence/absence data in each hectad. Almost all hectads report fewer than 100 records. Map was produced using records collected mainly by members of the Botanical Society of Britain and Ireland (BSBI, 2018). (B) British Geological Society map showing areas at risk of shrink-swell action. Reproduced with the permission of the British Geological Survey ©UKRI. All rights Reserved (BGS, 2018).





# Figure 2

Photographs illustrating *F. japonica* appearance and structure.

(A) *F. Japonica* growing within the case study area. (B) Specimen of *F. japonica* leaves, stem and inflorescence. (C) *F. Japonica* crown, associated with the plant from panel A. (D) Specimen of *F. japonica* mature rhizome with immature rhizomes emerging. Photos by M. Fennell.







# Figure 3

Photographs illustrating examples of the rating scheme that was applied.

(A) Example of non-plant-based wear and tear to hard standing. (B) Rating '0' - B. davidii growing in a raised landscaping area, having no discernible impact on undamaged adjacent built structures. (C) Rating '1' - F. japonica emerging from existing cracks in paving at the base of a wall, causing no discernible impact away from baseline damage. (D) Rating '2' - F. japonica emerging from existing gaps in worn paving, while the gab has not been widened some mortar has been punched aside. (E) Rating '3' - B. davidii growing out of a crack in worn concrete hardstanding, with additional cracks forming in the area. F. japonica visible in the background emerging from similar cracks in the hardstanding, also exacerbating existing damage but to a lesser extent. (F) Rating '3' - B. davidii growing out of cracks in worn brickwork, with additional cracks forming in the area. (G) Rating '4' - B. davidii growing out of cracks in worn brickwork. It has found its way between two structures and is facilitating the dilapidation of the wall and pushing out brickwork. (H) Rating '6' B. davidii growing behind a small retaining wall and pushing some brickwork over. (I) The remains of a tree stump, which have destabilised the base of what remains of a dilapidated wall. Photos by M. Fennell.



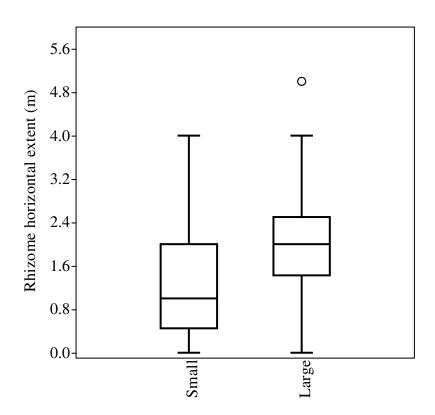




## Figure 4(on next page)

Comparison of horizontal rhizome extent between small (4  $m^2$  or less) and large (greater than 4  $m^2$ ) stands of *F. japonica*.

The box represents the lower 25 percentile, the median value and the upper 25% percentile and the whiskers represent the range of the data. The circle represents an outlier value (greater than two standard deviations away from the median value). Mann Whitney U: U = 412; p < 0.05 (p = 0.01802). N = 21 (small) and 60 (large).





## Figure 5(on next page)

Comparison of vertical rhizome extent between small (4  $m^2$  or less) and large (greater than 4  $m^2$ ) stands of *F. japonica*.

The box represents the lower 25 percentile, the median value and the upper 25% percentile and the whiskers represent the range of the data. The circle represents an outlier value (greater than two standard deviations away from the median value). Mann Whitney U: U = 260; p < 0.0001 ( $p = 6.105^{e-5}$ ). N = 21 (small) and 60 (large).

