Elevated red myotomal muscle temperatures in the most basal tuna species, *Allothunnus fallai*

C. A. Sepulveda*†‡, K. A. Dickson§, D. Bernal|| and J. B. Graham*

*Center for Marine Biotechnology and Biomedicine and Marine Biology Research Division, Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093-0204, U.S.A., †Pfleger Institute of Environmental Research, 315 N. Clementine, Oceanside, CA 92054, U.S.A., §Department of Biological Science, California State University Fullerton, Fullerton, CA 92834-6850, U.S.A. and ||Department of Biology, University of Massachusetts, Dartmouth, MA 02747, U.S.A.

(Received 10 September 2007, Accepted 14 April 2008)

The present study tested the hypothesis that *Allothunnus fallai* can elevate its slow-oxidative red myotomal muscle (RM) temperature. Measurements on 30 *A. fallai* (750–850 mm fork length) captured by hook and line off the coast of southern New Zealand revealed that RM temperatures are elevated by mean \pm s.D. $8\cdot1 \pm 1\cdot3^{\circ}$ C (range $6\cdot7-10\cdot0^{\circ}$ C) above the mean \pm s.D. ambient sea surface temperature $15\cdot3 \pm 0\cdot8^{\circ}$ C (range $14\cdot3$ to $16\cdot4^{\circ}$ C). These data provide evidence that the vascular modifications to the central circulation of *A. fallai* act as a countercurrent heat exchanger and that RM heat conservation is a character state present in all extant tuna species.

Journal compilation © 2008 The Fisheries Society of the British Isles

Key words: Allothunnus; endothermy; muscle; Scombridae; temperature; tuna.

INTRODUCTION

The tunas (tribe Thunnini) comprise a monophyletic group, which possess anatomical and physiological specializations that distinguish them from other members of the family Scombridae (Kishinouye, 1923; Collette & Chao, 1975; Collette, 1978; Graham & Dickson, 2000). Among the distinguishing characteristics of the tuna clade are the more anterior and axial position of the slow-oxidative red myotomal muscle (RM) and the presence of countercurrent heat exchangers, which allow the conservation of metabolic heat within the RM, the eye and brain, and, in some species, the viscera (regional endothermy) (Carey & Teal, 1966; Carey *et al.*, 1971, 1984; Linthicum & Carey, 1972; Graham & Dickson, 2000; Sepulveda *et al.*, 2007).

Red muscle heat conservation has been documented for all tuna genera (Auxis, Euthynnus, Katsuwonus and Thunnus) except Allothunnus, a monotypic

[‡]Author to whom correspondence should be addressed at present address: Pfleger Institute of Environmental Research, 315 N. Clementine, Oceanside, CA 92054, U.S.A. Tel.: +1 760 721 1404; fax: +1 760 721 1475; email: chugey@pier.org

genus from the Southern Ocean (Serventy, 1948; Dickson & Graham, 2004). The most recent phylogenetic analyses have positioned *Allothunnus* as the most basal member of the tuna clade (Cressey *et al.*, 1983; Graham & Dickson, 2000; Collette et al., 2001, Orrell et al., 2006). Because Allothunnus is not commonly caught in present-day fisheries, few studies have focused on this scombrid and most of the published work has been based on morphological analyses of fresh and preserved specimens (Serventy, 1948; Nakamura & Mori, 1966; Collette & Chao, 1975; Collette, 1978; Yatsu, 1995; Graham & Dickson, 2000). Graham & Dickson (2000) found that both the RM morphology and the central circulation of the slender tuna Allothunnus fallai Serventy were similar to that of other tunas (Auxis, Euthynnus and Katsuwonus), but they interpreted the smaller quantity of RM, the relatively smaller size of the putative central heat exchanger and the absence of a lateral RM circulation and lateral heat exchangers to indicate a decreased specialization for RM heat conservation. Although recent evidence for cranial heat conservation has been reported for A. fallai (Sepulveda et al., 2007), the hypothesis that this species can elevate the temperature of its RM remains untested and was therefore the focus of this investigation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

All experiments were conducted under the guidelines of the University of Otago Animal Ethics Committee, Dunedin, New Zealand, and the Animal Care and Use Committee of the University of California, San Diego (Protocol # S00080), U.S.A. All experiments were performed following the guidelines of the 2000 Report of the American Veterinarian Medical Association Panel on Euthanasia.

Fishing operations and temperature measurement protocols have been previously described (Sepulveda et al., 2007). Briefly, 30 A. fallai were caught by hook and line while they were foraging at the surface off South Island New Zealand from March to May 2001. Moderate tackle (18 kg monofilament) was used to reduce the time spent struggling on the line. For all specimens, the time from initial hook-set to the landing of the fish did not exceed 4 min in duration. The methods employed in this study follow those of previous postcapture thermal studies on other scombrid species (Barrett & Hester, 1964; Carey et al., 1971; Schaefer, 1985; Dickson, 1994; Sepulveda et al., 2007). Once landed, the fish were immediately pithed using a rigid thermocouple penetration probe (Barnant model 600; Barrington, IL, U.S.A.) to instantaneously sever the central nervous system. Simultaneous cranial (Sepulveda et al., 2007) and red muscle temperature (T_{RM}) measurements were taken using two independent digital thermocouple thermometers (Barnant model 600). All $T_{\rm RM}$ measurements were taken at the same body position, with the probe introduction point in the dorsal musculature below the insertion of the first dorsal fin and along the body midline. This site corresponds to the position of maximum RM in *A. fallai* (Graham & Dickson, 2000). After the highest RM temperature reading was recorded, the seawater surface temperature (T_{SS}) was also measured using the same thermocouple (all fish were caught at the surface). The difference between $T_{\rm RM}$ and $T_{\rm SS}$ provided the excess RM temperature ($T_{\text{XRM}} = T_{\text{RM}} - T_{\text{SS}}$). For all experiments, air temperatures were lower than the T_{SS} . After each field experiment, thermocouple calibration was verified in the laboratory with a standard mercury thermometer.

RESULTS

Postcapture $T_{\rm RM}$ data were obtained for 30 *A. fallai* ranging in size from 755 to 850 mm fork length ($L_{\rm F}$) and 5.6 to 10.6 kg (Table I). All specimens had

$L_{\rm F}~({\rm mm})$	Mass (kg)	$T_{\rm RM}$ (° C)	$T_{\rm SS}~(^{\circ}~{\rm C})$	$T_{\rm XRM}$ (° C)
710	5.6	23.7	14.3	9.4
740	8.2	21.6	14.8	6.8
750	4.9	23.8	14.3	9.5
760	7.0	23.2	14.7	8.5
760	7.5	22.7	14.6	8.1
760	7.5	22.2	14.9	7.3
760	5.5	21.7	14.9	6.8
780	6.9	21.6	14.9	6.7
780	6.4	24.0	14.9	9.1
790	8.0	24.7	16.4	8.3
790	8.2	23.2	15.8	7.4
790	9.3	24.1	16.0	8.1
790	8.2	23.6	14.3	9.3
800	8.0	24.3	15.0	9.3
800	8.0	23.3	16.3	7.0
800	8.0	24.6	16.4	8.2
800	9.0	24.8	16.2	8.6
800	7.3	22.3	14.3	8.0
810	9.0	25.8	15.8	10.0
810	9.3	23.4	16.3	7.1
810	7.8	23.0	15.9	7.1
820	8.5	21.9	14.8	7.1
820	7.9	23.4	14.6	8.8
820	8.2	23.5	16.0	7.5
840	9.5	24.7	16.3	8.4
840	8.5	22.4	14.9	7.5
850	10.6	24.7	16.4	8.3
850	9.8	23.9	14.6	9.3
850	9.0	24.3	14.6	9.7
870	10.3	24.0	14.9	9.1
Mean \pm s.d.				
800 ± 35	8.1 ± 1.3	23.5 ± 1.1	$15\cdot3\pm0\cdot8$	8.2 ± 1.0

TABLE I. Body size, postcapture red muscle temperature (T_{RM}) and sea surface temperature (T_{SS}) data for *Allothunnus fallai*

 $L_{\rm F}$, fork length; $T_{\rm XRM}$, $T_{\rm RM} - T_{\rm SS}$.

a $T_{\rm RM}$ that was higher than $T_{\rm SS}$ (Fig. 1). The mean \pm s.D. $T_{\rm RM}$ was 23.5 \pm 1.1° C taken in surface waters ranging from 14.3 to 16.4° C (mean \pm s.D., 15.3 \pm 0.8° C). The $T_{\rm XRM}$ values ranged from 6.7 to 10.0° C with a mean \pm s.D. of 8.2 \pm 1.0° C (Fig. 2).

DISCUSSION

The finding of elevated RM temperatures for *A. fallai* confirms that the small vascular plexus within the haemal arch described by Graham & Dickson (2000) functions as a central counter-current heat exchanger and identifies RM heat

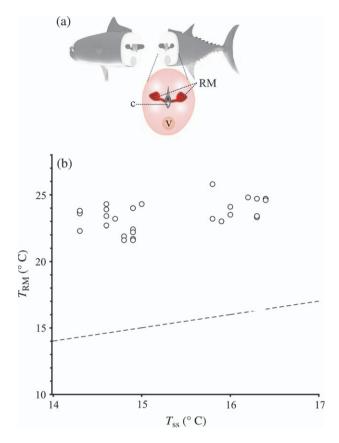


FIG. 1. (a) Three-dimensional image of *Allothunnus fallai* sectioned at 50% fork length ($L_{\rm F}$). Transverse section shows the position of the red muscle (RM), the central rete (C) and viscera (V). (b) Mean \pm s.D. postcapture RM temperature ($T_{\rm RM}$) for 30*A*. *fallai* (\bigcirc) (8·1 \pm 1·3 kg body mass) collected at a mean \pm s.D. sea surface temperature ($T_{\rm SS}$) of 15·3 \pm 0·8° C (-----, the line of equality).

conservation as a shared, derived trait of the Thunnini. These findings, coupled with the presence of cranial heat conservation in this species (Sepulveda *et al.*, 2007), suggest that regional endothermy is an adaptation to the cool ambient conditions experienced throughout the southerly range of this species (Block & Finnerty, 1994; Yatsu, 1995).

Studies on the morphology of the heat exchanger of *A. fallai* suggested that its capacity for heat conservation should be less than that of the other tunas because of its small size and lower mean artery:vein ratio and larger vessel diameters (Graham & Dickson, 2000). Unlike the other tuna genera, which possess either cutaneous (lateral) retia [*Thunnus thynnus* (L.), *Thunnus obesus* (Lowe) and *Thunnus alalunga* (Bonnaterre)] or a combination of cutaneous and central retia [*Auxis* sp., *Euthynnus alletteratus* (Rafinesque), *Katsuwonus pelamis* (L.), *Thunnus albacares* (Bonnaterre), *Thunnus atlanticus* (Lesson) and *Thunnus tonggol* (Bleeker)], *A. fallai* only has a small central rete (Graham & Dickson, 2000, 2004; Orrell *et al.*, 2006). Other *A. fallai* characteristics that are also suggestive of a reduced capacity for RM heat conservation include

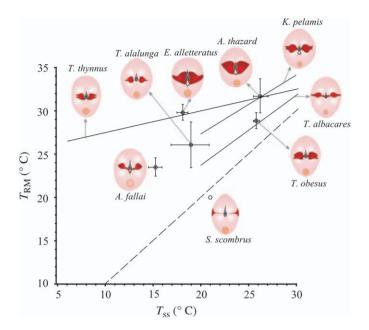


FIG. 2. Postcapture red muscle $(R_{\rm M})$ temperature $(T_{\rm RM})$ data plotted against sea surface temperature $(T_{\rm SS})$ in selected scombrids. Transverse section for each species shows RM and viscera position at *c*. 50% fork length $(L_{\rm F})$. The $T_{\rm RM}$ data are shown as mean \pm s.D. for slender tuna, *Allothunnus fallai* [n = 30, $4\cdot9-10\cdot6$ kg body mass (this study)], frigate tuna *Auxis thazard* (Lacepède) [n = 1, 0.90 kg body mass (unpubl. data) and n = 6, 0.74–0.82 kg body mass (Schaefer, 1985)], little tunny *Euthynnus alletteratus* (Rafinesque) [n = 16, $4\cdot5-13\cdot6$ kg body mass (Linthicum & Carey, 1972)], albacore tuna, *Thunnus alalunga* (Bonnaterre) [n = 10, $4\cdot8-12\cdot3$ kg body mass (Graham & Dickson, 1981)], bigeye tuna *Thunnus obesus* (Lowe) [n = 13, 6–15 kg body mass (unpubl. data)] and Atlantic mackerel *Scomber scombrus* L. [< 3 kg body mass (Linthicum & Carey, 1972)]. Linear regressions are shown for *Thunnus thynnus* (L.) (n = 121, 68–362 kg body mass; $y = 24\cdot94 + 0.25 x$) (Carey & Teal, 1969), skipjack tuna *Katsuvonus pelamis* (L.) (n = 53, 2·0–3·5 kg body mass; $y = 13\cdot7 + 0.68 x$) (Carey & Teal, 1969) and yellowfin tuna *Thunnus albacares* (Bonnaterre) (n = 62, 3–14 kg body mass; $y = 7\cdot47 + 0.81 x$) (Barrett & Hester, 1964) (----, the line of equality).

a low relative amount of RM (4·8% of total body mass, one of the lowest values recorded for tunas, which range from 4·1 to 13·0%; Graham *et al.*, 1983; Graham & Dickson, 2000) and a smaller relative heart size (0·28% v. 0·33–0·81% body mass; Graham *et al.*, 1983; Graham & Dickson, 2000). Despite these characters, the postcapture $T_{\rm RM}$ data for *A. fallai* was found to be similar to those of other tunas in which $T_{\rm RM}$ (obtained using similar methods) has been shown to range typically between 22 and 30° C (Fig. 2) (Barrett & Hester, 1964; Carey *et al.*, 1971; Stevens & Fry, 1971; Linthicum & Carey, 1972; Graham & Dickson, 1981; Schaefer, 1985; Dickson, 1994).

Explanations for the similar $T_{\rm XRM}$ recorded in *A. fallai* and other tuna species must consider that the $T_{\rm RM}$ data for *A. fallai* were collected at cool ambient conditions (*i.e.* $T_{\rm SS}$ of 14·3–16·4° C), whereas most of the previous data on postcapture tuna muscle temperatures have been recorded for fishes in warmer waters ($T_{\rm SS}$ ranging from 18 to 30° C) (Fig. 2) (Carey *et al.*, 1971; Stevens & Fry, 1971; Linthicum & Carey, 1972; Schaefer, 1985; Dickson, 1994). It has been shown that, when in warmer waters, tunas (including the more derived

members of the clade which possess morphologically more complex heat exchangers) may exhibit a lower $T_{\rm XRM}$ in order to maintain $T_{\rm RM}$ within an optimal operating range (22–30° C; Fig. 2). Support for this comes from *in vivo* studies that have shown tunas to use both behavioural and physiological thermoregulation to control body temperature (Carey & Teal, 1969; Carey & Lawson, 1973; Graham & Dickson, 1981; Holland *et al.*, 1992; Dewar *et al.*, 1994; Stevens *et al.*, 2000; Kitagawa *et al.*, 2001, 2006, 2007; Marcinek *et al.*, 2001; Musyl *et al.*, 2003; Teo *et al.*, 2007). Additional support for this comes from *in vitro* studies on *T. albacares* that show enhanced RM contractile performance (*e.g.* increased power output and higher cycle frequencies) at this temperature range (25–30° C) (Altringham & Block, 1997; Syme & Shadwick, 2002).

While $T_{\rm RM}$ provides the *in situ* operating temperature of the muscle, a critical component for muscle performance studies, T_{XRM} is the value more commonly used to assess and compare endothermic capacity (Stevens & Neill, 1978; Dickson, 1994). Although often a benchmark for comparison, $T_{\rm XRM}$ represents a variable measurement that is dependent upon the ambient conditions, including the immediate diving history of the animal. Even though the $T_{\rm XRM}$ data of this study are from wild-caught fish that underwent a variable degree of struggle before capture, this study reports a relatively narrow $T_{\rm XRM}$ range (6.7–10.0° C) for all specimens tested. Although muscle temperature studies on tunas have shown that acute exercise may increase body temperature (Stevens & Neill, 1978; Dewar et al., 1994; Dickson, 1994), the maximum $T_{\rm XRM}$ reported for exercised ectothermic fishes is only 2.7° C (Dickson, 1994). Hence, although the thermal data presented in this study are from exercised fish and thus may be an overestimate of the steady-state $T_{\rm RM}$ experienced in the wild, the values are on average 5.5° C above the maximum value recorded for any exercised ectothermic species.

The $T_{\rm XRM}$ data from postcapture individuals, like those of this study, are clearly confounded by the act of capture and boat side handling, both of which can significantly affect heat production and retention (Brill *et al.*, 1994). From the present study, it is not possible to fully asses the degree to which *A. fallai* is specialized for RM heat conservation or whether this species is capable of physiological thermoregulation. These data do, however, provide the first evidence for RM heat conservation in this poorly studied species.

TUNA BIOGEOGRAPHY

The geographical distribution and the extent to which fishes are specialized for regional endothermy have been used to support the hypothesis that niche expansion was an important selective force in the evolution of this trait in both the tunas and the lamnid sharks (Carey *et al.*, 1985; Block *et al.*, 1993; Block & Finnerty, 1994). The finding of RM heat conservation for *A. fallai* not only supports the niche expansion hypothesis but also raises additional questions regarding the geographical distribution of *A. fallai* and its phylogenetic placement as the most basal tuna species (Cressey *et al.*, 1983; Graham & Dickson, 2000; Collette *et al.*, 2001; Orrell *et al.*, 2006). Certainly, the ability to elevate $T_{\rm RM}$ could have been selected for in the cold waters of the Southern Ocean, but how the evolution of regional endothermy occurred within the tuna clade

becomes less clear when the very different geographical distribution of *A. fallai* (between 20 and 45° S; Nakamura & Mori, 1966; Yatsu, 1995) is compared to the tropical and sub-tropical distributions of the other tuna genera with similar central heat exchange systems (*Auxis, Euthynnus* and *Katsuwonus*). According to hypotheses based on the fossil record, the radiation of the tunas from the tropics would result in the most basal members of the Thunnini having the strongest affinity for low latitudes, whereas only the more derived members of the group would have radiated into colder habitats (Graham & Dickson, 2004). *Allothunnus fallai* larvae occur in relatively cold waters (latitudes between 20 and 30° S; Watanabe *et al.*, 1966), and the adults have not been shown to migrate to warm waters to spawn. Therefore, it seems that *A. fallai* is the only tuna to have broken its ancestral link to warm waters for reproduction.

This study documents RM heat conservation for *A. fallai* and thus strengthens the phylogenetic hypotheses that align *Allothunnus* with the other tunas by identifying an additional character state that can be uniformly used to describe the Thunnini. Although structural differences are present between *A. fallai* and the other tunas in both the RM heat exchange system (reliance solely upon a central circulation) and the cranial heat production and retention mechanisms, the extent to which *A. fallai* elevates both $T_{\rm RM}$ and cranium temperature ($T_{\rm Cranium}$) is comparable to that of the other members of the Thunnini. This study further adds to the understanding of the evolution of regional heat conservation in tunas and also raises new questions concerning the adaptive significance of this specialization.

This work was supported by the Tuna Endowment Fund and the Scripps Institution of Oceanography Graduate Department. Partial salary support for C.A.S. was provided by T. Pfleger and the Pfleger Institute of Environmental Research. We also extend our gratitude to the entire Pfleger Family. Special thanks are owed to D. Lewis and the William H. and Mattie Wattis Harris Foundation for their continued support, C. Angus, M. Muir and the members of the Port Chalmers sport fishing club, Dunedin, New Zealand, for their help in finding the elusive slender tuna. Thermal data for bigeye tuna were collected aboard the F. V. *Her Grace* with the help of B. Blocker and colleagues D. Fuller and K. Schaefer. We also thank D. Clement, M. Martinez, W. Todd, L. and S. Gulik for their logistical support while in New Zealand. We also thank W. Dickson and B. Dickson and the entire staff of the Portobello Marine Laboratory, University of Otago, New Zealand. J. Donley was also crucial to the success and completion of this project. We also thank N. Wegner, S. Aalbers, C. Perry, T. Fullam, V. Wintrode, D. Darling, and H. J. Walker and C. Klepadlo of the Scripps Institution of Oceanography Vertebrate Collection. R. Rosenblatt, R. Shadwick, P. Hastings and F. Powell provided helpful comments on previous versions of this manuscript.

References

- Altringham, J. D. & Block, B. A. (1997). Why do tuna maintain elevated slow muscle temperatures? Power output of muscle isolated from endothermic and ectothermic fish. *Journal of Experimental Biology* 200, 2617–2627.
- Barrett, I. & Hester, F. J. (1964). Body temperature of yellowfin and skipjack tunas in relation to sea surface temperature. *Nature* **203**, 96–97.
- Block, B. A. & Finnerty, J. R. (1994). Endothermy in fishes: a phylogenetic analysis of constraints, predispositions, and selection pressures. *Environmental Biology of Fishes* 40, 283–302.

- Block, B. A., Finnerty, J. R., Stewart, A. F. R. & Kidd, J. (1993). Evolution of endothermy in fish: mapping physiological traits on a molecular phylogeny. *Science* 260, 210–214.
- Brill, R. W., Dewar, H. & Graham, J. B. (1994). Basic concepts relevant to heat transfer in fishes, and their use in measuring the physiological thermoregulatory abilities of tunas. *Environmental Biology of Fishes* 40, 109–124.
- Carey, F. G. & Lawson, K. D. (1973). Temperature regulation in free-swimming bluefin tuna. Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology A 44, 375–392.
- Carey, F. G. & Teal, J. M. (1966). Heat conservation in tuna fish muscle. *Proceedings of* the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America **56**, 1464–1469.
- Carey, F. G. & Teal, J. M. (1969). Regulation of body temperature by the bluefin tuna. *Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology* **28**, 205–213.
- Carey, F. G., Teal, J. M., Kanwisher, J. W. & Lawson, K. D. (1971). Warm bodied fish. American Zoologist 11, 135–145.
- Carey, F. G., Kanwisher, J. W. & Stevens, E. D. (1984). Bluefin tuna warm their viscera during digestion. *Journal of Experimental Biology* 109, 1–20.
- Carey, F. G., Casey, J. G., Pratt, H. L., Urquhart, D. & McCosker, J. E. (1985). Temperature, heat production and heat exchange in lamnid sharks. *Memoirs of the Southern California Academy of Sciences* 9, 92–108.
- Collette, B. B. (1978). Adaptations and systematics of the mackerels and tunas. In *The Physiological Ecology of Tunas* (Sharp, G. D. & Dizon, A. E., eds), pp. 7–39. New York: Academic Press.
- Collette, B. B. & Chao, L. N. (1975). Systematics and morphology of the bonitos (*Sarda*) and their relatives (Scombridae, Sardini). *Fisheries Bulletin* **73**, 516–625.
- Collette, B. B., Reeb, C. & Block, B. A. (2001). Systematics of the mackerels and tunas (Scombridae). In *Fish Physiology*, Vol. 19 (Block, B. A. & Stevens, E. D. , eds), pp. 1–33. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Cressey, R. F., Collette, B. B. & Russo, J. L. (1983). Copepods and scombrid fishes: a study in host-parasite relationships. *Fisheries Bulletin* **81**, 227–265.
- Dewar, H., Graham, J. B. & Brill, R. W. (1994). Studies of tropical tuna swimming performance in a large water tunnel. II. Thermoregulation. *Journal of Experimental Biology* 192, 33–44.
- Dickson, K. A. (1994). Tunas as small as 207 mm fork length can elevate muscle temperatures significantly above ambient water temperature. *Journal of Experimental Biology* **190**, 79–93.
- Dickson, K. A. & Graham, J. B. (2004). Evolution and consequences of endothermy in fishes. *Physiological & Biochemical Zoology* 77, 998–1018.
- Graham, J. B. & Dickson, K. A. (1981). Physiological thermoregulation in the albacore *Thunnus alalunga. Physiological Zoology* 54, 470–486.
- Graham, J. B. & Dickson, K. A. (2000). The evolution of thunniform locomotion and heat conservation in scombrid fishes: new insights based on the morphology of *Allothunnus fallai. Zoological Journal of the Linnaean Society* **129**, 419–466.
- Graham, J. B. & Dickson, K. A. (2004). Tuna comparative physiology. Journal of Experimental Biology 207, 4015–4024.
- Graham, J. B., Koehrn, F. J. & Dickson, K. A. (1983). Distribution and relative proportions of red muscle in scombrid fishes: consequences of body size and relationships to locomotion and endothermy. *Canadian Journal of Zoology* 61, 2087–2096.
- Holland, K. N., Brill, R. W., Chang, R. K. C., Sibert, J. R. & Fournier, D. A. (1992). Physiological and behavioral thermoregulation in bigeye tuna (*Thunnus obesus*). *Nature* 358, 410–412.
- Kishinouye, K. (1923). Contributions to the study of the so-called scombroid fishes. Journal of the College of Agriculture, Imperial University of Tokyo 8, 293–475.
- Kitagawa, T., Nakata, H., Kimura, S. & Tsuji, S. (2001). Thermoconservation mechanisms inferred from peritoneal cavity temperature in free-swimming Pacific bluefin tuna *Thunnus thynnus orientalis*. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 220, 253–263.

- Kitagawa, T., Kimura, S., Nakata, H. & Yamada, H. (2006). Thermal adaptation of Pacific bluefin tuna, *Thunnus orientalis*, to temperate waters. *Fisheries Science* 72, 149–156.
- Kitagawa, T., Kimura, S., Nakata, H. & Yamada, H. (2007). Why do young Pacific bluefin tuna repeatedly dive to depths through the thermocline? *Fisheries Science* 73, 98–106.
- Linthicum, S. C. & Carey, F. G. (1972). Regulation of brain and eye temperatures by the bluefin tuna. *Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology A* **43**, 425–433.
- Marcinek, D. J., Blackwell, S. B., Dewar, H., Freund, E. V., Farwell, C., Dau, D., Seitz, A. C. & Block, B. A. (2001). Depth and muscle temperature of Pacific bluefin tuna examined with acoustic and pop-up satellite tags. *Marine Biology* **138**, 869–885.
- Musyl, M., Brill, R. W., Boggs, C. H., Curran, D. S., Kazama, T. K. & Seki, M. P. (2003). Vertical movements of bigeye tuna (*Thunnus obesus*) associated with islands, buoys, and seamounts near the main Hawaiian Islands from archival tagging data. *Fisheries Oceanography* 12, 152–169.
- Nakamura, I. & Mori, K. (1966). Morphological study on the slender tuna Allothunnus fallai Serventy obtained from the Tasman Sea. Report of Nankai Regional Fisheries Research Laboratory 23, 67–83.
- Orrell, T. M., Collette, B. B. & Johnson, G. D. (2006). Molecular data support separate scombroid and xiphiod clades. *Bulletin of Marine Science* **79**, 505–519.
- Schaefer, K. M. (1985). Body temperatures in troll caught frigate tuna, Auxis thazard. Copeia 1985, 231–233.
- Sepulveda, C. A., Dickson, K. A. & Graham, J. B. (2007). Cranial endothermy and a putative brain heater in the most basal tuna species, *Allothunnus fallai*. *Journal of Fish Biology* **70**, 1720–1733. doi: 10.1111/j.1095-8649.2007.01446.x
- Serventy, D. L. (1948). Allothunnus fallai, a new genus and species of tuna from New Zealand. Records of the Canterbury Museum of New Zealand 5, 131–135.
- Stevens, E. D. & Fry, F. E. (1971). Brain and muscle temperatures in ocean caught and captive skipjack tuna. *Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology A* 38, 203–211.
- Stevens, E. D. & Neill, W. H. (1978). Body temperature relations of tunas, especially skipjack. In *Fish Physiology*, Vol. 6 (Hoar, W. S. & Randall, D. J., eds), pp. 315– 359. New York: Academic Press.
- Stevens, E. D., Kanwisher, J. W. & Carey, F. G. (2000). Muscle temperature in freeswimming giant Atlantic bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*). Journal of Thermal Biology 25, 419–423.
- Syme, D. A. & Shadwick, R. E. (2002). Effects of longitudinal body position and swimming speed on mechanical power of deep red muscle from skipjack tuna (Katsuwonus pelamis). Journal of Experimental Biology 205, 189–200.
- Teo, S. L. H., Boustany, A., Dewar, H., Stokesbury, M. J. W., Weng, K. C., Beemer, S., Seitz, A. C., Farwell, C. J., Prince, E. D. & Block, B. A. (2007). Annual migrations, diving behavior, and thermal biology of Atlantic bluefin tuna, *Thunnus thynnus*, on their Gulf of Mexico breeding grounds. *Marine Biology* 151, 1–18.
- Watanabe, H., Yukinawa, M., Nakazawa, S. & Ueyanagi, S. (1966). On the larvae probably referable to slender tuna, *Allothunnus fallai*, Serventy. *Report of Nankai Regional Fisheries Research Laboratory* 23, 85–93.
- Yatsu, A. (1995). The role of slender tuna, *Allothunnus fallai*, in the pelagic ecosystem of the South Pacific Ocean. *Japanese Journal of Ichthyology* **4**, 367–377.