



## Sex-related mercury bioaccumulation in fish from the Madeira River, Amazon



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### ARTICLE INFO

#### Article history:

Received 29 August 2015

Received in revised form

1 November 2015

Accepted 2 November 2015

Available online 14 November 2015

#### Keywords:

Madeira River

Amazon

Fish

Mercury

Muscle

Sex

### ABSTRACT

Sex plays an important role in the kinetics and dynamics of methylmercury in some animals. Although fish is the main source of mercury exposure to consumers, the role of sex in fish-Hg bioaccumulation is less known. We studied total Hg (THg) concentrations in 2538 samples (males = 1052, females = 1486) of fish from different trophic levels (herbivorous, planctivorous, detritivorous, omnivorous, carnivorous, piscivorous); for each species we made a post hoc estimation of the minimum number of samples required to detect variance-based differences between sexes. Only five of the 41 studied species showed significant difference between sexes; but, no consistent dominant pattern of THg concentrations favored either sex. When grouped by trophic levels, overall mean difference in THg concentrations between males and females were not statistically significant. Correlation analysis showed sex-dependent THg bioaccumulation as a function of condition factor was statistically significant and negative for all trophic levels (detritivorous, herbivorous, omnivorous, planctivorous, carnivorous, and piscivorous). **Conclusions:** Sex is not the main driver of Hg bioaccumulation in most Amazonian fish species; however, studies have to consider the minimum number of samples required to ascertain sex effects on THg bioaccumulation. Therefore, neither the surveillance of environmental pollution nor the current food advisories based on muscle THg need to change because of fish sex.

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### 1. Introduction

Sex plays an important role in the kinetics and dynamics of Hg metabolism in animals where it has been extensively studied (Thomas et al., 1986; Hirayama and Yasutake, 1986). Although fish are the main source of mercury (Hg) exposure to consumers, the role of fish sex in Hg bioaccumulation is less known. There are far fewer studies relating sex differences in pollutant levels (including Hg) in fish than in other wildlife (Burger, 2007). Nevertheless, the effects of Hg on fish biology (Alvarez et al., 2006) are gaining attention and laboratory studies have demonstrated adverse effects of methylmercury (MeHg) on biochemical processes and behavior (Rhea et al., 2013).

Skeletal muscles in fish account for over 60% of body weight (Li et al., 2014) and constitute the main storage compartment for MeHg. Studies have suggested that the rate of feeding and rate of

Hg elimination may be species specific and influenced by sex. In species like salmon, during spawning season physiological starvation bring changes in rates of catabolism between juvenile and adult fish (Baker et al., 2009). Males displaced lower total Hg (THg) concentrations than females in European catfish (Squadrone et al., 2015), and in threespine stickleback fish (Willacker et al., 2013). Nevertheless, the elimination rate of Hg in northern pikes was higher in males than in females (Madenjian et al., 2014a). Such differences in mercury metabolism may lead to sex differences in muscle Hg concentrations. Recently, our own studies have suggested that differences in sexes may influence Hg metabolism in Amazonian catfish (Bastos et al., 2015b).

Burger (2007) has observed that there is size related sexual dimorphism in some species; a predominance of females in larger size classes is considered a reproductive tactic to increase fertility (Nikolsky, 1963; Lowe-McConnell, 1999). Studies reported sex difference in the size of lake trout showing that males with larger body weight also showed higher Hg concentrations than females (Madenjian et al., 2011). However, there are innumerable studies reporting non-statistically significant sex differences in fish-Hg

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concentrations (Magalhães et al., 2007; Weis and Ashley, 2007; Burger et al., 2007; Endo et al., 2008; Harmelin-Vivien et al., 2009; Adams, 2009; Martinez-Gomez et al., 2012; Mela et al., 2014).

Inconsistencies in sex-related differences in THg concentrations may relate to species, fish size (sexual dimorphism included), and trophic levels. An abundant collection of specimens and fish species have been collected from the Madeira River in the Amazon (Bastos et al., 2015a). Such data bank is a valuable source of information and unique opportunity to compare a large number of species. In this study we explore sex dimorphism in relation to environmental mercury in fish muscle focusing on body weight and length (condition factor). Therefore, we took into consideration size and trophic level to study Hg concentrations in females and males in a large variety of freshwater fish from the Amazon.

## 2. Materials and methods

A larger study exploring THg bioaccumulation in relation to spatial differences and temporal changes has appeared elsewhere (Bastos et al., 2015a). This study represents fish collected along the Madeira River between the cities of Guajará-Mirim-RO (Long 243219.152 – Lat 8805970.844-UTM datum SAD 69) and Humaitá-AM (Long 497790.381 – Lat 9170102.251-UTM datum SAD 69) over the period between 2009 and 2013. Of the sampled species only 41 had a sufficient number of specimens of both sexes to be compared.

Fish species and respective feeding habit classifications were established according to Santos et al., (2006); based on secondary sexual characteristics and gonad inspection, sex was determined macroscopically (Vazzoler, 1996). Besides the conventional classification we also used the trophic level classification proposed by Fishbase (Boettiger et al., 2012; Fishbase, 2015). For each specimen, besides sex, total or fork length ( $L_t$ ) (mm) and total weight ( $W_T$ ) (g) were recorded; the condition factor ( $CF_k$ ) for each specimen was calculated as  $CF_k = (W_T)/(L_t)^3$ . In our large sample (41 species and 2538 specimens) differences in shape and size can be normalized (accounting for length and weight) to better represent Hg concentrations. Furthermore, within a species, CF of 1 or higher indicates relatively healthy fish, while  $CF < 0.8$  indicate underweight. We also removed a sample of muscle (approximately 20 g, wet weight) for THg determination.

THg concentrations in muscle were determined by an in-house method developed and validated as described elsewhere (Bastos et al., 2015a); approximately 500 mg (wet weight) of muscle tissue was analyzed after treatment with solutions of  $H_2SO_4:HNO_3$  (1:1, Tédia, Brazil) and  $KMnO_4$  (5% w/v-Merck). After sample digestion, 4.0 mL of  $KMnO_4$  solution (5% w/v) was added and left for 30 min more in the digestion block (Tecnal-Mod.007A, Piracicaba, São Paulo, Brazil) at 60 °C for 1 h; this was followed by cooling to room temperature ( $\pm 25$  °C), and addition of hydroxylamine hydrochloride (12% solution, w/v-Merck) drops. The digested samples were diluted with 10.0 mL of ultra-pure  $H_2O$  (Milli-Q Plus, Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA). THg readings were done by cold vapor atomic absorption spectrophotometry (Flow Injection Mercury System- FIMS -400- Perkin Elmer, Ueberlingen, Germany) (Malm et al., 1989; Bastos et al., 1998).

All glassware followed our routine protocol of washing in 10%  $HNO_3$  and was rinsed with ultra-pure  $H_2O$ . In our routine analysis we used triplicate analyses of samples, and certified reference materials (BCR<sup>®</sup>, Sigma-Aldrich RTC Inc., USA). Method accuracy of THg determinations were ensured by the use of certified material (Tuna Fish, BCR-463 – THg =  $2.850 \pm 0.160$  mg/kg) which was run with each batch of samples; mean recovery of 96% ( $2.750 \pm 0.500$  mg/kg). Limits of detection (LOD) for THg were 0.0007 mg/kg.

**Table 1**

Observed and estimated minimum number of specimens necessary to estimate sex differences (minimum  $n$  = significant for 80%) in mercury (THg) concentrations of male (M) and female (F) fish.

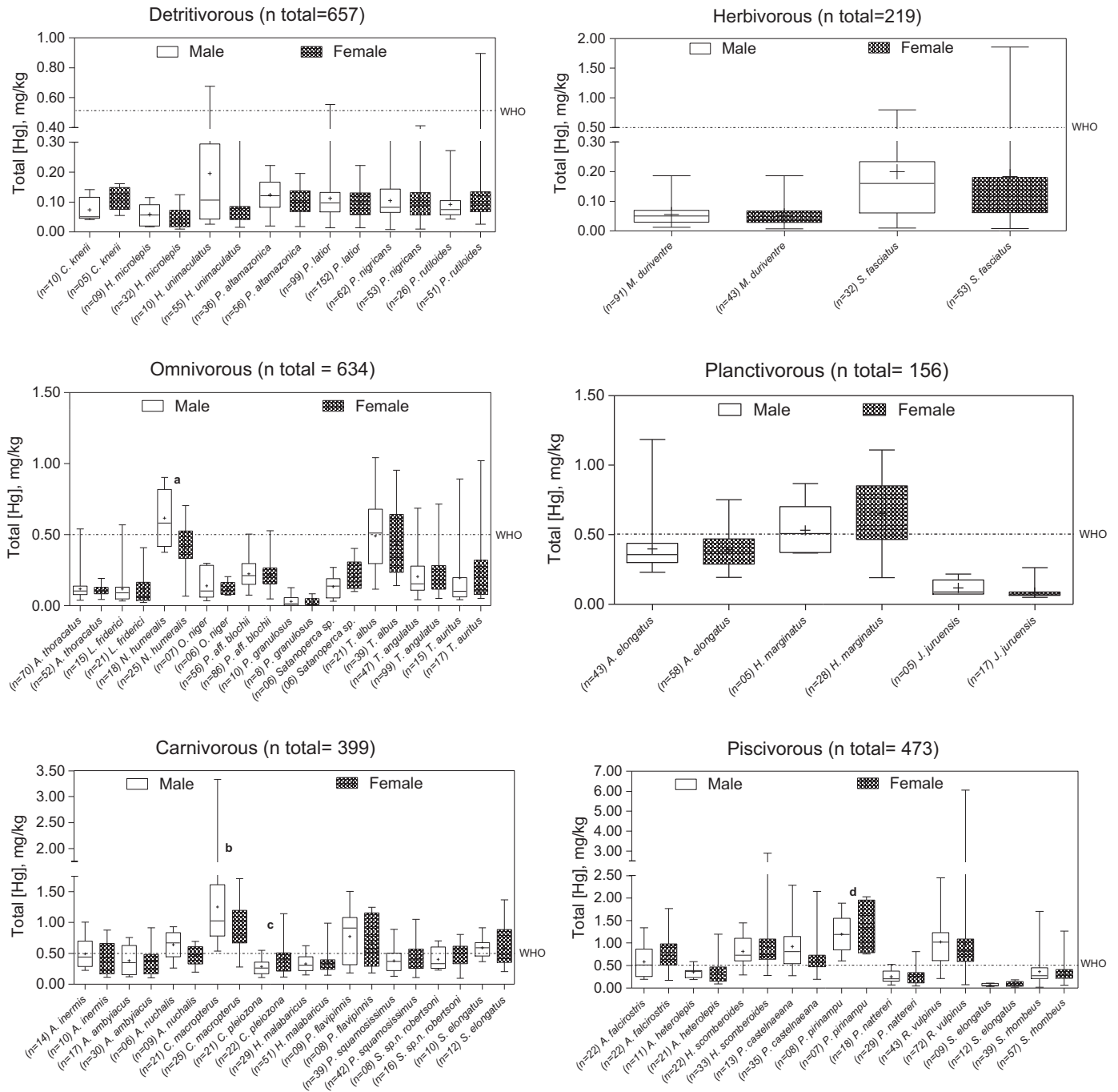
Scientific name	N Obs M	N Obs F	t Test	p	Minimum (n)
<i>Acestrorhynchus falcistrostris</i>	22	22	-1.467	0.1497	28 M; 28 F
<i>Acestrorhynchus heterolepis</i>	11	21	-0.2714	0.7879	12 M; 6 F
<i>Ageneiosus inermis</i>	14	10	0.4850	0.6325	149 M; 78 F
<i>Anodus elongatus</i>	43	58	0.2007	0.8413	36 M; 27 F
<i>Auchenipterichthys thoracatus</i>	70	52	0.9574	0.3403	7 M; 6 F
<i>Auchenipterus ambyiacus</i>	17	30	0.1779	0.8596	150 M; 11 F
<i>Auchenipterus nuchalis</i>	6	9	1.6997	0.1130	24 M; 17 F
<i>Calophysus macropterus</i>	21	25	2.9645	0.0122	13 M; 10 F
<i>Cichla pleiozona</i>	21	22	-2.0849	0.0433	9 M; 6 F
<i>Curimata knerii</i>	10	5	-1.6681	0.1192	172 M; 345 F
<i>Hemiodus microlepis</i> <sup>a</sup>	9	32	0.7717	0.4403	2,857 M; 800 F
<i>Hemiodus unimaculatus</i>	10	55	1.4454	0.1483	190 M; 34 F <sup>a</sup>
<i>Hoplias malabaricus</i> <sup>a</sup>	29	51	-0.8549	0.3952	53 M; 30 F
<i>Hydrolycus scomberoides</i>	22	33	-0.7106	0.4804	29 M; 19 F
<i>Hypophthalmus marginatus</i>	5	28	-1.0050	0.3227	237 M; 42 F
<i>Jurengraulis juruensis</i>	5	17	1.219	0.2369	77 M; 23 F
<i>Leporinus friderici</i>	15	21	0.0636	0.9497	30 M; 22 F
<i>Mylossoma duriventre</i>	91	43	0.6615	0.5094	253 M; 533 F
<i>Nemadoras humeralis</i>	18	25	3.4749	0.0012	166 M; 119 F
<i>Oxydoras niger</i>	7	6	0.4248	0.6792	6 M; 8 F
<i>Pellona castelnaeana</i>	56	86	0.2803	0.7796	2357 M; 1535 F
<i>Pellona flavipinnis</i>	8	7	-0.3633	0.7222	28 M; 32 F
<i>Pimelodus aff. Blochii</i>	39	42	-1.1239	0.2645	41 M; 39 F
<i>Pirirampus pirinampu</i>	36	56	2.3428	0.0213	76 M; 48 F
<i>Plagioscion squamosissimus</i>	99	153	1.2625	0.2079	2 M; 2 F
<i>Potamorhina altamazonica</i>	62	53	-0.6886	0.4925	12 M; 14 F
<i>Potamorhina latior</i>	26	51	-1.047	0.2983	8 M; 4 F
<i>Prochilodus nigricans</i>	22	22	1.219	0.2369	28 M; 28 F
<i>Psectrogaster rutiloides</i>	11	21	-0.2714	0.7879	12 M; 6 F
<i>Pterodoras granulosus</i>	10	18	0.3933	0.6973	8 M; 4 F
<i>Pygocentrus nattereri</i>	18	29	-0.2207	0.8263	164 M; 91 F
<i>Rhaphiodon vulpinus</i>	43	72	0.4672	0.6412	22 M; 13 F
<i>Satanoperca sp.</i>	6	6	-1.2703	0.2327	25 M; 25 F
<i>Schizodon fasciatus</i>	32	53	0.2801	0.7801	28 M; 17 F
<i>Serrasalmus elongatus</i>	9	12	-0.9243	0.3669	11 M; 6 F
<i>Serrasalmus rhombeus</i>	39	57	0.3178	0.7513	31 M; 22 F
<i>Serrasalmus sp.n. robertsoni</i>	8	16	-0.8816	0.3875	209 M; 104 F
<i>Sorubim elongatus</i>	10	12	0.0165	0.9870	8 M; 7 F
<i>Triporthes albus</i>	21	39	0.9822	0.3301	2953 M; 1588 F
<i>Triporthes angulatus</i>	47	99	-0.5040	0.6151	1427 M; 677 F
<i>Triporthes auritus</i>	15	17	-0.4598	0.6490	58 M; 52 F

$n$  = number of observations.

<sup>a</sup> Mann-Whitney  $U$  test.

### 2.1. Statistical analysis

With this dataset ( $n=2,538$ ; 1052 males and 1486 females) we analyzed differences between male and female within species and within trophic levels. We used the Kolmogorov-Smirnov one-sample test (to analyze the normality of all study data) and applied appropriate statistical analysis. Group means of THg according to the fish sex were compared using parametric (Student  $t$  test) and nonparametric (Mann-Whitney  $U$  test as an alternative to



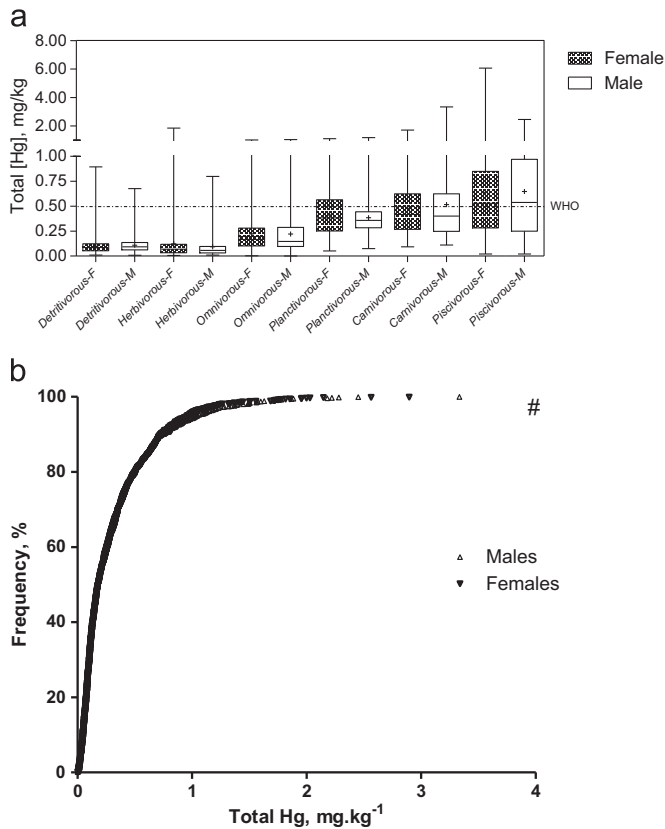
**Fig. 1.** Whisker-box plot representing medians and quartiles of THg in muscle of males and females by species according to trophic levels. N total= 2538, the mean is identified by +. Letter superscript represents level of statistical significance: a=0.0012; b=0.0122; c=0.0433; d=0.0213. The dotted line is the limit of WHO (1990).

independent samples) tests as required. The assumption variance equality was verified by Levene test; if conditions were not met, then we evaluated the mean differences between groups using alternatives to the *t*-test from heteroscedastic variance (Zar, 2010). We used correlation analysis to study the association between THg fish concentrations and CF condition factors (within conventional trophic levels).

We followed the rationale of Gagnon and Hodson (2012) to estimate the approximate numbers of fish needed to identify statistical significance between sexes in order to maximize the chances of correctly identifying the number of specimens that were collected to evaluate Hg bioaccumulation in males and females. According to Gagnon and Hodson (2012), we assumed that

sample size is a function of the degree of inter-sex differences between species and the variability of THg concentrations. Using THg concentrations from fish species of the Madeira River (Table 1), the number of fish required to detect an inter- male and female difference at  $\alpha=0.05$  was calculated using the publicly available program G/Power3.1.3 (<http://www.psych.uni-duesseldorf.de/abteilungen/aap/gpower3/>). We used the following criteria: *t*-tests, mean difference between two independent groups, a priori compute required sample size – given a, power and effect size as suggested by Gagnon and Hodson (2012). Statistical methods used are outlined in Zar (2010).

To compare THg concentrations in males and females we used the means and SD of each species from the population statistics in



**Fig. 2.** Total Hg concentrations in male and female fish; (a) represents whisker-box plot (medians and quartiles; means are identified by +) according to trophic levels. (b) Shows frequency distribution of total Hg in all male and female studied fish; # = Female outlier, 6.0.

our data bank. In our case we needed to compare the means from the two groups, along with the average of each group to be compared, and we also needed to determine the effect size “*d*” of male and female fish. Calculations of minimum number of males and females were performed for powers of 0.80, corresponding respectively to 80% chance of obtaining a significant difference among groups at  $1 - \alpha = 0.2$ ; this test is a factor influencing the minimum number of males and females, in the present case, in the collected sample. As discussed in Fairweather (1991), it is assumed, as in many environmental science studies, that the power should be at least  $\alpha = 0.80$ , i.e., an 80% chance of detecting a difference in THg concentration between males and females.

All statistical analyses were performed using the software package XLStat version 2.03 (Addinsoft, 2010) and PRISM (version 4.0; San Diego, CA) software, which was also used for data summarization (in figures) and correlation analysis. We accepted a value of  $< 0.05$  as statistically significant.

### 3. Results

We studied THg concentrations as a function of sex in 2538 samples (males=1052, females=1486) of 41 species of fish of different trophic levels (detritivorous, herbivorous, omnivorous, planctivorous, carnivorous, and piscivorous). THg for both males and females of all species are illustrated in Fig. 1 by conventional classification. There was no clear pattern of sex differences in THg concentrations for 90% of the studied species; females showed higher THg than males only for *P. pirinampu* (fishbase trophic level  $4.5 \pm 0.80$ ), and the opposite for the *C. macropterus* and *C. pleiozona* (fishbase trophic level  $3.2 \pm 0.47$  and  $4.2 \pm 0.5$ , respectively),

and *N. humeralis* (fishbase trophic level  $2.8 \pm 0.4$ ) species.

Table 1 shows details of statistical analysis with actual and estimated minimum number of observations for species. The magnitudes of the inter-sex differences within each species were estimated; 11 of the 41 species studied, due to THg variability, showed sufficient numbers for relevant sex effects of the studied fish populations. Indeed, only two of the statistically significant species showed had a large enough number of specimens for a robust statistical comparison.

When analyzed by fish trophic levels, THg concentrations showed the expected hierarchical pattern of THg concentrations (Fig. 2a); detritivorous and herbivorous species showed the lowest while piscivorous showed the highest THg concentrations. However, there were no statistically significant differences between males and females within trophic levels. To further illustrate similarity between sexes in relation to muscle THg concentrations, Fig. 2b shows a frequency distribution for all fish samples; trends were indistinguishable between males and females. Overall, THg  $> 0.50$  mg/kg (limit recommended by the FAO/WHO, 2007 for non-predatory fish) were mostly seen in carnivorous and piscivorous species.

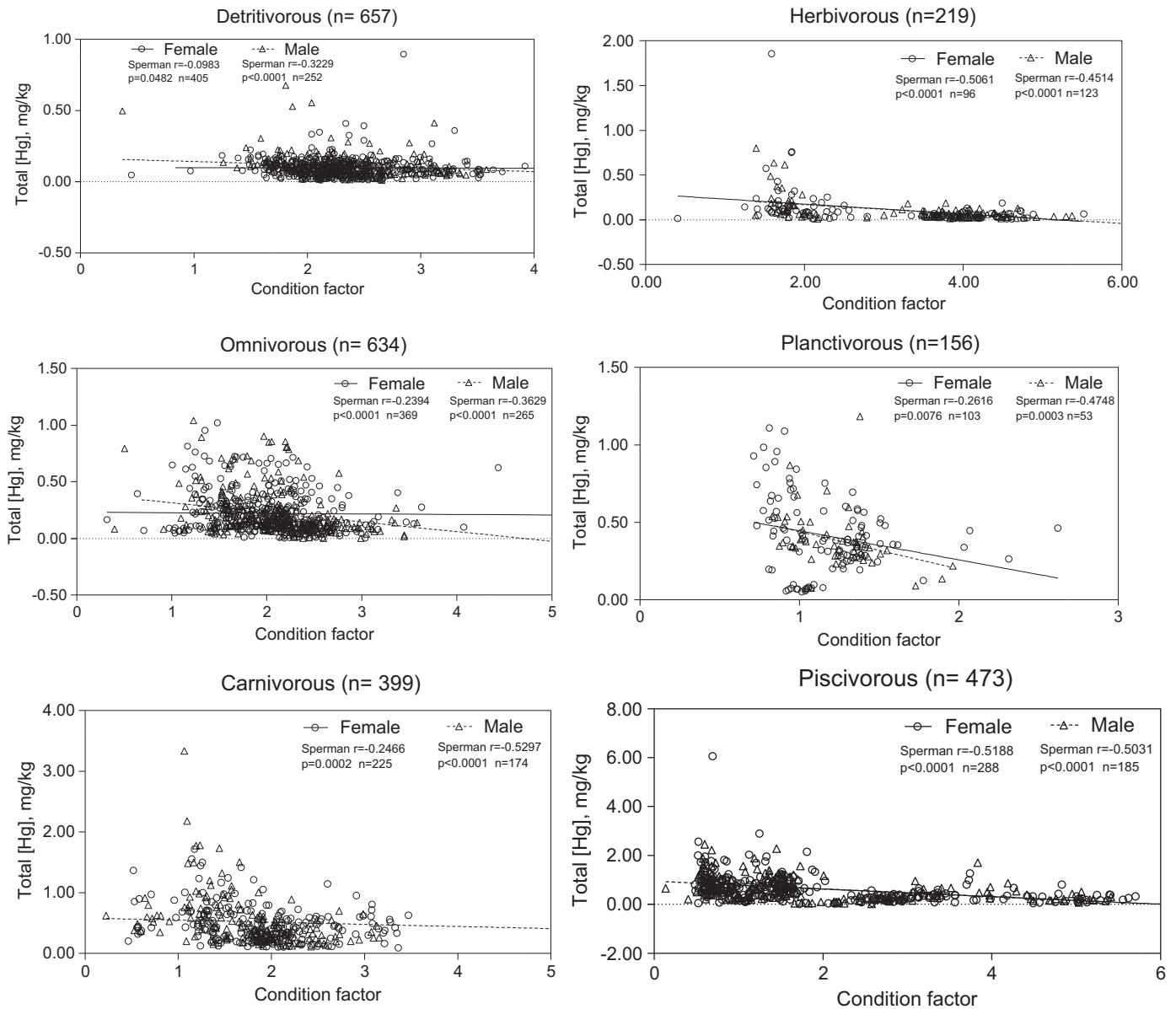
Due to differences in shape and sizes of the 41 species, we analyzed THg as a function of the condition factor for all species. Fig. 3 illustrates the correlation analysis between fish CF and THg concentration by sex; in all cases the relationship was statistically significant and negative.

### 4. Discussion

Based on *a priori* understanding of THg bioaccumulation, sex can influence Hg metabolism in some species of fish but other unmeasured factors are stronger determinants of muscle-THg bioaccumulation. Overall, distribution frequency of THg concentration is indistinguishable between males and females. For the 88% of the studied species there was no difference between sexes, and for the few that showed significant difference there was no systematic dominance of male or female. Our results for sex related THg in Amazonian fish are in agreement with the collective tendency showed by published studies (Table 2). Recent isotope studies in walleye (*Sander vitreus*), confirm that sex-based differences in Hg concentrations are weak (Ofukany et al., 2015); which also concur with our recent work with Amazonian catfish (Bastos et al., 2015b). In the present work, we only had two species (*P. pirinampu* and *S. elongatus*) but only one (*P. pirinampu*) showed statistically higher Hg in female.

Sexual dimorphism may be linked to differences in muscle-Hg concentrations for some species (Lepak et al., 2012). Additionally, sex-related metabolic differences in growth and behavior may also affect Hg metabolism and bioaccumulation (Henderson et al., 2003; McClain et al., 2006; Rennie et al., 2008). The rate of THg bioaccumulation and condition factor indicated a significant relationship for some groups (Piscivorous, Carnivorous, and Omnivorous) of fish. Indeed, studying the slopes of the mercury and total length relationships in six species (*Sander vitreus*; *Pylodictis olivaris*; *Morone chrysops*; *Ictalurus punctatus*; *Cyprinus carpio*; *Carpiodes carpio*; *Dorosoma cepedianum*) of fish, McClain et al. (2006) showed a significant difference only for male and female walleye. However, for Canadian walleye populations, no such differences were reported (Ofukany et al., 2015).

Stacy and Lepak (2012) discussed the role of sexual dimorphism and behavior as determinant traits driving differences in THg bioaccumulation between males and females. In some apex species (like walleye), sexual size dimorphism can influence resource partitioning, resulting in male and female prey difference and accompanying diet composition. Dietary characteristics of prey



**Fig. 3.** Correlation analysis between total Hg concentration in muscle and condition factors (calculated as  $CF_k = (W_{\text{eight}})/(L_{\text{length}}^3)$ ) by trophic levels (solid lines integrate trends).

could explain the difference in THg between male and female walleyes (Stacy and Lepak, 2012). However, in different studies summarized in Table 2, walleye (*Sander vitreus*) showed opposite trends, i.e. males with higher (McClain et al., 2006) and lower (Visha et al., 2015) THg concentrations than females. Collectively, the studies summarized in Table 2 (39) done with few (1–5) species indicated that in most of them (29) there were no significant differences between males and females. In our study and in those summarized in Table 2, the few statistically significant sex-related differences favored either males or females depending on the species.

It is worth noting that we estimated the minimum number of samples (for each studied species) based on the variance of THg in males and in females (Table 1). Among the 41 species, the variance within each species was high for both males and females. This resulted in an insufficient sample size to detect mean difference between sexes. Such variability could be associated with biotic and abiotic factors (Wren, 1986), as well as random errors related to sampling, and analysis (Brower et al., 1997; Krebs, 1999). In wild

fish, sampling variability is uncontrollable, and the variance may be such that the measured parameter may not be comparable between males and females. The post hoc evaluation indicated that we attained satisfactory sampling only for 11 of the 41 species (Table 1).

After applying the g-power test suggested by Gagnon and Hodson (2012), only two of the species (Table 1) achieved the minimum number of specimens for a meaningful statistical outcome. The use of the g-power test is not without criticism (Hoening and Heisey, 2001). Therefore, to avoid overuse, future studies should judiciously establish its assumptions and interpret results with the necessary caution and within the limits of its application. The limited number of species (12%) showing sex differences in Hg concentrations, so far carries little biological significance. Nevertheless, neither the surveillance of environmental pollution nor the current food advisories based on muscle THg need to change because of fish sex.

Our study addressed condition factor and sex in a large number of specimens from a wide range of species. Additionally, the inherent difficulty it adequately assessed fish trophic levels (crucial

**Table 2**  
Total mercury (THg) concentrations in muscle of several species of fish as a function of sex (M=males; F=females) in different studies indicating statistically significant (M > F; M < F) and non-significant (M/F) difference.

Scientific Name	n	Fishbase Trophic Level	M > F	M/F	M < F	References
Amazonian fish (41 species) <sup>a</sup>	2538	2.0 to 4.5	+	+	+	Current study
<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	40	4.1 ± 0.5			+	Bergés-Tiznado et al. (2015)
<i>B. filamentosum</i> ; <i>B. platynemum</i> ; <i>B. rousseauxii</i> ; <i>B. vaillantii</i> ; <i>P. hemiliopterus</i> ; <i>P. punctifer</i> ; <i>P. tigrinum</i> ; <i>Z. zungaro</i>	165	4.2 to 4.6			+	Bastos et al. (2015b)
<i>Sander vitreus</i> , <i>Salvelinus namaycush</i>	1023; 745	4.5; 4.3		+	+	Visha et al. (2015)
<i>Lota lota</i>	50	3.8 ± 0.2			+	Madenjian et al. (2015)
<i>Esox lucius</i>	6	4.1 ± 0.4				Madenjian et al. (2014a)
<i>Petromyzon marinus</i>	78	4.4 ± 0.8	+			Madenjian et al. (2014b)
<i>Epinephelus diacanthus</i> ; <i>Parastromateus niger</i> ; <i>Alectis indicus</i>	64; 63; 68	3.6; 3.8; 2.9		+		Abdolvand et al. (2014)
<i>Hoplias malabaricus</i>	43	4.5 ± 0.0		+		Mela et al. (2014)
<i>Myoxocephalus scorpius</i>	33	3.9 ± 0.0		+		Sonne et al. (2014)
<i>Sander vitreus</i>	26	4.5 ± 0.0	+			Stacy and Lepak (2012)
<i>Platichthys flesus</i>	74	3.3 ± 0.2	+			Polak-Juszczak (2012)
<i>Mullus barbatus</i>	8	3.1 ± 0.1		+		Martinez-Gomez et al. (2012)
<i>Aphanopus carbo</i> Lowe, 1839	NG	4.5 ± 0.8		+		Maulvault et al. (2012)
<i>Salvelinus namaycush</i>	119	4.3 ± 0.5	+			Madenjian et al. (2011)
<i>S. pilchardus</i> ; <i>S. japonicus</i> ; <i>T. trachurus</i>	19;25;25	3.4 to 3.7		+		Vieira et al. (2011)
<i>S. vitreus</i> ; <i>O. tshawytscha</i> ; <i>S. namaycush</i> ; <i>E. lucius</i> ; <i>M. dolomieu</i> ; <i>C. clupearformis</i> ; <i>P. flavescens</i>	887	3.2 to 4.5	+	+		Gewurtz et al. (2011)
<i>Thunnus albacares</i>	68	4.4 ± 0.4		+		Ordiano-Flores et al. (2011)
<i>Prionace glauca</i>	38	4.4 ± 0.2		+		Escobar Sanchez et al. (2011)
<i>C. monoculus</i>	27	3.9 ± 0.7		+		Rabitto et al. (2011)
<i>E. baxteri</i> , <i>C. crepidater</i> , <i>D. calcea</i> ; <i>S. mitsukurii</i>	227	4.2 to 4.4		+		Pethybridge et al. (2010)
<i>Scyliorhinus canicula</i>	48	3.8 ± 0.3		+		Coelho et al. (2010)
<i>Sphyrna zygaena</i>	10	4.9 ± 0.5			+	Escobar Sanchez et al. (2010)
<i>Coryphaena hippurus</i>	385	4.4 ± 0.0		+		Adams (2009)
<i>C. carpio</i> ; <i>Capoeta</i> sp	225	3.1; NG		+		Ebrahimi and Taherianfard (2010)
<i>M. barbatus</i> , <i>M. ponticus</i> , <i>M. surmuletus</i>	208	3.1 to 3.5		+		Harmelin-Vivien et al. (2009)
<i>Galeocerdo cuvier</i>	41	4.5 ± 0.0		+		Endo et al. (2008)
<i>Micropterus dolomieu</i>	45	3.6 ± 0.2			+	Murphy et al. (2007)
<i>Prionace glauca</i> , <i>L. 1758</i> ; <i>Xiphias gladius</i> , <i>L. 1758</i>	64	4.4 ± 0.2		+		Branco et al. (2007)
	52	4.5 ± 0.2		+		
<i>Morone americana</i>	168	3.1 ± 0.3		+		Weis and Ashley (2007)
<i>P. pichis</i> , <i>P. blennoides</i> , <i>P. americanus</i> , <i>C. conger</i> , <i>P. acarne</i> , <i>T. picturatus</i> , <i>L. caudatus</i> <i>M. Moro</i>	295	3.3 to 4.3		+		Magalhães et al. (2007)
<i>Micropterus salmoides</i>	53	3.8 ± 0.4		+		Foster et al. (2000)
<i>X. gladius</i> ; <i>T. albacares</i> ; <i>K pelamis</i> ; <i>C. hippurus</i> ; <i>A. solandri</i>	69	4.3 to 4.5		+		Kojadinovic et al. (2006)
<i>Sander vitreus</i>	79	4.5 ± 0.0	+			McClain et al. (2006)
<i>Acipenser transmontanus</i>	57	3.3 ± 0.1		+		Webb et al. (2006)
<i>Thunnus thynnus</i>	14	4.5 ± 0.8		+		Licata et al. (2005)
<i>Stizostedion vitreum vitreum</i>	567	4.5 ± 0.0	+			Henderson et al. (2003)
<i>M. canis</i>	79	3.6 ± 0.2		+		Penedo de Pinho et al. (2002)
<i>Salmo trutta</i> L.	20	3.4 ± 0.1		+		Gutenmann and Lisk (1990)
<i>Xiphias gladius</i> L.	136	4.5 ± 0.2	+			Monteiro and Lopes (1990)
<i>A. rupestris</i> ; <i>L. auritus</i> ; <i>L. gibbosus</i> ; <i>L. macrochirus</i>	NG	3.2 to 3.4			+	Nicoletto and Hendricks (1988)
<i>Mustelus antarcticus</i> Guenther	153	4.5 ± 0.6	+			Walker (1976)

n=number of observations.

NG= Not given.

<sup>a</sup> M > F n=2; M < F n=3; M/F n=36.

factor for Hg bioaccumulation) was partly overcome by using fishbase classification. These are strength of the study. Here, we demonstrate the limited influence of sex on fish-Hg bioaccumulation. It was clear from our analysis that we may have had an insufficient number of samples. Furthermore, we were not able to assess stomach contents of the studied species, which constitutes another limitation of the study.

## 5. Conclusions

Sex is not the main determinant of muscle-Hg bioaccumulation, and does not seem to be more important for fish advisories than fish trophic level and size. However, because it occurs in some specific species, it remains a potential research topic in fish biology.

## Acknowledgments

This work was partly supported by the National Research Council of Brazil-CNPq (Grants 552331/2011-2 and 458977/2014-4). The authors also gratefully acknowledge the support of the Laboratory of Ichthyology and Fishing Federal University of Rondônia and Santo Antônio Energia.

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