**EPPO Datasheet: *Lygodium japonicum***

Last updated: 2020-04-23

**IDENTITY**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Preferred name:** *Lygodium japonicum* **Authority:** (Thunberg) Swartz **Taxonomic position:** Plantae: Pteridophyta: Pteridopsida: Schizaeales: Schizaeaceae: Lygodioideae **Other scientific names:** *Adiantum scandens* Loureiro, *Ophioglossum japonicum* Thunberg **Common names in English:** Japanese climbing fern [view more common names online...](https://gd.eppo.int/taxon/LYFJA/) **EPPO Categorization:** A1 list **EU Categorization:** IAS of Union concern [view more categorizations online...](https://gd.eppo.int/taxon/LYFJA/categorization) **EPPO Code:** LYFJA | 4162.jpg [more photos...](https://gd.eppo.int/taxon/LYFJA/photos) |

**GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION**

**History of introduction and spread**

*Lygodium japonicum* is considered native in a number of Asian countries including Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Korea (North and South), Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Taiwan, Thailand and Vietnam (Garrison, 1998; Chang *et al.*, 2014; Ferns of Thailand, 2014; Flora of China Editorial Committee, 2014; Flora of Japan, 2015). In China, it is primarily found south of the Yangtze River (Zheng *et al.*, 2006).

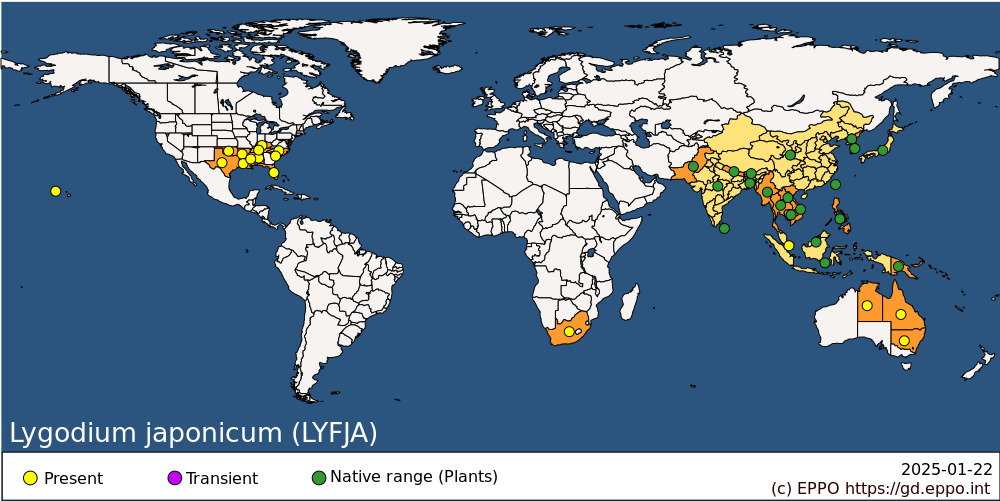
*L. japonicum* is considered native to Papua New Guinea. *L. japonicum* is described as being sparingly established as a ‘casual alien’ in South Africa (MacDonald *et al*., 2003; Henderson, 2007), and this is the only known documented location for the species on the African continent. The oldest confirmed naturalized record of *L. japonicum* is from 1985.

In Australia, *L. japonicum*has been documented as escaped from cultivation in the Northern Territory from the early 1900s. It was suggested that it was introduced during that period as an ornamental and as a specimen in botanical gardens, from which it escaped. Most records of this species becoming naturalized have been reported in South-Eastern Queensland since the mid-1990s. In Queensland, it is currently considered to be an environmental weed (Queensland Government, 2015). Hosking *et al.* (2011) also reported *L. japonicum* to be naturalized in New South Wales. In particular, there are several records from the Sunshine Coast and Brisbane areas in the last 10 years (K. Bohn, pers. comm. 2017). In Western Australia, Orchard & McCarthy (1998) considered previous reports of *L. japonicum* to be mistaken identifications of the native *Lygodium flexuosum.*

In the USA, *L. japonicum* has been introduced as an ornamental plant (Ferriter, 2001);*L. japonicum* individuals have been recorded near greenhouses (Anderson, 1921; Diddell, 1941) and in yards and gardens (Graves, 1920; Anderson, 1921). Regionally, the species was sold commercially as trailing or running maidenhair (Brown & Correll, 1942). The earliest record of *L. japonicum* as a garden escapee is from 1903 in Thomasville, Georgia, USA where it was observed near the site of a greenhouse that had been destroyed in a fire (Harper, 1905; Thomasville Times-Enterprise, 1903). In the early 1920s, it was recorded as escaped from cultivation in Alabama (Graves, 1920) and South Carolina (Anderson, 1921). In the late 1930s, *L. japonicum* was recorded in Florida; this record also indicated that the species was already known in Alabama, Georgia and South Carolina and was expected to spread further in the southern states (Correll, 1938). Thorne (1949) reported the species as naturalized from Florida to Louisiana and North Carolina. It is currently found as far west as Texas and Arkansas, throughout Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama and Florida, as far north as North Carolina and Kentucky. In Florida, it is primarily found in the panhandle and through the central part of the peninsula, although a few observations have been noted as far south as the southern tip of the peninsula. Its southern expansion may be limited by competition with its congener *Lygodium microphyllum* or climatic conditions. It has also been introduced in Puerto Rico and Mexico but is not widely established or invasive.

In the EPPO region,*L. japonicum* is not present in the natural environment. It may be present in cultivation in private collections (within confined greenhouses) and botanical gardens in Europe (often inside dedicated greenhouses).

**Distribution**

 **Africa:** South Africa **Asia:** Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Korea Dem. People's Republic, Korea, Republic, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam **North America:** United States of America (Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Hawaii, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas) **Oceania:** Australia (New South Wales, Northern Territory, Queensland), Papua New Guinea

**MORPHOLOGY**

**Plant type**

Broadleaved, herbaceous perennial climbing fern.

**Description**

*L. japonicum*is a rhizomatous vine, with a twining rachis climbing to 30 m. Belowground rhizomes are creeping, with black to reddish-brown hairs. Stipes are spaced to 1 cm apart on the rhizome. Stems remain underground, but send up long vine-like indeterminate fronds that have numerous compound pinnae. Pinnae on frondlets are triangular to deltoid-shaped, with short stalks, about 3–5 cm long. The mid-ribs (costae) have scattered hairs, and veins and pinnae surfaces are typically glabrous. Each pinnule on the pinnae is pinnate to lobed and stalked often with dissected terminal lobes. Pinnules are pubescent below and margins are variously dentate. Spore diameters range in size from 64 to 80 µm, averaging 76 µm. Japanese climbing fern sporangia are borne on narrow, fingerlike segments of the pinnae.

**BIOLOGY AND ECOLOGY**

**General**

*L. japonicum* is a true fern that reproduces by spores (homosporous fern) which germinate and develop through gametophyte and sporophyte stages. It reproduces sexually by intragametophytic selfing (Lott *et al*., 2003), meaning it is self-fertilizing. Spores develop only on frondlets (sorophores) of the new season’s growth.

**Habitats**

Where introduced in the USA, *L. japonicum* occupies a broad range of natural and disturbed habitats (K. Bohn, pers. obs.). While *L. japonicum* has a strong preference for moist soils it can sometimes occupy xeric sites (Van Loan, 2006). It is invasive in diverse habitats throughout the South-Eastern USA, ranging from floodplain forests, swamps, marshes, river and stream banks to pine flatwoods, hardwood hammocks and upland woodlands (Wunderlin *et al.*, 2000; Diggs & George, 2006; Van Loan, 2006; Langeland *et al.*, 2008; Miller*et al.,*2010). Floodplain swamps are comparatively uninfested due to lower elevations and resultant regular flooding and inundation (Ferriter, 2001). Infestations also occur in xeric sites, but do not appear to expand as rapidly as in more mesic sites, possibly due to the infrequency of appropriate conditions for gametophyte establishment or fertilization. The species is a common invader of pine plantations (Ferriter, 2001; Zeller & Leslie, 2004; Van Loan, 2006; Miller *et al.*, 2010) and often invades disturbed areas, including alongside roads and particularly ditches and culverts.

In South Africa, it has been found in moist forest, scrub and road edges, and in Australia, it has been documented in wet forests and riparian areas (CABI, 2017).

**Environmental requirements**

In its native range, the species mostly prefers warm climates with average year-round temperatures over 10°C (CABI 2017), and with clearly defined wet and dry seasons. In the South-Eastern USA, peak growth periods occur between mid-May and late July and have been associated with average monthly temperatures ranging from lows of 22°C to highs of 32°C. The above-ground foliage of *L. japonicum* dies back after frost and temperatures at or near 0°C; however, belowground root and rhizomes will remain dormant through the winter and re-sprout when temperatures reach at least 18°C. Hutchinson & Langeland (2014) found that freezing temperatures do not affect the viability of spores. Gametophytes were sensitive to freezing temperatures but could survive when exposed for several hours.

In North Florida, spore development begins around late June to July and spores become mature in late August and disperse throughout mid-September to late October. In a controlled setting, spores have been observed to be viable for up to 5 years (K. Bohn, pers. obs.). Spore germination is triggered by exposure to temperatures of at least 15°C for at least 2–3 weeks, and may be enhanced by being protected by leaf litter rather than exposed to bare soil (Ulrich, 2012).

*L. japonicum* may have a preference for soils with a circumneutral pH (Diggs & George, 2006; Langeland *et al.*, 2008).

**Natural enemies**

To date, no biological control agents have been released specifically for*L. japonicum* in the South-Eastern USA, primarily because of the potential impact on a sympatric, native species *Lygodium palmatum.*

**Uses and benefits**

*L. japonicum* is currently sold as an ornamental plant in the USA. There are some recent indications that the species is available in the pest risk analysis (PRA) area but to a low extent. One supplier in Ireland has been highlighted as supplying the species in the past. The species is also listed on the Royal Horticultural Society (GB) website, where one supplier is detailed.

*L. japonicum* is recorded as having medicinal value in its native range. CABI (2017) gives the following details. In China, it is used as a diuretic (Puri, 1970) and to treat colds, inflammation, kidney stones and renal ailments (Eisenberg *et al*., 2009). In India, it is used as an expectorant and to treat snakebites (Reutter, 1923; Puri, 1970) and to treat diabetes, wounds and ulcers (Yumkham & Singh, 2011). In Nepal, a paste is used to treat scabies, the juice is used to treat herpes and wounds (Manandhar, 1995) and its juice is applied for boils, wounds, whitlow and scabies (Mall *et al*., 2015). In Pakistan, a powder is used on wounds to help healing and a root extract is used to reduce body aches and swelling (Khan *et al*., 2010). Spores are sold on the Internet for use in traditional Chinese medicine as ‘Spora Lygodii’ (Ferriter, 2001). Formal studies have been conducted to determine the medicinal benefits of *L. japonicum*. Duan *et al.* (2012) showed that this species has compounds with strong antioxidant properties. Cho *et al*. (2014) found it to be useful as a preventive and therapeutic agent against the formation of oxalate kidney stones, supporting one of the primary traditional uses. It has also been studied, with potentially positive results, for the regrowth of hair (Matsuda *et al.*, 2002).

**PATHWAYS FOR MOVEMENT**

The pathway 'plants for planting' is considered the main entry pathway into the EPPO region (EPPO, 2018). In North America, *L. japonicum* was introduced as an ornamental plant for homeowners and landscapers and then it escaped into the wild (Ferriter, 2001). *L. japonicum* is currently sold as an ornamental plant in the USA, and there is some evidence that the species is sold within the EPPO region. The plant can be purchased via the Internet, and thus imports into the EPPO region from outside are possible.

In the Netherlands, gametophytes have been detected in growing media of bonsai plants imported from China (J. van Valkenburg, pers. comm. 2017). Following inspection, of the bonsai consignments, young plants were found in the growing medium and subsequently identified as *L. japonicum*.

Other potential pathways include contamination of machinery and equipment, contamination of leisure equipment (e.g. hiking boots and clothes) and contamination of timber and wood material (EPPO, 2018).

**IMPACTS**

**Effects on plants**

*L. japonicum* can grow in sun or shade, damp, disturbed or undisturbed areas in the USA. It can grow so dense that it forms a living ‘wall’, leading to the elimination of seedlings and other native vegetation. No long-term studies have been completed to assess the impact of *L. japonicum*on biodiversity. In upland and mesic pine forests of the South-Eastern USA, a negative correlation was found between native plant richness and increasing percentage fern cover (Ulrich, 2012). Similar correlations were found with decreases in plant diversity and increasing fern cover. There may be less impact on species diversity on drier upland soils where *L. japonicum* is more likely to co-occur with native vegetation, at least during early periods of the infestation. Leichty *et al.* (2011) also found that *L. japonicum* is likely to compete with mesic pine savannah species in Louisiana, particularly with other native ferns or vines. On wetter sites, such as near rivers and wetlands, heavily infested areas have been observed to create dense mats over ground layer herbaceous vegetation. On those sites, both species abundance and richness are likely to decrease more significantly over time.

**Environmental and social impact**

In the South-Eastern USA the most important impact of *L. japonicum* on the ecosystem is its ability to alter fire regimes in both natural areas and managed plantations. In both settings, surface fires with low flame lengths are used to limit wildfire fuels. In unmanaged longleaf pine ecosystems, surface fires as a result of lighting naturally occur every 2–3 years. However, where the fern climbs vertically around shrubs and trees, fires can easily spread into canopy trees from the ground. This has implications for commodity production of timber as well as primary productivity of mature trees in unmanaged ecosystems. The dense mats created by *L. japonicum* may also facilitate the movement of fires into wetland areas that might otherwise be barriers (Munger, 2005). Another important negative impact of *L. japonicum*on ecosystem services is the impact on cultural services by reducing access to forests for recreation and leisure (Rowe, 2008).

The greatest economic impact of *L. japonicum* is on timber losses due to fire. In the USA, final harvest values for plantation forest range from about USD 1000-1200 per acre, so a crown fire that might be caused by an invasion of climbing fern could result in an economic loss of that scale (Georgia Forestry Commission, 2011).

In addition, the species negatively affects the pine straw (fallen pine needles) industry in the South-Eastern USA. In Alabama and Florida, movement of*L. japonicum*spores through the distribution of pine straw for the landscaping industry is highly regulated. If discovered, fines can be levied, and regulatory action can be taken against such products and potentially lower the product value.

**CONTROL**

Because of the ability of *L. japonicum* to resprout vegetatively, mechanical methods are not effective. Small plants could potentially be pulled, as long as the entire root system is removed. Fire also stimulates vegetative regrowth and will not control this species.

From operational experience in the USA best results are obtained with the application of herbicides in late season, from July to early October (Bohn *et al*., 2011). However, to better control spore dissemination and reproduction, some results suggest applying herbicides no later than mid-September (Bohn & Thetford, 2014). In a preliminary study in the USA, spore germination was reduced when individual plants were treated between July and early September.

**REGULATORY STATUS**

Europe (overall): in 2016, *L. japonicum* was identified as a priority for risk assessment within the requirements of Regulation 1143/2014 (Branquart *et al.*, 2016; Tanner *et al*., 2017). A subsequent PRA concluded that *L. japonicum* posed a moderate phytosanitary risk to the endangered area (EPPO, 2018) and was added to the EPPO A1 List of pests recommended for regulation as quarantine pests. In 2019, *L. japonicum* was included on the (EU) list of Union concern (EU Regulation 1143/2014).

In the USA, *L. japonicum* does not have federal ‘noxious weed’ status, but is listed as a Class B noxious weed in Alabama, and was added to the Florida Noxious Weed List in 1999 (USDA, 2017).

In Australia, Japanese climbing fern is ‘regarded’ as an environmental weed in New South Wales and South-Eastern Queensland and is a potential environmental weed in Northern Australia; however, no laws or regulations exist to regulate its distribution and spread (Queensland Government, 2015).

**REFERENCES**

Anderson ML (1921) *Lygodium japonicum* in South Carolina. *American Fern Journal* **11**, 90–91.

Bohn KK, Minogue PJ & Pieterson EC (2011) Control of invasive Japanese climbing fern (*Lygodium japonicum*) and response of native ground cover during restoration of a disturbed longleaf pine ecosystem. *Ecological Restoration* **29**, 346–356.

Bohn KK & Thetford M (2014) Effect of herbicide type, application timing, and light intensity on Japanese climbing fern reproduction. Florida Fish and Wildlife Conservation Commission, Bureau of Invasive Species Management Final Report. 13 pp.

Branquart E, Brundu G, Buholzer S, Chapman D, Ehret P, Fried G *et al.* (2016) A prioritization process for invasive alien plant species incorporating the requirements of the EU Regulation 1143/2014. *EPPO Bulletin* **47**, 603–617.

Brown CA & Correll DS (1942). Ferns and Fern Allies of Louisiana, pp. 186. State University Press, Baton Rouge (US).

CABI (2017) *Lygodium japonicum*. <http://cabi.org/isc/datasheet/31783> [accessed on 25 February 2017].

Chang C-S, Kim H & Chang K (2014). *Provisional Checklist of Vascular Plants for the Korea Peninsula Flora (KPF)*, pp. 561. DesignPost, Seoul (KR).

Cho HJ, Bae WJ, Kim SJ, Hong SH, Lee JY, Hwang TK *et al.* (2014) The inhibitory effect of an ethanol extract of the spores of *Lygodium japonicum* on ethylene glycol-induced kidney calculi in rats. *Urolithiasis***42**, 309–315.

Correll DS (1938) A county check-list of Florida ferns and fern allies. *American Fern Journal***28**, 46–54.

Diddell MW (1941) New stations for Florida pteridophytes. *American Fern Journals* **31**, 48–52.

Diggs GM & George R (2006) *Illustrated Flora of East Texas, Volume 1*. Botanical Research Institute of Texas, Fort Worth (US).

Duan Y, Dai Y, He R, Kurihara H, Li Y & Yao X (2012) A new phenylpropanoid glucoside from the aerial parts of *Lygodium japonicum. Journal of Asian Natural Products Research* **14**, 286–292.

Eisenberg A, Amato PJ & Tao D (2009) Kam Guilzhouh nyim Guangxxih di Benxtux Wenchual nyim Zihyuanc dih Gonxliix: Kam local indigenous knowledge and sustainable resource management in Guizhou and Guangxi provinces, China. *Ethnobotany Research and Applications* **7**, 67–113.

EPPO (2018) Pest Risk Analysis for *Lygodium japonicum.*EPPO, Paris (FR). <https://pra.eppo.int/>[acessed on 8 November 2018]

Ferns of Thailand (2014) [http://rbg-web2.rbge.org.uk/thaiferns/index. htm](http://rbg-web2.rbge.org.uk/thaiferns/index.%20htm) [accessed on 25 March 2017].

Ferriter A (ed.) (2001) *Lygodium Management Plan for Florida*, 1st edn. Florida Exotic Pest Plant Council, Lygodium Task Force, Florida (US).

Flora of China Editorial Committee (2014) Flora of China. Missouri Botanical Garden and Harvard University Herbaria, St. Louis (US) and Cambridge (US). [http://www.efloras.org/flora\_page.aspx?flora\_ id=2](http://www.efloras.org/flora_page.aspx?flora_%20id=2) [accessed on 24 March 2017].

Flora of Japan (2015) Flora of Japan database. [http://foj.c.u-tokyo.ac.jp/ gbif/foj/](http://foj.c.u-tokyo.ac.jp/%20gbif/foj/) [accessed on 15 August 2017].

Garrison HJ (1998) A monographic study of *Lygodium* Swartz (Pteridophyta: Lygodiaceae). Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation. New York, US: The City University of New York.

Georgia Forestry Commission (2011) Does reforestation pay? Loblolly pine for traditional products. <http://www.gfc.state.ga.us/utilization/economic-impacts/DoesReforestationPayLoblollyPineforTraditionalProducts-Mar2011rev.pdf> [accessed on 1 March 2017].

Graves EW (1920) The fern flora of Alabama.*American Fern Journal* **10**, 65–82.

Harper RM (1905) The fern flora of Georgia. *The Fern Bulletin* **13**, 1–17.

Henderson L (2007) Invasive, naturalized and casual alien plants in southern Africa: a summary based on the Southern African Plant Invaders Atlas (SAPIA). *Bothalia***37**, 215–248.

Hosking JR, Conn BJ, Lepschi BJ & Barker CH (2011) Plant species first recognised as naturalised or naturalising for New South Wales in 2004 and 2005. *Cunninghamia:* *A Journal of Plant Ecology for Eastern Australia***12**, 85–114.

Hutchinson JT & Langeland KA (2014) Tolerance of *Lygodium microphyllum*and*L. japonicum*spores and gametophytes to freezing temperature. *Invasive Plant Science and Management* **7**, 328–335.

Khan MA, Khan MA, Hussain M & Mujtaba G (2010) An ethnobotanical inventory of Himalayan region Poonch Valley Azad Kashmir (Pakistan). *Ethnobotany Research and Applications* **8**, 107–124.

Langeland KA, Cherry HM, McCormick CM & Craddock Burks KA (2008) *Identification and Biology of Non-native Plants in Florida’s Natural Areas*, pp. 210. 2nd edition. University of Florida, Gainesville (US).

Leichty ER, Carmichael BJ & Platt WJ (2011) Invasion of a southeastern pine savanna by Japanese climbing fern. *Castanea***76**, 293–299.

Lott MS, Volin JC, Pemberton RW & Austin DF (2003) The reproductive biology of the invasive ferns *Lygodium microphyllum*and *L. japonicum* (Schizaceae): Implications for invasive potential. *American Journal of Botany* **90**, 1144–1151.

MacDonald IAW, Reaser JK, Bright C, Neville LE, Howard GW, Murphy SJ *et al.* (2003) Cape Town (ZA): Global Invasive Species Programme, p. 125 <http://www.gisp.org> [accessed on 10 May 2017].

Mall B, Gauchan DP & Chhetri RB (2015) An ethnobotanical study of medicinal plants used by ethnic people in Parbat district of western Nepal.*Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **165**, 103–117.

Manandhar NP (1995) An inventory of some herbal drugs of Myagdi District, Nepal. *Economic Botany* **49**, 371–379.

Matsuda H, Yamazaki M, Naruto S, Asanuma Y & Kubo M (2002) Anti-androgenic and hair growth promoting activities of Lygodii Spora (spore of *Lygodium japonicum*) I. Active constituents inhibiting testosterone 5alpha-reductase. *Biological & Pharmaceutical Bulletin***25**, 622–626.

Miller JH, Manning ST, Enloe SF, United U, Forest F & Southern RR (2010) A management guide for invasive plants in southern forests. General Technical Report - Southern Research Station, USDA Forest Service, No. SRS-13. pp. 120.

Munger GT (2005) *Lygodium* spp. Fire Effects Information System. USA: USDA Forest Service. [http://www.fs.fed.us/database/feis/plants/ fern/lygspp/all.html](http://www.fs.fed.us/database/feis/plants/%20fern/lygspp/all.html) [accessed on 10 May 2017].

Orchard AE & McCarthy PM (1998) *Flora of Australia. Volume 48*. Ferns, Gymnosperms and Allied Groups, Melbourne (AU): CSIRO. Puri HS (1970) Indian Pteridophytes used in folk remedies. *American Fern Journal* **60**, 137–143.

Queensland Government (2015) Fact Sheet: *Lygodium japonicum*. QLD Government, Brisbane (AU). [http://keyserver.lucidcentral.org/weed s/data/03030800-0b07-490a-8d04-0605030c0f01/media/Html/Lygod ium\_japonicum.htm](http://keyserver.lucidcentral.org/weed%20s/data/03030800-0b07-490a-8d04-0605030c0f01/media/Html/Lygod%20ium_japonicum.htm) [accessed on 9 May 2017].

Reutter L (1923) *Traité de matière médicale: drogues végétales, drogues animales et de chimie végétale.* [English title not available]. J.B. Baillière, Paris (FR).

Rowe R (2008) Looking for some specific information on*Lygodium microphyllum*and*L. japonicum.* Personal communication to A. L. Koop on April 30, (2008) from Rosalind Rowe (Central Florida Invasive Plant Coordinator, The Nature Conservancy).

Tanner R, Branquart E, Brundu G, Buholzer S, Chapman D, Ehret P *et al.* (2017) The prioritisation of a short list of alien plants for risk analysis within the framework of the Regulation (EU) No. 1143/ 2014. *NeoBiota***35**, 87–118.

Thorne RF (1949) The flora of southwestern Georgia. Dissertation. Cornell University.

Ulrich J (2012) Japanese climbing fern (*Lygodium japonicum*) propagation and invasion: effect of environmental variables on spore germination and consequences of establishment for understory plant communities and habitat quality. Master’s Thesis, University of Florida, pp. 70.

USDA Plant Database (2017) <https://plants.usda.gov/core/profile?symbol=LYJA> [accessed on 10 June 2017].

Van Loan AN (2006) Aspects of the invasion and management of Japanese climbing fern (*Lygodium japonicum*) in Southeastern forests. Masters thesis. University of Florida.

Wunderlin RP, Hansen BF, Edwin LB & Fischer JB (2000) *Flora of Florida. Volume 1: Pteridophytes and Gymnosperms,* pp. 384. University Press of Florida, Gainesville (US).

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

This datasheet is an output of a DG Environment, LIFE funding, under project LIFE15 PRE-FR 001: Mitigating the threat of invasive alien plants in the EU through pest risk analysis to support the EU Regulation 1143/2014. The datasheet was produced following an Expert Working Group (EWG) that risk analysed *L. japonicum* for the EPPO region in March 2017.

The composition of the EWG was as follows: K. Bohn (Penn State Extension, US), G. Brundu (University of Sassari, IT), D. Chapman (Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, GB), I. Dancza (Syngenta, HR), D. Frohlich (SWCA Environmental Consultants, US), J. Hutchinson (The University of Texas, US), S. R. Miller (Bureau of Land Resources, US), J. van Valkenburg (National Plant Protection Organization, NL) and R. Tanner (EPPO).

**How to cite this datasheet?**

EPPO (2025) *Lygodium japonicum*. EPPO datasheets on pests recommended for regulation. Available online. <https://gd.eppo.int>

**Datasheet history**

This datasheet was first published in the EPPO Bulletin in 2019 and is now maintained in an electronic format in the EPPO Global Database. The sections on 'Identity' and 'Geographical distribution' are automatically updated from the database. For other sections, the date of last revision is indicated on the right.

EPPO (2019) *Lygodium japonicum* (Thunb.) Sw. Datasheets on pests recommended for regulation. *EPPO Bulletin***49**(2), 261-266. <https://doi.org/10.1111/epp.12523>