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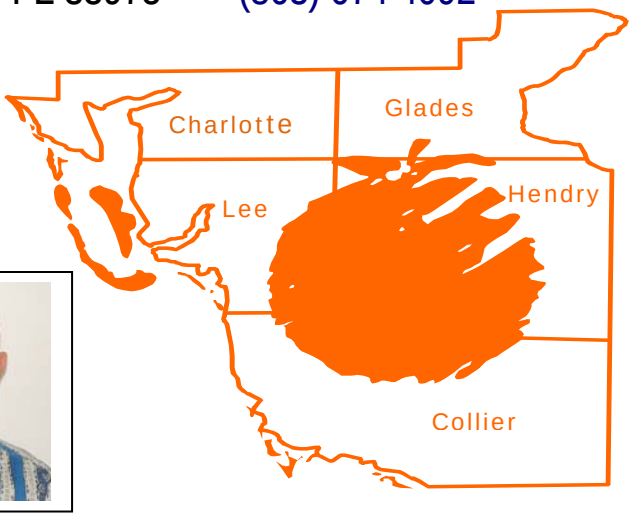

Vol. 19, No. 5 **May 2016**

Dr. Mongi Zekri
Multi-County Citrus Agent, SW Florida

Table of Contents

Important Events	2
Newsletter Sponsors – Thank You!	3-6
Farm Safety Day Sponsors	7
El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) Diagnostic Discussion	8
Florida Citrus Rootstock Selection Guide: NEW Custom Query Option	9
Citrus Rust Mites	10-12
Greasy Spot Fungal Disease	13-14
Water Quality: Alkalinity and Hardness	15
Neutralizing Excess Bicarbonates from Irrigation Water in Florida	16-19
Frequently Asked Questions About Biosolids	20-23
Fire Ants	24-25

Previous issues of the Flatwoods Citrus newsletter can be found at:
http://citrusagents.ifas.ufl.edu/agents/zekri/index.htm
http://irrec.ifas.ufl.edu/flcitrus/

Mark your calendar and plan to attend

Seminar

Bactericides for citrus greening management

Date: Tuesday, May 17, 2016
Time: **10:00 AM – 11:30 AM**
Location: Immokalee IFAS Center
Program Coordinator: Mongi Zekri, UF-IFAS

Topic
Bactericide products for citrus greening:
--optimum spray rates,
--tank mixing,
--recommended surfactants,
--application timing,
--restrictions,
--and other recommendations
Speaker: Bo Meador, AgroSource, Inc., Mead Agricultural Services LLC

11:45 AM, Sponsored Lunch

1.5 CEUs for Certified Crop Advisors (CCAs)
1.5 CEUs for Pesticide License Renewal

Pre-registration is required.
No registration fee and lunch is free Thanks to Bo Meador (**AgroSource**).
To reserve a seat, call 863 674 4092,
or send an e-mail to Dr. Mongi Zekri at: maz@ufl.edu

Special Thanks to sponsors of the "Flatwoods Citrus" newsletter for their generous contribution and support. If you would like to be among them, please contact me at 863 674 4092 or maz@ufl.edu

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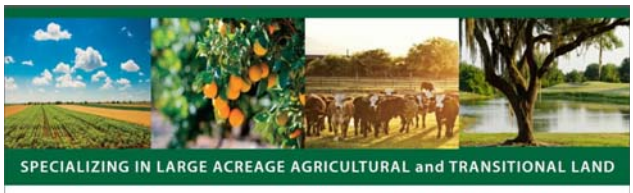

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Sincere appreciation from the SW Florida Farm Safety Day Committee to the sponsors of the 2016 Farm Safety Day

EL NIÑO/SOUTHERN OSCILLATION (ENSO) DIAGNOSTIC DISCUSSION

issued by

CLIMATE PREDICTION CENTER/NCEP/NWS
and the International Research Institute for Climate and Society

14 April 2016

ENSO Alert System Status: El Niño Advisory

Synopsis: A transition to ENSO-neutral is likely during late Northern Hemisphere spring or early summer 2016, with an increasing chance of La Niña during the second half of the year.

Sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies were between 1.0° and 1.5°C across most of the central and eastern equatorial Pacific Ocean during early April (Fig. 1), having weakened appreciably over the last month. The latest weekly values for all of the Niño indices dropped to below 1.5°C (Fig. 2). The subsurface temperature anomaly in the central and eastern Pacific decreased to negative values (Fig. 3) in association with a significant expansion of below-average temperatures at depth (Fig. 4). Low-level westerly wind anomalies and upper-level easterly wind anomalies weakened compared to February. The equatorial Southern Oscillation Index (SOI) remained negative but weakened, while the traditional SOI was near zero. Enhanced convection continued over the central tropical Pacific but weakened east of the Date Line, and was suppressed over northern Indonesia and the Philippines (Fig. 5). Collectively, these anomalies reflect a weakening El Niño.

Nearly all models predict further weakening of El Niño, with a transition to ENSO-neutral likely during late spring or early summer 2016 (Fig. 6). Then, the chance of La Niña increases during the late summer or early fall. The official forecast is consistent with the model forecasts, also supported by a historical tendency for La Niña to follow strong El Niño events. A transition to ENSO-neutral is likely during late Northern Hemisphere spring or early summer 2016, with an increasing chance of La Niña during the second half of the year (click CPC/IRI consensus forecast for the chance of each outcome for each 3-month period).

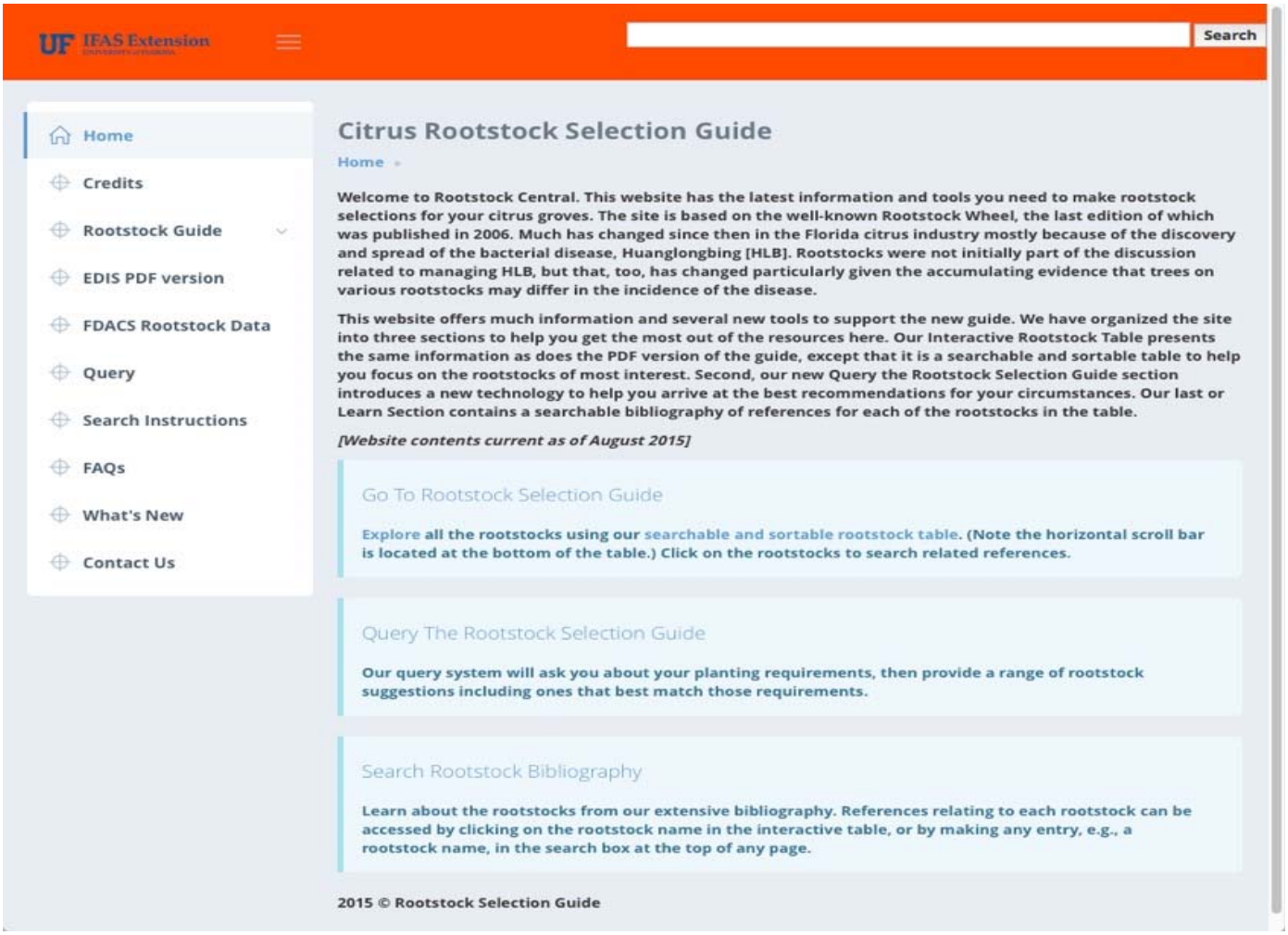
This discussion is a consolidated effort of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), NOAA's National Weather Service, and their funded institutions. Oceanic and atmospheric conditions are updated weekly on the Climate Prediction Center web site (El Niño/La Niña Current Conditions and Expert Discussions). Forecasts are also updated monthly in the Forecast Forum of CPC's Climate Diagnostics Bulletin. Additional perspectives and analysis are also available in an ENSO blog. The next ENSO Diagnostics Discussion is scheduled for 12 May 2016. To receive an e-mail notification when the monthly ENSO Diagnostic Discussions are released, please send an e-mail message to: ncep.list.enso-update@noaa.gov.

Climate Prediction Center
National Centers for Environmental Prediction
NOAA/National Weather Service
College Park, MD 20740

Florida Citrus Rootstock Selection Guide: NEW Custom Query Option

The article and screen shot is associated with the newest function related to the rootstock selection guide. The web-based program will allow growers to enter their site specific information and then the program will provide a listing of possible rootstocks to consider for future plantings. The web-based program is free to use and can be accessed from any computer.

The Third Edition of the Florida Citrus Rootstock Selection Guide was recently released online at flrootstockselectionguide.org and has now been expanded to include an expert system to aid growers in rootstock selection. The expert system was developed as a collaborative effort of Drs. Steve Rogers, Bill Castle, Steve Futch, and Mr. Andrew Persaud. This newly added function allows the users to provide information about their proposed site (horticultural, tolerances, and pest and diseases of concern) to generate rootstock suggestions. From the grower supplied information, the expert system analyzes the 900 factors in the rootstock selection guide to generate a ranked list of the best rootstocks for that site based on the user's criteria. This expert system does not store or archive any data that is supplied by the user, but allows the user to print a copy of suggested rootstocks. The program can be found at www.crec.ifas.ufl.edu/extension/citrus_rootstock/templates/guide/
For more information please contact Steve Futch at shf@ufl.edu or Andrew Persaud at apersuad@ufl.edu or by phone at 863-956-1151.



CITRUS RUST MITES

The citrus rust mite (CRM) is an important pest of fruit grown for the fresh market. On some specialty varieties (such as Sunburst tangerine), damage may be particularly severe on stems and foliage, causing leaf injury and possible abscission. Fruit damage is the main concern with other varieties. CRM feeds on green stems, leaves, and fruit. Egg deposition begins within 2 days after the female reaches sexual maturity and continues throughout her life of 14 to 20 days. The female lays one to two spherical transparent eggs per day and as many as 30 during her lifetime. Eggs hatch in about 3 days at 81°F. The newly hatched larva resembles the adult, changing in color from clear to lemon yellow (CRM). After about 2 days at 81°F, molting occurs. The first nymphal stage resembles the larval and requires about 2 days to molt to an adult at the above temperature. The CRM adult has an elongated, wedge-shaped body about three times longer (0.15 mm) than wide. CRM usually is straw to yellow in color. CRM population densities increase in May-July and then decline in late August, but can increase again in late October or early November. Mite densities in the fall rarely approach those early in the summer. During the summer, CRM are more abundant on fruit and foliage on the outer margins of the tree canopy. Generally, the north bottom of the tree canopy is preferred and supports the highest mite populations. The least favorable conditions for CRM increase are found in the south top of the tree canopy.

Visible characteristics of injury differ according to variety and fruit maturity. When rust mite injury occurs on fruit during exponential growth, before fruit maturity (April to September), epidermal cells are destroyed resulting in smaller fruit. Early season rust mite injury is called "russeting." Rust mite injury to mature fruit (after September) differs significantly from early "russeting." Unlike "russeting" on fruit, fall damaged fruit will polish since the natural cuticle and wax layer remain intact. This condition is known as "bronzing." While the primary effect of fruit damage caused by rust mites appears to be a reduction in grade, other conditions have been associated with severe fruit injury that include reduced size, increased water loss, and increased drop.

Leaf injury caused by feeding of CRM exhibits many symptoms on the upper or lower leaf epidermis. When injury is severe, the upper cuticle can lose its glossy character, taking on a dull, bronze-like color, and/or exhibit patchy yellowish cells in areas of "russeting" that have been degreened by ethylene release during the wounding process. Lower leaf surfaces often show "mesophyll collapse" appearing first as yellow degreened patches (collapsed spongy mesophyll cells) and later as necrotic spots. With the exception of upper leaf epidermal injury to some specialty varieties, such as Ambersweet, Fallglo, and Sunburst, defoliation caused by CRM is rarely severe.

The need for chemical treatments to control rust mites is dictated by numerous biological attributes of the mites, marketing objectives for the fruit, and horticultural practices. These key biological factors include: 1) inherent ability of mites to quickly increase to injurious densities on fruit and sustain the potential for reproductive increase over time; and 2) small size, which makes it difficult to monitor population densities in the field and detect injurious levels until visible injury has

occurred on the fruit. The marketing objective for fruit is particularly important. Cosmetic appearance is a priority for fruit grown for the fresh market. Fruit growth and abscission are not affected until 50% to 75% of the surface has been injured. Thus, there is reduced justification for chemical control of rust mites on fruit grown for processing. Citrus groves producing fruit designated for the fresh market may receive three or four miticides per year, typically during April, June, August, and October. In contrast, groves producing fruit designated for processing receive zero to two treatments per year. Miticides applied for the control of rust mites on fresh fruit varieties are often combined with compatible fungicides in the spring and summer. An alternative approach is using FC 435-66, FC 455-88, or 470 petroleum oil as a fungicide for greasy spot control and to suppress pest mites.

From a horticultural perspective, canopy density has an effect on rust mite populations and their ability to increase over a short period of time. The denser the canopy, the less favorable conditions are for a rapid rust mite increase. Since most registered miticides have no ovicidal activity and short residual activity on fruit and foliage, residual control is generally better if the miticide is applied when rust mite adult and egg population densities are low for fresh market varieties.

Since external blemishes caused by rust mites, fungal diseases, and wind are less important when fruit are grown for processing, the chemical control strategy for rust mites can be modified significantly. A summer spray is often required for greasy spot control. Use of petroleum oil in place of copper will reduce the likelihood of requiring a subsequent miticide treatment. Further miticide treatment may be unnecessary. However, a second petroleum oil application may be required for greasy spot control on summer flush.

Many scientific methods for sampling or scouting rust mite populations have been described. Of these, three general approaches are in widespread use: 1) determining the percentage of fruit and/or leaves infested with rust mites, 2) qualitative rating scales and 3) individual adult mite counts taken from fruit on randomly selected trees. These sampling approaches are similar in that they are designed to avoid bias by randomly selecting different representative areas within a grove for sampling, avoiding border rows, and selecting fruit and/or leaves within a tree randomly.

One sampling method based on rust mite density (rust mites/square centimeter [cm^2]) is described.

Processed Fruit: Initiate rust mite monitoring in April on leaves and fruit through casual observations and continue every 2 to 3 weeks throughout the fruit season. Select trees at random and within uniformly distributed areas throughout a 10- to 40-acre block representing a single variety with uniform horticultural practices. Avoid sampling adjacent trees. Fruit should be sampled at random representing the four quadrants of the tree and taken midway in the canopy (between interior and exterior). One fruit surface area should be examined midway between the sun and shade areas. The number of rust mites per cm^2 should be recorded and averaged for the 10 acres, represented by 20 trees with four fruit per tree or 80 readings per 10 acres. Six rust mites/cm^2 would be a planning threshold where pesticide intervention may be required within 10 to 14 days. Ten rust mites/cm^2 would be an action threshold where treatment would be required as soon as possible.

Fresh Fruit: Similar to above except monitor every 10 to 14 days with an average of 2 CRM/cm^2 as an action threshold.

For more information, go to: http://www.crec.ifas.ufl.edu/extension/pest/PDF/2015/Rust%20Mites.pdf

TABLE 1. CONTROL THRESHOLDS AND APPROPRIATE SAMPLE SIZES FOR 10 ACRES

If the control threshold is:	Sample size (Sample trees should be uniformly scattered across a 10-acre block. Do not sample adjacent trees.)
5 mites/leaf	Examine 4 leaves/tree from 6 trees/area from 4 areas/10 acres = 96 leaves on 24 trees/10 acres
8 mites/leaf	Examine 4 leaves/tree from 6 trees/area from 3 areas/10 acres = 72 leaves on 18 trees/10 acres
10 mites/leaf	Examine 4 leaves/tree from 5 trees/area from 2 areas/10 acres = 40 leaves on 10 trees/10 acres
15 mites/leaf	Examine 4 leaves/tree from 4 trees/area from 2 areas/10 acres = 32 leaves on 8 trees/10 acres

TABLE 2. CITRUS MITICIDE SELECTION*

Supplemental (early Spring)	Post Bloom	Summer	Fall	Supplemental Fall
--	--	Agri-mek + oil	--	--
--	--	--	Comite	Comite
Envidor	Envidor	Envidor	Envidor	Envidor
--	Petroleum oil	Petroleum oil	Petroleum oil	--
--	--	--	Sulfur	Sulfur
--	--	Micromite	Micromite	--
--	--	--	Nexter	Nexter
Movento	Movento	Movento	--	--
Vendex	Vendex	--	Vendex	Vendex

*Except for petroleum oil, do not use the same miticide chemistry more than once a year.

GREASY SPOT FUNGAL DISEASE

Management of greasy spot must be considered in groves intended for processing and fresh market fruit. Greasy spot is usually more severe on leaves of grapefruit, pineapples, Hamlins, and tangelos than on Valencias, Temples, Murcotts, and most tangerines and their hybrids.

Greasy spot spores germinate on the underside of the leaves and the fungus penetrates through the stomates (natural openings on lower leaf surface). Warm humid nights and high rainfall, typical of Florida summers, favor infection and disease development.

On processing Valencias, a single spray of oil (5-10 gal/acre) or copper + oil (5 gal/acre) should provide acceptable control when applied from mid-May to June. With average quality copper products, 2 lb of metallic copper per acre usually provide adequate control. The strobilurin fungicides (Abound, Gem, Headline or Quadris), as well as Enable 2F, are also suitable with or without petroleum oil. On early and mid-season oranges and grapefruit for processing, two sprays may be needed especially in the southern part of the state where summer flushes constitute a large portion of the foliage. Two applications also may be needed where severe defoliation from greasy spot occurred in the previous year. In those cases, the first spray should be applied from mid-May to June and the second soon after the major summer flush has expanded. Copper fungicides provide a high degree of control more consistently than oil sprays. Control of greasy spot on late summer flushes is less important than on the spring and early summer growth flushes since the disease develops slowly and defoliation will not occur until after the next year's spring flush. Thorough coverage of the underside of leaves is necessary for maximum control of greasy spot, and higher spray volumes and slower tractor speeds may be needed than for control of other pests and diseases.

The program is essentially the same for fresh fruit. That is, a fungicide application in May-June and a second in July should provide control of rind blotch.

A third application in August may be needed if rind blotch has been severe in the grove. Petroleum oil alone is less effective than other fungicides for control of greasy spot rind blotch (GSRB). Heavier oils (455 or 470) are more effective for rind blotch control than are lighter oils (435).

Copper fungicides are effective for control of GSRB, but may result in fruit spotting especially if applied at high rates in hot, dry weather or if applied with petroleum oil. If copper fungicides are applied in summer, they should be applied when temperatures are moderate, at rates no more than 2 lb of metallic copper per acre, without petroleum oil or other additives, and using spray volumes of at least 125 gal/acre. Enable 2F can be applied for greasy spot control at any time but is especially indicated in mid to late summer for rind blotch control.

The strobilurin fungicides (Abound, Gem, Headline, Pristine or Quadris Top) or Enable 2F can be applied at any time to all citrus and provide effective control of the disease on leaves or fruit. Use of a strobilurin (Abound, Gem, Headline, Pristine or Quadris Top) is especially indicated in late May and early June since it will control both melanose and greasy spot and avoids potential fruit damage from the copper fungicides at that time of year. A strobilurin fungicide should not be applied more than once a year for greasy spot control. Addition of petroleum oil increases the efficacy of these products.

•Processed fruit

May-June

- Petroleum oil (455, 470) 5-10 gal
- Cu fungicides 2-4 lb metal
- Abound, Gem, Headline + 5 gal oil
- Pristine
- Quadris Top
- Enable

July

- Petroleum oil (455, 470) 5-10 gal
- Cu fungicides 2-4 lb metal
- Abound, Gem, Headline + 5 gal oil
- Pristine
- Quadris Top
- Enable

•Fresh fruit

May-June

- Petroleum oil (455, 470) 10 gal
- Cu fungicides < 2 lb metal, No oil
- Abound, Gem, Headline + 5 gal oil
- Pristine
- Quadris Top
- Enable

July

- Petroleum oil (455, 470) 10 gal
- Cu fungicides < 2 lb metal
- Abound, Gem, Headline + 5 gal oil
- Pristine
- Quadris Top
- Enable 8 oz

For more information on greasy spot, go to:

http://www.crec.ifas.ufl.edu/extension/pest/PDF/2015/Greasy%20Spot.pdf

Water Quality: Alkalinity and Hardness

The terms alkalinity and hardness are often used interchangeably when discussing water quality. They share some similarities but are distinctly different.

Alkalinity is a measure of the acid-neutralizing capacity of water. It is an aggregate measure of the sum of all titratable bases in the sample. Alkalinity in most natural waters is due to the presence of carbonate ($CO_3^{=}$), bicarbonate (HCO_3^-), and hydroxyl (OH^-) anions. However, borates, phosphates, silicates, and other bases also contribute to alkalinity if present. This property is important when determining the suitability of water for irrigation and/or mixing some pesticides. Alkalinity is usually reported as equivalents of calcium carbonate ($CaCO_3$).

Hardness is most commonly associated with the ability of water to precipitate soap. As hardness increases, more soap is needed to achieve the same level of cleaning due to the interactions of the hardness ions with the soap. Chemically, hardness is often defined as the sum of polyvalent cation concentrations dissolved in the water. The most common polyvalent cations in fresh water are calcium (Ca^{++}) and magnesium (Mg^{++}).

Hardness is usually divided into two categories: *carbonate hardness* and *noncarbonate hardness*. Carbonate hardness is usually due to the presence of bicarbonate [$Ca(HCO_3)_2$ and $Mg(HCO_3)_2$] and carbonate ($CaCO_3$ and $MgCO_3$) salts. Noncarbonate hardness is contributed by salts such as calcium chloride ($CaCl_2$), magnesium sulfate ($MgSO_4$), and magnesium chloride ($MgCl_2$). Total hardness equals the sum of carbonate and noncarbonate hardness. In addition to Ca^{++} and Mg^{++}, iron (Fe^{++}), and manganese (Mn^{++}) may also contribute to hardness. However, the contribution of these ions is usually negligible.

Hardness is generally classified as soft, moderately hard, hard, and very hard. It is best to report results as the actual equivalents of $CaCO_3$ since the inclusive limits for each category may differ between users of the information. The classification scheme used by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Water hardness classifications (reported as $CaCO_3$ equivalents) used by the U.S. EPA.

Classification	$CaCO_3$ equivalent, mg/L (ppm)
Soft	<75
Moderately hard	75–150
Hard	150–300
Very hard	>300

Sources of Alkalinity and Hardness

Water alkalinity and hardness are primarily a function of 1) the geology of the area where the surface water is located and 2) the dissolution of carbon dioxide (CO_2) from the atmosphere. The ions responsible for alkalinity and hardness originate from the dissolution of geological minerals into rain and ground water. Rainwater is naturally acidic, which tends to solubilize some minerals more easily. Surface and ground water sources in areas with limestone formations are especially likely to have high hardness and alkalinity due to the dissolution of bicarbonates and carbonates. Bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) dominates between pH 6.3 and 10.3. The pH of most natural waters falls in the 7 to 8 range because of the bicarbonate buffering.

Alkalinity and Hardness Relationship

Alkalinity and hardness are related through common ions formed in aquatic systems. Specifically, the counter-ions associated with the bicarbonate and carbonate fraction of alkalinity are the principal ions responsible for hardness (usually Ca^{++} and Mg^{++}). As a result, the carbonate fraction of hardness (expressed as $CaCO_3$ equivalents) is chemically equivalent to the bicarbonates of alkalinity present in water in areas where the water interacts with limestone. Any hardness greater than the alkalinity represents noncarbonate hardness.

Hardness by Calculation

Hardness can be measured by titration or by quantification of individual ion concentrations (Ca^{++} and Mg^{++}) contributing to hardness. Using the calculation technique, separate determinations of calcium and magnesium are made using an appropriate analytical technique. Hardness is calculated using this equation.

Hardness (as mg $CaCO_3$/L) = 2.497•[Ca, mg/L] + 4.118•[Mg, mg/L]

Neutralizing Excess Bicarbonates from Irrigation Water in Florida

By Gerald Kidder and Ed Hanlon, UF-IFAS

Many sources of irrigation water in Florida contain dissolved bicarbonates. Irrigation with such water can cause adverse plant growth by excessively raising the pH of the soil. The magnitude of the effect depends on the concentration of the bicarbonates in the water, the amount of the water applied, the buffering capacity of the soil, and the sensitivity of the citrus variety/rootstock being grown.

This publication addresses this important water quality problem and suggests management practices to minimize adverse effects on citrus tree growth and production.

1. Where in Florida is the problem most likely to occur?

The problem of high dissolved bicarbonates is likely to occur wherever water comes from a limestone aquifer, such as the Floridan or Biscayne, or from lakes or canals that cut into limestone. Thus, this is a potential problem in most of Florida.

2. How can I find out if I have high-bicarbonate water?

A water test is the surest means of determining if a problem exists. Interpretation of the test should include an evaluation of the liming potential of your water. This is best determined directly by titration of the water with an acid to the methyl orange end point. An indirect method which uses the calcium (Ca) and magnesium (Mg) analyses may also be used but may result in over-estimation of liming potential. Such an estimate assumes that all of the Ca and Mg are present as bicarbonates, which is not always the case. Many Soil Testing Laboratories offer a water test for bicarbonates.

3. Isn't it sufficient to just measure the water's pH?

If the pH of your irrigation water is below 7.0, then we may safely assume that it will not be a significant source of liming materials. However, if the pH is above 7.0, we know that the water contains bases but we don't know how much. For example, one water source may have a relatively high pH of 8 and yet contain a very low level of bicarbonates. Another water source, with the same pH, may have a very high bicarbonate level.

4. How are Ca and Mg analyses useful?

Multiplication of parts per million (ppm) Ca by 0.05 and ppm Mg by 0.083, and summing the two products, will give the milliequivalents of those cations per liter (me/L) of water. In many cases, Ca and Mg will be associated with bicarbonate and carbonate salts. Under those conditions, the me/L of Ca plus Mg will be a good estimate of the me/L of associated bases. However, if other non-basic ions such as sulfate are present, the calculation would overestimate the base content of the water. Thus, Ca and Mg analyses may be useful in estimating base content but should be used with caution.

5. In which crop situations am I likely to have a problem with high pH water?

Trifoliate and most trifoliate hybrid rootstocks are particularly sensitive to high pH soil are trees budded onto them

usually exhibit ill effects of high bicarbonate water through micronutrient deficiency symptoms. Trees budded on Swingle rootstock are well-known for their sensitivity to pH-induced iron chlorosis. Trees budded on citrange rootstocks have shown manganese and zinc deficiencies when the soil pH has been raised by heavy or prolonged use of "hard" water (i.e., water with lots of Ca and Mg bicarbonates).

6. Which irrigation situations are most problematic?

Heavy irrigations applied to soils of low buffering capacity will present the most problems to citrus trees.

7. What can I do to minimize the adverse effects of high-bicarbonate water?

Be careful not to over-irrigate. Know the water holding capacity of your soil and apply only enough water without exceeding the root zone water-holding capacity. Over-irrigation is costly in many ways -- the cost of pumping, of leached nutrients, of wasted water resources and, in this case, of accelerating the increase in soil pH. Avoid these with good irrigation management.

Apply acids or acid-forming materials to the soil to counteract the bases applied in the water.

Neutralize the liming effect of the water by adding acid to the water before it is applied to the trees.

8. What can be done if the trees are already suffering from water-induced high pH?

Where high levels of bicarbonates in the water have caused soil to be too high for proper tree performance, it may be necessary to lower the soil pH. This may be accomplished by addition of extra acid in the irrigation water, use of acid-forming fertilizer in certain cases, or application of elemental sulfur to the soil.

It is important to note that the acid-producing effect of sulfur comes from the formation of sulfuric acid when soil bacteria act on the elemental sulfur. The sulfate form of sulfur applied in fertilizers such as potassium sulfate, magnesium sulfate, or gypsum (calcium sulfate) does not have the acid-producing effect of elemental sulfur.

Sulfur application rates of 300 to 500 pounds per acre should not be exceeded. This rate is equivalent to between 0.7 and 1.1 lbs/100 square feet of treated surface area. Over-application of sulfur or acid can cause damage to trees, an effect you certainly want to avoid. Monitor changes carefully.

Remember the pH will increase again as you continue to irrigate with high bicarbonate water. Water or soil acidification will be a continuing effort.

9. Can acid-forming fertilizers keep the soil pH from getting too high?

Under many circumstances the quantity of bases that is being supplied in the irrigation water far exceeds the quantity of acid formed by addition of fertilizer. Under those conditions acid-forming fertilizer will not control the problem of increasing soil pH.

10. How can I neutralize the bicarbonates in my irrigation water?

Injection of acid into the irrigation water is a direct way of neutralizing the bases present. Acid may be injected in much the same way as fertilizer. You must take precautions to avoid injuring yourself and your trees and to avoid contamination of the aquifer. These points are discussed below.

11. How much acid should I apply?

The amount of acid that you mix with the irrigation water will depend on the quantity of bases your water contains and on the strength of the acid you use. The base content of the water is determined in

the water test and the strength of the acid is given on the container. One milliequivalent (me) of acid completely neutralizes one milliequivalent of base. For example, if an irrigation water contains 5.2 me of bases per liter, it would take 5.2 me of acid to completely neutralize the liter of water. Neutralization of 80 to 90% of the bases in water is a reasonable goal for most irrigation situations.

Multiply the factor by the milliequivalents of base per liter (me/L) which your water contains. This value is determined in the laboratory test of your water or is estimated from its Ca and Mg contents (this calculation is described under Question 4).

The result is the milliliters of your acid which you should apply to each 100 gallons of your water. The factor is calculated to neutralize 80% of the bases in the water. There are 29.6 ml in one U.S. fluid ounce. Divide the number of ml by 29.6 to convert to U.S. fluid ounces.

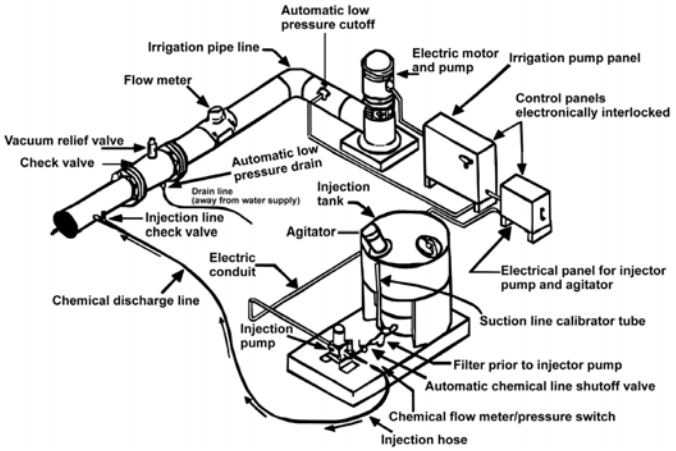
$$80\% \times \frac{me\ base}{L\ water} \times \frac{378\ L}{to\ be\ neutralized} \times \frac{1}{34.7\ N\ acid} = 8.7 \times \frac{me\ base}{L\ water}$$

NOTE:When calculating your rates for larger volumes, be careful not to round off too soon when making conversions.

12. Why not neutralize 100 percent of the bases?

Some of the reasons for not attempting to neutralize 100% of the bases are:

It is not necessary to neutralize all of the bases in order to reduce the problem to insignificant levels. Not trying for 100% neutralization allows some room for error in acid application rates, variability in water, etc. The risk of over-acidifying is not worth the benefit of neutralizing the last 10 or 20 % of the bases. It is poor management to spend money and effort creating new problems by over-reacting to the initial problem.



13. In what kind of irrigation system can I practically inject acid?

Neutralization is relatively easy to accomplish in microirrigation systems. The system must allow careful addition of known volumes of acid to known volumes of water. Since acids can be quite corrosive to metals, the system must be able to withstand this possible adverse effect.

NOTE: It is illegal to inject any chemicals into irrigation systems without appropriate safety devices which will automatically prevent the backflow of water and chemicals to the water supply. This is done to protect our water resources.

14. What kind of acid can I use?

The most commonly used acids are sulfuric, hydrochloric, and phosphoric acid. Other acids could be used but cost and availability usually limit the choices to these three. Phosphoric and sulfuric acids may have some nutritional value but this should be a minor consideration in choosing an acid for water neutralization.

15. What are the dangers of using acids for water neutralization?

Hydrochloric, sulfuric and phosphoric acids are highly toxic materials irritating to the skin, eyes, nose, throat, lungs, and digestive tract. Always wear goggles and chemical resistant (rubber, neoprene, vinyl, etc.) gloves, apron and boots whenever handling these acids. Acid must be poured into water, never vice versa, and should be done in a well-ventilated area.

Should a spill or splash occur, remove all clothing and shower immediately. Immediately irrigate eyes with large quantities of water. Seek immediate medical attention.

It is generally advisable to dilute concentrated acid in a nonmetal mixing tank prior to injection into the irrigation system, rather than injecting concentrated acid directly. Most metal fittings, tanks, and other parts of the irrigation system will be damaged by acid, so proper precautions must be taken. Flushing the system after application is frequently sufficient to avoid significant damage.

In addition to the dangers involved with handling strong acids there is also the danger of over-application of acid. Excess acid addition could result in injury to tree parts which come in direct contact with the water, such as leaves. Also, an excessive acidification of the soil could result in tree injury or death. These problems can be avoided by (1) determining the proper amount of acid to apply and (2) monitoring the irrigation system to ensure that the correct amount is applied.

16. How can I assure that I'm adding the correct amount of acid to my water?

Monitoring the pH of the acid-treated water is one way of checking on a daily operational basis. You can do this with a pH meter. Add acid to bring the water pH to between 4.5 and 5.0. Because the neutralization reaction continues slowly over a period of a day or two, the measured pH of the water immediately after acid addition will usually be lower than that measured once the reaction is complete. For monitoring purposes during acid additions, use the pH measured immediately after acid addition as a guide to avoid over-acidifying.

If the pH after treatment is very different from that calculated from the chemical analysis, you may want to have another water sample analyzed.

Summary

1. Have your irrigation water tested.
2. Select an acid of known strength.
3. Determine how much of your acid is needed to neutralize 80% of the bases in your water.
4. Add the calculated amount of acid to your water.
5. Measure the pH of the water as it comes out of the irrigation line.
6. If the pH is not between 4.5 and 5.0, increase or decrease the amount of acid.
7. If the amount of adjustment in Step 6 is more than 15 to 20% of the calculated value, consult a specialist before extended use of the system.
8. Retest the well water and irrigated soil about once a year and keep a record of the test results.

National Biosolids Partnership

FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS ABOUT BIOSOLIDS

1) What are Biosolids?

Biosolids are the nutrient-rich solid organic matter recovered from the treatment of domestic sewage in a wastewater treatment facility. Biosolids are a beneficial resource, containing essential plant nutrient and organic matter and are recycled as a fertilizer and soil amendment. When treated and processed, these residuals can be recycled and applied as fertilizer to improve and maintain productive soils and stimulate plant growth.

2) What is the difference between biosolids and sewage sludge?

Sludge is generally used before applicable beneficial recycling criteria have been achieved which normally occurs at the outlet of the stabilization process. It should be used in tandem with a specific process descriptor (e.g., *primary sludge*, *waste activated sludge*, *secondary sludge*, etc.)

Biosolids is generally used after applicable beneficial recycling criteria have been achieved, i.e., at the outlet of the stabilization process. Common stabilization processes include the following: aerobic digestion, autothermal thermophilic aerobic digestion (ATAD), anaerobic digestion, composting, alkaline stabilization, thermal drying, including flash, rotary, fluid bed, paddle, hollow-flight, disc, and infrared dryers, thermophilic pozzolanic fixation, acid oxidation/disinfection, and heat treatment/acid digestion.

3) Why do we have biosolids?

We have biosolids as a result of treating sewage sludge (i.e., the solids generated during the treatment of domestic sewage in a treatment plant) to meet the land application regulatory requirements). Wastewater treatment technology has made our water safer for recreation and seafood harvesting. Thirty years ago, thousands of American cities dumped their raw sewage directly into the nation's rivers, lakes, and bays. Through regulation of this dumping, local government now required to treat domestic sewage and to make the decision whether to recycle the solids generated as fertilizer, incinerate them or bury them in a landfill. If the solids meet the regulatory requirements for land application and are recycled, they are biosolids.

4) How are biosolids generated and processed?

Biosolids are generated when solids generated during the treatment of domestic sewage are treated further to meet regulatory requirements. The wastewater treatment can actually begin before the wastewater reaches the treatment plant. In many larger wastewater treatment systems, pre-treatment regulations require that industrial facilities pre-treat their wastewater to remove many hazardous contaminants before it is sent to a wastewater treatment plant. Wastewater treatment facilities monitor incoming wastewater streams to ensure their recyclability and compatibility with the treatment plant process.

Sewage sludge is not generated until domestic sewage is treated in a treatment

works, and biosolids are not produced until the sewage sludge meets the land application Part 503 requirements. For these reasons, the treatment of biosolids cannot occur before the domestic sewage reaches the wastewater treatment plant. Once the wastewater reaches the plant domestic sewage goes through physical, chemical and biological processes that clean the domestic sewage and remove the solids. If necessary, some of the solids are then treated with lime to raise the pH level to eliminate objectionable odors. Pathogen reduction (disease-causing organisms, such as bacteria, viruses and parasites) and other organisms capable of transporting disease for the solids usually occur in a different process (e.g., a digester).

5) How are biosolids used?

After treatment and processing, biosolids can be recycled and applied as fertilizer to improve and maintain productive soils and stimulate plant growth. The controlled land application of biosolids completes a natural cycle in the environment. By treating sewage sludge, it becomes biosolids that can be used as valuable fertilizer, instead of taking up space in a landfill or other disposal facility.

6) Are biosolids safe?

Decades of studies have demonstrated that biosolids can be safely used on food crops. The National Academy of Sciences has reviewed current practices, public health concerns and regulator standards, and has concluded that "the use of these materials in the production of crops for human consumption when practiced in accordance with existing federal guidelines and regulations, presents negligible risk to the consumer, to crop production and to the environment." In addition, an epidemiological study of the health of farm families using biosolids showed that the use of biosolids was safe.

7) Do biosolids smell?

Biosolids may have their own distinctive odor depending on the type of treatment it has been through. Some biosolids may have only a slight musty, ammonia odor. Others have a stronger odor that may be offensive to some people. Compounds that contain sulfur and ammonia, which are both plant nutrients, cause most odors.

8) Are there regulations for the land application of biosolids?

The federal biosolids rule is contained in 40 CFR Part 503. Biosolids that are to be land applied must meet these strict regulations and quality standards. The Part 503 rule governing the use and disposal of biosolids contains general requirements, numerical limits for metals in biosolids, pathogen and vector attraction reduction standards, management practices and frequency of monitoring, record keeping and reporting requirements for land applied biosolids as well as similar requirements for sewage sludge that is surface disposed or incinerated. Most recently, Part 503 requirements have been proposed to limit the concentration of dioxin and dioxin like compounds in biosolids to ensure safe land application. Biosolids are one of the most studied materials that have ever been regulated by EPA.

9) Where can I find out more about the regulations?

The biosolids rule is described in the EPA publication, A Plan English Guide to the EPA Part 503 Biosolids Rule. This guide states and interprets the Part 503 rule for the general reader. This guide is also available in hard copy. In addition to the Plain English Guide, EPA has prepare A Guide to the Biosolids Risk Assessments for the EPA Part 503 Rule which shows the many steps followed to develop the scientifically defensible, safe set of rules (also available from EPA in hard copy.)

The cited references provide valuable information about the Part 503 land application requirements. However, if the information in the references is different form the requirements in the Part 503 rule, the Part 503 rule requirements apply. A number of relevant biosolids publications are located on the National Biosolids Partnership's web page at: http://www.biosolids.org.

10) How are biosolids used for agriculture?

Biosolids are used to fertilize fields on which crops are grown. Agricultural uses of biosolids that meet strict quality criteria and application rates have been shown to produce significant improvements in crop growth and yield. Nutrients found in biosolids, such as nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium and trace elements such as calcium, copper, iron, magnesium, manganese, sulfur and zinc, are necessary for crop production and growth. The use of biosolids reduces the farmer's production costs and replenishes the organic matter that has been depleted over time. The organic matter improves soil structure by increasing the soil's ability to absorb and store moisture.

Crops use the organic nitrogen and phosphorous found in biosolids very efficiently because these plant nutrients are released slowly throughout the growing season. This enables the crop to absorb these nutrients as the crop grows. This efficiency lessens the likelihood of groundwater pollution of nitrogen and phosphorous.

11) Can biosolids be used for composting?

Yes, biosolids may be composted and sold or distributed for use on lawns and home gardens. Biosolids composted with sawdust, wood chips, yard clippings, or crop residues make excellent mulches and topsoils for horticultural and landscaping purposes. Even after composting, the sewage sludge has to meet the appropriate Part 503 requirements for it to become biosolids that can be applied to lawns and home gardens. Many professional landscapers use composted biosolids for landscaping new homes and businesses. Home gardeners also find composted biosolids to be an excellent addition to planting beds and gardens. Most biosolids compost, are highly desirable products that are easy to store, transport and use.

12) Are there rules about where biosolids can be applied?

To determine whether biosolids can be applied to a particular farm site, a good management practice includes an evaluation of the site's suitability and is generally performed by the land applier. The evaluation examines water supplies, soil characteristics, slopes, vegetation, crop needs and the distances to surface and groundwater.

There are different rules for different classes of biosolids. Class A biosolids contain no detectible levels of pathogens and must meet strict vector attraction reduction requirements and low levels metals contents. The biosolids preparer usually applies for a permit and only have to apply for permits to ensure that these very tough standards have been met. However, the Part 503 requirements have to be met even if there is no permit. Class B biosolids are treated but still contain detectible levels of pathogens. There are

buffer requirements, public access, and crop harvesting restrictions for Class B biosolids. (The land application site restrictions have to be met in all cases where Class B biosolids are land-applied.) Nutrient management planning ensures that the appropriate quantity of biosolids is land-applied. The biosolids application is specifically calculated to match the nutrient uptake requirements of the particular crop. Nutrient management technicians work with the farm community to assure proper land application and nutrient control.

13) Is EPA pushing the use of biosolids as a fertilizer? Is the federal policy for biosolids driven by economics of disposal?

As a result of its decade-long assessment of biosolids, EPA concluded that recycling biosolids to land was an environmentally responsible solution, when used in accordance with the Part 503 rule. The Federal policies supporting and promoting the beneficial recycling of biosolids are based upon sound science that has demonstrated the benefits of such recycling. These policies are not driven by economics, and the choice of to recycle biosolids remains a local decision.

14) How do the risks associated with biosolids compare with other soil amendments used in agriculture?

A Water Environment Research Foundation (WERF) study completed in 2002 finds that the risks associated with biosolids are no greater than risks associated with other soil amendments used in agriculture. The project, "Evaluate Risks and Benefits of Soil Amendments Used in Agriculture" (project no. 99-PUM-1), examined the risks and benefits, advantages and potential disadvantages associated with the use of a variety of soil amendments in comparison to chemical fertilizers. Project results indicate that the relative risk to the environment from amendments and fertilizers varies by parameter and shows that known risks from each of the materials studied can be managed. Moreover, these manageable risks must be carefully weighed against the considerable benefits provided by the land application of amendments and fertilizers.

15) Is recycling much cheaper than disposal?

In areas where disposal costs have increased due to shrinking landfill space and increased costs to maintain and monitor landfills, some cities and towns find that recycling biosolids is less expensive than land filling. However, in most cases, land filling is competitive or less expensive than land application. In such cases, many U.S. communities have made a positive environmental decision to commit to recycling biosolids despite the additional cost. This is especially true where communities have committed to the additional costs of composting or heat drying and pathogen reduction processes for biosolids prior to utilization.

16) Are Biosolids good for the environment?

Recycling biosolids is good for the environment. Organic matter has been recycled for centuries to improve soil fertility and productivity. When properly applied and managed, biosolids can: provide essential plant nutrients; improve soil structure and tilth; add organic matter; enhance moisture retention; and reduce soil erosion.

Biosolids recycling is regulated and encouraged by the United States Environmental Protection Agency and state and local authorities. Research and years of recycling experience have demonstrated that properly managed land application of biosolids is environmentally safe.

FIRE ANTS

Imported fire ants are reddish brown to black and are 1/8 to 1/4 in long. These ants are aggressive and notorious for their painful, burning sting that results in a pustule and intense itching, which may persist for a week. Some people have allergic reactions to fire ant stings that range from rashes and swelling to paralysis or even death. In addition to stinging humans, imported fire ants can sting pets, livestock, and wildlife. Crop losses are also reported due to fire ants feeding on plants and even citrus trees. Fire ants may damage young citrus by building nests at the trunk bases. The ants feed on the bark and cambium to obtain sap, often girdling and killing young citrus trees. Fire ants also chew off new growth at the tips of branches and feed on flowers and developing fruit. In groves infested with ants, harvesting crews may not be willing to work and may request a higher fee to do their job. The ants are also known to cause extensive damage to irrigation lines and plug emitters. They aggregate near electrical fields where they can cause short circuits or interfere with switches and equipment such as water pumps, computers and air conditioners.

BIOLOGY

Red imported fire ants live in colonies that contain cream-colored to white immature ants, called brood. The brood is comprised of the eggs, larvae, and pupae. Also within the colonies are adult ants of different types. They include winged males and winged females, workers, and one or more queens. While thousands of winged males and females can be produced per year in large colonies, they do not sting. Newly-mated queens can fly as far as 12 miles from the nest (or even farther in the wind), but most land within a mile. New colonies do not make conspicuous mounds for several months. Once a colony is established, a single queen can lay over 2,000 eggs per day. Depending on temperature, it can take 20 to 45 days for an egg to develop into an adult worker. Workers can live as long as 9 months at 75°F, but life spans usually are between 1 and 6 months under warmer outdoor conditions. Queens live an average of 6 to 7 years.

Fire ants are omnivorous feeders. Workers will forage for food more than 100 feet from the nest. They can forage during both the day and the night, generally when air temperatures are between 70° and 90°F. When a large food source is found, fire ants recruit other workers to help take the food back to the colony. Liquids are ingested at the food source, and stored within the ants until they are regurgitated to other ants within the colony. Liquids from solid foods are extracted at the source, or are carried back as solid particles. Large solids may be cut into smaller pieces so they can be carried back to the colony. There are two types of fire ant colonies: single-queen, and multiple-queen colonies. A colony may contain as many as 100,000 to 500,000 workers.

CONTROL STRATEGIES AND TECHNIQUES

Numerous methods have been developed to control fire ants. Unfortunately, there are no control methods that will permanently eliminate fire ants. Four strategies are currently being used to control fire ants: broadcast bait applications, individual mound treatments, a combination of broadcast baiting and individual mound treatments, and barrier/spot treatments.

1. Broadcast Bait Applications

This strategy attempts to reduce fire ant populations by applying insecticides incorporated into an attractant or bait. The ants carry the bait to the colony. The slow action of the toxicant allows the ants to feed it to other members of the colony

before they die. When the toxicant is fed to the queen(s), she either dies or no longer produces new workers and the colony will eventually collapse.

- ***Keep baits dry.*** Wet baits are not attractive to fire ants. Apply baits when the grass and ground are dry or drying, and rain is not expected, preferably for the next 24 hours.
- ***Apply baits when fire ants are actively foraging.*** During hot, summer weather, apply baits in the late afternoon or evening because fire ants will forage at night under these conditions.
- ***Follow the directions on the label.*** It is against the law to apply baits in areas not listed on the label.

2. Individual Mound Treatments

This strategy attempts to eliminate colonies of fire ants by treating mounds individually. Individual mound treatments are time consuming and labor intensive. However, colonies treated individually may be eliminated faster than colonies treated with broadcast bait applications.

Baits

Bait products used for broadcast bait applications can be applied to individual mounds. Sprinkle the recommended amount of bait around the base of the mound up to three feet away. In addition, follow the Guidelines for Effective Bait Applications given previously. As with broadcast bait applications, the use of baits for individual mound treatments may take one to several weeks to eliminate colonies.

Dusts

Dusts are dry powder insecticidal products. The dusts stick to the bodies of ants as they walk through treated soil. Ants that contact the dust will eventually die. Dusts are applied by evenly sprinkling a measured amount of dust over the mound. Avoid inhaling or touching the dust. Some dusts, such as those containing 75% acephate, should kill an entire colony within a week.

Aerosols

Some products are available in aerosol cans equipped with a probe, and contain insecticides that quickly immobilize and kill ants on contact. As the probe is inserted into a mound, the insecticide should be injected into the mound for a specified amount of time. Similar to other individual mound treatments, application on cool, sunny mornings will help maximize contact with the colony.

3. Combining Broadcast Baiting and Individual Mound Treatments

This strategy utilizes the efficiency of broadcast baiting and the fast action of individual mound treatments. Baits must be broadcast first to efficiently reduce fire ant populations. Wait a minimum of 3 days after broadcasting to allow fire ants to forage and distribute the bait before individually treating mounds. Treat mounds preferably with a dust, granular, or aerosol insecticide specifically labeled for fire ant control.

4. Barrier/Spot Treatments

These products are usually sold as sprays or dusts. They may be applied in wide bands on and around building foundations, equipment and other areas to create barriers that exclude ants. They also may be applied to ant trails to eliminate foraging ants. Barrier and spot treatments do not eliminate colonies.

Flatwoods Citrus

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City:_____State:_____Zip:_____

Phone:_____

Fax:_____

E-mail:_____

Racial-Ethnic Background

__American Indian or native Alaskan
__Asian American
__Hispanic
__White, non-Hispanic
__Black, non-Hispanic

Gender

__Female
__Male