# **birdsrape mustard** *Brassica rapa* L.

Synonyms: Brassica campestris Linnaeus, B. campestris var. oleifera de Candolle, B. chinensis Linnaeus, B. pekinensis (Loureiro) Ruprecht, B. rapa ssp. chinensis (Linnaeus) Hanelt, B. rapa ssp. pekinensis (Loureiro) Hanelt, Sinapis pekinensis Loureiro

Other common names: bird's rape, field mustard, rape, rape mustard, turnip rape, wild mustard, wild rutabaga, wild turnip

Family: Brassicaceae

**Invasiveness Rank:** 50 The invasiveness rank is calculated based on a species' ecological impacts, biological attributes, distribution, and response to control measures. The ranks are scaled from 0 to 100, with 0 representing a plant that poses no threat to native ecosystems and 100 representing a plant that poses a major threat to native ecosystems.

#### Description

Birdsrape mustard is an annual, winter annual, or biennial plant that grows from thin, slender roots. The stems are usually 30 to 100 cm tall and have either no branches or few distal branches. Basal leaves are bright green, lyrate, setose, 10 to 40 cm long, and 3 to 10 cm wide with toothed to pinnatifid margins. They are petiolated with one to four pairs of lateral lobes towards the base. The terminal lobes are larger than the lateral lobes. Stem leaves are lanceolate, glaucous, simply toothed, sessile, and clasping. Flowers are arranged in short inflorescences. Open flowers overtop or equal buds. Each flower has four petals that are yellow, obovate, 6 to 11 mm long, and 3 to 6 mm wide. The sepals are spreading. Siliques (fruits) are ascending to spreading, torulose, terete, and single-veined. They are 3 to 8 cm long and gradually narrow to form beaks that are 10 to 15 mm long. Seeds are spherical, 1.5 to 3 mm in diameter, and brown (Hultén 1968, DiTomaso and Healy 2007, eFloras 2008, Warwick 2010).



Flowers overtopping buds on Brassica rapa L. Photo by P. Slichter.

Similar species: Birdsrape mustard is very similar to the introduced rapeseed mustard (Brassica napus). Both Brassica rapa and B. napus can be confused with several other yellow-flowered, annual, introduced mustards: Indian mustard (Brassica juncea), white mustard (Sinapis alba), and wild mustard (S. arvensis). Unlike the Brassica species, both Sinapis species have stiff, downward-pointing hairs on their stems and siliques with 3 to 5 veins. Brassica juncea can be distinguished from both *B. rapa* and *B. napus* by leaves that do not clasp the stem and shorter (5 to 10 mm) beaks on its fruits. B. napus can be differentiated from B. rapa by its longer flower buds that overtop the open flowers, flowers that are cream-colored to pale yellow as opposed to yellow, broader petals that are 10 to 16 mm long and 6 to 9 mm wide, and basal leaves that are usually glabrous (Hultén 1968, DiTomaso and Healy 2007, Gulden et al. 2008, Warwick 2010).



Clasping leaf base of Brassica rapa L. Photo by N. Kramer.

#### **Ecological Impact**

Impact on community composition, structure, and interactions: Deer, squirrels, and a variety of insects feed on cultivated birdsrape mustard in Canada (Gulden et al. 2008). Birdsrape mustard contains glucosinolates that can irritate the digestive tracts of animals and are toxic if consumed in large quantities (DiTomaso and Healy 2007). Plants are visited by flies, honeybees,



bumblebees, and solitary bees and may compete with native plants for insect pollinators. Birdsrape mustard is associated with a wide variety of nematodes and plant diseases. Birdsrape mustard can hybridize with several other non-native mustards, including wild mustard (*Sinapis arvensis*) and dogmustard (*Erucastrum gallicum*) (Gulden et al. 2008). As dead plant materials from birdsrape mustard decompose, glucosinolates and myrosinase from the plant tissues form phytotoxic isothiocyanates that suppress the growth of surrounding plants. Living plants also release isothiocyanates into the soil, but to a lesser degree than do decomposing plant tissues (Petersen et al. 2001, Siemens et al. 2002, Gulden et al. 2008).

Impact on ecosystem processes: Birdsrape mustard colonizes open ground and disturbed areas (DiTomaso and Healy 2007), where it may decrease nutrient availability for native species. This species can form a new forb layer on recently disturbed sites (Carlson pers. obs.). It may prevent the establishment of some native species in areas that are regularly disturbed. In Canada, birdsrape mustard populations are generally displaced by other species as successional processes occur, as long repeated disturbance is as prevented (Plant Biotechnology Office 1999). In the Intermountain West, however, birdsrape mustard populations establish and persist in naturally open areas (Million pers. obs.). In Southeastern Alaska, birdsrape mustard appears to integrate into beach rve coastal communities (AKEPIC 2010).

### **Biology and Invasive Potential**

*Reproductive potential:* Birdsrape mustard reproduces by seed only. Seed counts specific to weedy populations are not available, however, plants produced between 19 and 187 fruits per plant in a naturalized population in California. When grown as a crop in Turkey, plants produced 217 to 404 fruits per plant, and each fruit contained 10 or 11 seeds. Seeds remained viable after three years in arable soil seed banks and likely remain viable longer (Gulden et al. 2008). Snow cover greatly increases the survival rates of seeds during winters in Alaska (Sparrow et al. 1990).

*Role of disturbance in establishment:* Birdsrape mustard is a colonizer of disturbed habitats, roadsides, and waste areas (DiTomaso and Healy 2007). It requires disturbed ground to germinate (Plant Biotechnology Office 1999). Large volunteer populations of birdsrape mustard grow in fields in interior Alaska during years after the plant has been cultivated (Sparrow et al. 1990).

*Potential for long-distance dispersal:* Fruits shatter when mature and disperse seeds a limited distance. Birdsrape mustard does not have any other specialized adaptations for dispersal. Seeds can be spread in the excrement of grazing animals (Gulden et al. 2008). Some seeds may be transported on animal feet or fur, but most seeds do not disperse far from the parent plant (DiTomaso and Healy 2007).

Potential to be spread by human activity: Birdsrape mustard is a common crop that is cultivated throughout much of the world. Cultivars include turnip, pakchoi, and canola (DiTomaso and Healy 2007, eFloras 2008, Warwick 2010). Cultivation of this plant has been documented in interior Alaska (Sparrow et al. 1990). Birdsrape mustard reverts to its weedy wild type after it escapes from cultivation (DiTomaso and Healy 2007, eFloras 2008). Human dispersal occurs when seeds attach to people, vehicles, machinery, clothing, or shoes (DiTomaso and Healy 2007). Grazing, domesticated animals can spread seeds in their excrement (Gulden et al. 2008).

*Germination requirements:* Information specific to the germination of weedy birdsrape mustard is not available. The germination of cultivated varieties declines sharply at temperatures lower than 3°C. Seeds can germinate throughout the growing season but primarily germinate in fall or spring. Seedlings can withstand temperatures as low as -20°C during the winter and snow cover increases the survival rate of seeds that germinate in the fall. Germination is inhibited by high salinity (Sparrow et al. 1990, Gulden et al. 2008). Cold stratification is not required for seeds to germinate (USDA 2010).

*Growth requirements:* Birdsrape mustard can grow on any soil type, but it grows best on moist, mediumtextured soils that have pH levels between 5.5 and 8.3. It does not grow as well in waterlogged, sandy, saline, acidic, or alkaline soils (Gulden et al. 2008). Birdsrape mustard can grow in soil that has high calcium carbonate (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) content. It requires large amounts moisture and nutrients. The plant can withstand temperatures as low as -25°C (USDA 2010).

*Congeneric weeds*: Indian mustard (*Brassica juncea*) and rapeseed mustard (*B. napus*) are known to occur as non-native weeds in Alaska (AKEPIC 2010). Black mustard (*B. nigra*), Saharan mustard (*B. tournefortii*), elongated mustard (*B. elongata* ssp. *integrifolia*), and Mediterranean cabbage (*B. fruticulosa*) are problem weeds in the U.S. (DiTomaso and Healy 2007).

### Legal Listings

- Has not been declared noxious
- Listed noxious in Alaska
- ☑Listed noxious by other states (all *Brassica* species are listed as noxious weeds in OK and as noxious weed seeds in AL, CT, LA, MA, ME, MI, MS, TX, VA, VT)
  □Federal noxious weed
- \_\_\_Federal noxious weed
- Listed noxious in Canada or other countries (QC, SK)

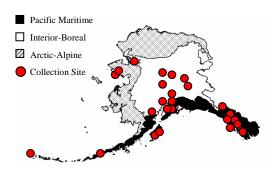
### **Distribution and Abundance**

Birdsrape mustard commonly grows along roads and railroads in Canada and the U.S. (DiTomaso and Healy 2007, Gulden et al. 2008). It can be a serious weed problem in interior Alaska in fields on which it has been



previously cultivated (Sparrow et al. 1990). Birdsrape mustard is self sustaining outside of arable fields. It is most abundant near urban areas and fields where it has been cultivated (Gulden et al. 2008).

*Native and current distribution:* Birdsrape mustard is native to Eurasia (Warwick 2010). It was introduced to North America as an agricultural crop and as a contaminant in crop seed (Gulden et al. 2008). Its current range includes most of the United States, Canada, Europe, Asia, and Africa. Populations are also present in Mexico, South America, and Australia (Warwick 2010). In northwestern Europe, populations are stable to the middle boreal zone, and populations are present in Iceland (Elven 2007). Birdsrape mustard has been documented growing in fields in interior Alaska after being cultivated, beach rye coastal communities in Southeast Alaska, and disturbed areas throughout the state (Sparrow et al. 1990, AKEPIC 2010).



## Distribution of birdsrape mustard in Alaska

#### **References:**

- AKEPIC database. Alaska Exotic Plant Information Clearinghouse Database. 2010. Available: <u>http://akweeds.uaa.alaska.edu/</u>
- Carlson, M. L., Associate Research Professor Botany, Alaska Natural Heritage Program, University of Alaska Anchorage, 707 A Street, Anchorage, Alaska. Tel: (907) 257-2790 – Pers. obs.
- DiTomaso, J., and E. Healy. 2007. Weeds of California and Other Western States. Vol. 1. University of California Agriculture and Natural Resources Communication Services, Oakland, CA. 834 p.
- eFloras. 2008. Published on the Internet <u>http://www.efloras.org</u> [accessed 23 September 2010]. Missouri Botanical Garden, St. Louis, MO & Harvard University Herbaria, Cambridge, MA.
- Elven, R. (Ed). 2007. Checklist of the Panarctic Flora (PAF) Vascular Plants. Version: May 2007. [9 September 2010] http://www.binran.ru/infsys/paflist/index.htm
- Gulden, R., S. Warwick, and A. Thomas. 2008. The Biology of Canadian Weeds. 137. *Brassica napus* L. and *B. rapa* L. Canadian Journal of

Management

Birdsrape mustard can be controlled by hand-pulling; however, manual control must be repeated annually until the seed bank is depleted (DiTomaso and Healy 2007). Control may not be necessary in areas that do not receive regular disturbance because native species will eventually displace birdsrape mustard through natural successional processes (Plant Biotechnology Office 1999). Birdsrape mustard cannot resprout following the removal of the aboveground portion (Gulden et al. 2008, USDA 2010).

Plant Science. 88(5). 951-996 p.

- Hultén, E. 1968. Flora of Alaska and Neighboring Territories. Stanford University Press, Stanford, CA. 1008 pp.
- Invaders Database System. 2010. University of Montana. Missoula, MT. <u>http://invader.dbs.umt.edu/</u>
- ITIS. 2010. Integrated Taxonomic Information System. <u>http://www.itis.gov/</u>
- Michigan Department of Agriculture. 2010. Prohibited and Restricted Weeds. <u>http://www.michigan.gov/mda</u> [14 October 2010].
- Million, B.M. Alaska Exotic Plant Management Team Liaison, Alaska Regional Office, National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, 240 West 5<sup>th</sup> Avenue, Anchorage, Alaska, 99501. Tel: (907) 644-3452 – Pers. obs.
- Plant Biotechnology Office. 1999. The Biology of Brassica rapa L. Regulatory Directive 1999-02. Canadian Food Inspection Agency, Nepean, ON.



Petersen, J., R. Belz, F. Walker, K. Hurle. 2001. Weed Suppression by Release of Isothiocyanates from Turnip-Rape Mulch. Agronomy Journal. 93(1). 37-43 p.

Siemens, D., S. Garner, T. Mitchell-Olds, R. Callaway. 2002. Costs of defense in the context of plant competition: *Brassica rapa* may grow and defend. Ecology. 83(2). 505-517 p.

Sparrow, S., J. Conn, and C. Knight. 1990. Canola seed survival over winter in the field in Alaska. Canadian Journal of Plant Science. 70(3). 799-807 p.

UAM. 2010. University of Alaska Museum, University of Alaska Fairbanks. Available:

http://arctos.database.museum/home.cfm

- USDA. 2010. The PLANTS Database. National Plant Data Center, Natural Resources Conservation Service, United States Department of Agriculture. Baton Rouge, LA. <u>http://plants.usda.gov</u>
- Warwick, S. 2010. Brassica rapa L. In: Flora of North America Editorial Committee, eds. 1993+.
  Flora of North America North of Mexico. 12+ vols. New York and Oxford. Vol. 7, pp. 423-424.

