1 2	The effects of preformed vitamin A and provitamin A carotenoid supplementation on tadpoles of the poison frog <i>Phyllobates vittatus</i>
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38 39

40 Abstract

41

42 Understanding the nutritional requirements of captive animals is necessary for proper 43 animal husbandry, however, the specific dietary requirements for many amphibian species commonly kept in captivity are unknown. Like most vertebrates, frogs cannot synthesize 44 carotenoids or vitamin A, and must therefore obtain these essential nutrients through diet. It is 45 unclear if amphibians can cleave provitamin A carotenoids to form vitamin A metabolically 46 47 within the body, so common practice is to supplement their captive diets with both preformed vitamin A and provitamin A carotenoids. We carried out a feeding experiment in tadpoles of 48 49 *Phyllobates vittatus*, a commonly kept poison frog species, to test the effects of supplementing a fish flake diet with a provitamin A carotenoid (2.5mg/g β -carotene) and vitamin A (0.5 mg/g 50 51 retinyl acetate), both individually and in combination. Contrary to our expectations, 52 supplementation had either no effect or adverse effects on tadpole growth and survivorship. 53 Tadpoles reared under supplemented diets showed higher mortality rates, coupled with symptoms of hypervitaminosis A. Survivors had a smaller body size and mass at metamorphosis. 54 The vitamin A and β -carotene levels in our supplemented diet have been shown to benefit 55 tadpoles of other species, yet our results indicate that adding these amounts to what is found in a 56 generalist fish flake mix (5.466 μ g/g and 1.88 μ g/g, respectively) beyond can have detrimental 57 effects on P. vittatus tadpoles. More broadly, this study highlights the importance of creating 58 59 husbandry guidelines based on the specific physiological needs of the species (or species groups) being kept in captivity, rather than general ones for all amphibians, as is often done. 60 61 62 63 64 Introduction 65

The effects of preformed vitamin A and provitamin A carotenoid supplementation on

tadpoles of the poison frog *Phyllobates vittatus*

66 As wild populations of a considerable number of amphibian species decline (Campbell et al., 2020), captive populations of some of them are increasing. This is due to both their 67 68 increasing popularity in the pet trade and captive breeding programs (Edmonds, 2021; Tapley et 69 al., 2015). Proper husbandry is required for all captive animals to ensure that their physiological 70 needs are met. An important aspect of proper husbandry is animal nutrition. However, the 71 nutritional requirements of most amphibians are unknown (Tapley et al., 2015). Breeders of 72 captive frogs are aware that feeder insects, like Drosophila species, do not contain all of the 73 nutrients that amphibians require and, thus, enhance diets with commercially available 74 supplements. Despite the wide variety of products available for amphibian diet supplementation, 75 there is very little research to inform their use in particular species. 76 Carotenoids are powerful antioxidants that quench and stabilize reactive oxygen species

produced during periods of growth and development (Goodwin, 1984; Keogh et al., 2018;

78 McInerney et al. 2019). This limits the damage that reactive oxygen species cause to cells, which 79 is believed to result in increased cell division and differentiation (Keogh et al., 2018; McInerney et al. 2019). In amphibians, antioxidants are especially important during the larval stage and 80 81 metamorphic climax because this is when the production of reactive oxygen species is greatest (Keogh et al., 2018; McInerney et al. 2019). Furthermore, carotenoids and their metabolism are 82 83 involved in coloration in a variety of species across the tree of life (Goodwin, 1984; Toews et al. 2017). Since frogs, like most animals, are unable to produce carotenoids, they must be obtained 84 exclusively through their diet (Densmore and Green 2007; Keogh et al., 2018; McInerney et al. 85 2019). It is therefore common practice amongst frog breeders to add carotenoid supplements to 86 the captive diets of most species. However, breeders must be careful not to over supplement with 87 88 carotenoids as they can have negative effects when given in excess (Keogh et al., 2018; Palozza 89 et al. 2003). For instance, one of the most commonly used carotenoids, β-carotene, can be toxic at high concentrations and has been found to have a pro-oxidant effect that can cause a reduced 90 growth rate (Keogh et al., 2018; Palozza et al. 2003). 91

92

93 For many animals, carotenoids also act as vitamin A precursors (Brenes-Soto and Dierenfeld, 2014; Clugston and Blaner, 2014). This means that provitamin A carotenoids can be 94 cleaved to form vitamin A metabolically within the body. Whether this is the case for 95 amphibians remains unclear. The few studies that have addressed the problem in vivo have not 96 97 found evidence for conversion of specific carotenoids to vitamin A (McComb 2010; Collins et 98 al., 1952; Wright, 2006), although there is evidence that at least some species may be able to perform this conversion (Baruah and Goswami 2012, Brenes-Soto and Dierenfeld 2014). 99 Vitamin A plays important roles in gene expression, vision, limb regeneration and embryonic 100 development (McInerney et al. 2019; Clugston and Blaner 2014), and in frogs its deficiency has 101 been linked to squamous metaplasia of the mouth, which is commonly referred to as "short 102 tongue syndrome" (Clugston and Blaner 2014). Frogs affected by short tongue syndrome have 103 difficulty catching prey, resulting in lethargy, weight loss, and eventually death if untreated 104 (Clugston and Blaner 2014). To prevent hypovitaminosis A, a common practice amongst 105

106 breeders today is to co-supplement with carotenoids and preformed vitamin A.

107

108 Nevertheless, since vitamin A is fat-soluble, excessive intake poses a risk for toxicity 109 (Densmore and Green 2007). Hypervitaminosis A has been recorded in African clawed frogs 110 (Xenopus laevis) at different stages of their life cycle (Clugston and Blaner 2014). This condition 111 causes weight loss and negatively affects the skin and liver of adult frogs (Pessier 2013), and has 112 been reported to cause abnormal development in tadpoles, with notable observations of 113 hyperpigmented, hemorrhagic skin and chronic diarrhea (Weissmann 1961; Weissman et al. 114 1963). Proper dosages of preformed vitamin A have not been determined for most species, even 115 if under or over-supplementation can lead to hypovitaminosis A or hypervitaminosis A, both of 116 which can be life threatening if untreated (Clugston and Blaner 2014).

118 With the goal of improving husbandry practices of captive amphibians, this study investigated the effects of supplementing feed with β -carotene (a commonly used provitamin A 119 120 carotenoid), vitamin A, and their combination on tadpoles of the poison-dart frog *Phyllobates* 121 vittatus, a species commonly kept in captivity. Through observation and measurement of 122 tadpoles during development, we evaluated the effect of the above supplementation regimes on tadpole survivorship, growth rates, final size at metamorphosis, and time to metamorphosis. Our 123 124 results provide somewhat unexpected initial insights into the dietary carotenoid requirements of *Phyllobates* poison-dart frog tadpoles, and highlight the need for further species-specific research 125 126 on the diets of captive amphibians.

127 Methods

128 Study Species

129 *P. vittatus* is a diurnal, terrestrial species that is endemic to the Golfo Dulce Region of 130 Costa Rica, where it can be found in lowland moist and wet forests. Adults range in size from 131 22.5mm to 31mm, with females being larger than the males. P. vittatus is black with a broad 132 gold, red-orange, or orange dorsolateral stripe that runs continuously from the dorsal base of 133 each thigh to the tip of the snout, and blue-green speckling on its limbs. Their diet is made up of 134 a variety of small arthropods. Females will lay clutches of 7-21 eggs every two to three weeks. The male cares for the eggs by providing them with moisture, and once the eggs hatch, males 135 will transport the tadpoles to a pool of water (Silverstone 1976), where they likely maintain an 136 137 omnivorous diet (Grant et al. 2006). Although this has not been studied in *P. vittatus*, predatory behaviors, including tadpole cannibalism, have been observed in multiple closely related species 138 139 (Caldwell and de Araujo 1998, Márquez *in review*). Tadpoles are uniformly dark brown on the dorsal side, and are lighter brown ventrally, and gradually develop orange dorsolateral stripes, 140 141 starting around Gosner stage 37 (Gosner 1960). Metamorphosis occurs approximately ten weeks after hatching (Savage 2002; Paitz and Dugas 2021, R. Márquez pers. obs. R. Arkin pers. obs.). 142

143 Experimental Animals

144 A total of 35 *P. vittatus* eggs, from 6 different clutches, were collected from a single 145 captive colony of 7 adults (4M, 3F) maintained at the University of Michigan. Adults are fed Drosophila hydei and D. melanogaster fruit flies three times a week, supplemented with 146 Repashy Calcium Plus, Rep-Cal Herptivite multivitamin, and Rep-Cal Calcium with Vitamin D 147 (one supplement per feeding). All eggs were laid between 1/20/22 and 2/11/22. They were 148 149 removed from the terrarium and reared in petri dishes until hatching. Thirteen eggs from 2 150 clutches had been de-jellied shortly after laying. We found no differences between these and 151 other eggs in any of the measured parameters (Table S1). All eggs hatched within the time frame typical of our lab colony (mean 16.4 days, s.d. 2.65, range 14-23 days). One tadpole died within

153 2 days of hatching and before ever being fed, so it was removed from the study.

154 Experimental diets

All four diets were composed of of 99.7% ground fish flakes (75:25 mixture of 155 SeraFlora/SeraSans; SERA, Germany), which was previously analyzed for nutrient content 156 (Byrne and Silla, 2017), and contributes 0.01454 mg g⁻¹ total carotenoids and 0.00188 mg g⁻¹ 157 preformed vitamin A The remaining 0.03% varied between four treatments as follows: Diet 1 158 (control) was unsupplemented. Diet 2 was supplemented with 2.5mg g⁻¹ β -carotene (Sigma 159 Aldrich, Cat. No. C9750), Diet 3 was supplemented with 0.5 mg g⁻¹ vitamin A acetate (i.e. retinyl 160 acetate; Sigma-Aldrich Cat. No. R4632), and Diet 4 was supplemented with 2.5mg g⁻¹ β-carotene 161 and 0.5 mg g⁻¹ vitamin A. Cellulose powder (Sigma Aldrich Cat. No. 435236), which is odorless 162 and has been found to have no impact on the growth, survivorship, or development of tadpoles 163 (Keogh et al., 2018; Dias et al., 1998; Deng et al., 2006), was added to treatments 1, 2, and 3 to 164 165 ensure that all experimental diets contained the same amount of feed. Table 1 shows the total amounts of carotenoids and vitamin A in each diet treatment, and Table S2 summarizes the 166 167 recipes used in each diet. β -carotene was selected as the provitamin A carotenoid due to its 168 commercial availability and presence in popular supplements. Retinyl acetate was chosen because it is the form of vitamin A commonly found in commercial vitamin A supplements for 169 both animals and humans (e.g. Repashy vitamin A plus). All diet mixes were suspended to a 1:10 170 171 ratio in deionized H₂O, wrapped in aluminum foil and mixed on a rocker for 48 hr at room 172 temperature. Once mixed, diets were loaded onto 3ml syringes, wrapped in foil, and stored at 0 to -4°C until used. 173

174 Feeding experiment

175 After hatching, individuals were randomly assigned to one of four treatments, and housed in individual 230 ml plastic cups filled with approximately 150ml of reverse-osmosis (RO) 176 177 water. They were fed triweekly: Monday, Wednesday, and Friday. Before each feeding, syringes 178 were thawed and the feed was homogenized using a blunt tip needle. Tadpoles received 2 drops 179 of food (~0.1 ml) for the first month. After that time, individuals received 4 drops of feed (~0.2 180 ml). Tadpoles were photographed using a Canon EOS R6 camera with a Canon RF24-105mm F4 L IS USM lens after each feeding. The body (from tip of snout to base of tail) and tail length of 181 182 each individual were measured using image analysis software (ImageJ, version 1.53; Schneider 183 et al. 2012). Feeding and photographing stopped once tadpoles began the metamorphic climax at_ Gosner's stage 42, as evidenced by the emergence of forelimbs (Gosner, 1960). Once both arms 184

- 185 emerged, tadpoles were moved to a tilted 1L cup with ~75ml of new RO water to facilitate
- 186 leaving the water. Once out of the water, froglets were moved to plastic containers (10 cm x 20
- 187 cm x 10 cm) lined with sphagnum moss and dried magnolia leaves. Froglets were monitored
- 188 every two days until they reached Gosner's stage 46, marked by the full absorption of their tail
- 189 (Gosner, 1960). At that time, individuals were photographed (NIKON D5100 camera with an AF
- 190 Micro-Nikkor 60mm f/2.8D lens) and their body length and weight were recorded. Two tadpoles
- 191 had not yet developed arms after 81 days, so they were put into new 230 ml plastic cups and a
- 192 partial water change was performed. This was done to clear the algae buildup that made it
- 193 difficult to observe and photograph the tadpole.

194 Statistical analyses

195 To compare mortality over time between treatments, we computed survival curves using the

196 Kaplan-Meier method (Kaplan & Meier 1958) and tested for differences between survival curves

197 using the chi-squared approach described by Harrington & Fleming (1982). Survival curves were

- 198 fitted using the survfit() function and comparisons were made using the survdiff() function, both
- 199 implemented in the R package survival (Therneau 2022).

200 We then evaluated the effect of diet treatment of tadpole growth as a function of age by fitting

201 logistic curves to each tadpole's growth trajectory and comparing the best-fitting growth rate and

202 maximum size parameters between treatments. The logistic equation was used in the following

203 form:

204
$$S_t = \frac{M}{1 + \left(\frac{M - m}{m}\right)e^{-rt}}$$

205 where S_t is the size at a given age, M is the maximum size asymptote, m is the minimum size asymptote, r is the growth rate, and t is the age. Growth curves were fit to each individual using 206 207 non-linear least squares as implemented in the function nlsLM() of the minpack.lm R package 208 (Elzhov et al. 2022). We tested for differences in maximum size and growth parameter estimates 209 between treatments using bi-variate anovas with treatment and whether tadpoles survived to 210 metamorphosis as fixed factors. To further explore differences between treatments and survivorship categories, we conducted post-hoc Tukey-Kramer tests. Finally, we tested for 211 212 between-treatment differences in our empirical measurements of size, weight and age at 213 metamorphosis also using anovas and Tukey-Kramer tests. The data and code used for all 214 analyses and visualizations are available on the dryad repository associated with this paper.

215 Results

216 *Effects of diet on survivorship*

Overall, 82.35% (28/34) of tadpoles survived to complete metamorphosis. Tadpoles that 217 218 were fed diets supplemented with vitamin A (i.e. diets 3 and 4) had higher mortality rates, 219 especially the treatment group that was supplemented with both vitamin A and β -carotene (i.e. 220 Diet 4), which showed a clear excess of observed deaths relative to the expectation under the Kaplan-Meier model ($\chi^2 = 9.67$, df = 3, p = 0.02; Fig 1A-B). Remarkably, tadpoles that died in 221 the treatment groups supplemented with vitamin A (1 in treatment 3, 4 in treatment 4), were 222 223 observed to have skin and gastrointestinal symptoms (persistent diarrhea) that reflect what was 224 described in X. laevis tadpoles with hypervitaminosis A (Fig 1C; Weissmann 1961; Weissman et 225 al. 1963).

226 *Effects of diet on growth*

227 All of the tested tadpoles displayed growth trajectories characterized by initial rapid growth that gradually slows down towards metamorphosis (Fig. 2A, S1). We found significant 228 effects of treatment, survivorship, and their interaction on both maximum body size (Fig. 2B; 229 230 treatment: $F_{3,27} = 32.5$, p = 4.2e-9; survivorship: $F_{1,27} = 171.3$, p = 3.3e-13; treatment × survivorship: $F_{2,27} = 16.9$, p = 1.7e-5) and growth rate (Fig. 2C; treatment: $F_{3,27} = 15.9$, p = 3.7e-5) 231 6; survivorship: $F_{1,27} = 67.4$, p = 8.2e-9; treatment × survivorship: $F_{2,27} = 12.4$, p = 1.5e-4). 232 233 However, most of the signal in these tests is due to the tadpoles that did not survive to metamorphosis, most of which displayed faster initial growth spurts but stopped growing soon 234 235 after, at considerably smaller sizes, where they remained for several days before dying (Fig. 2A-236 C; Fig. S1). The only significant post-hoc comparisons were either between non-surviving tadpoles of different diet treatments, or between surviving and non-surviving tadpoles, both 237 238 between and within treatments (Table 2).

239 Among the tadpoles that survived to metamorphosis, diet treatment had moderate effects on body length ($F_{3,24}$ = 3.41, p = 0.034) and body mass ($F_{3,24}$ = 2.68, p= 0.069) at metamorphosis, 240 241 but not on age at metamorphosis ($F_{3,24} = 1.06$, p = 0.38;)Fig 2D-F). Individuals fed the control 242 diet (Diet 1) were on average the largest and heaviest at metamorphosis, while those 243 supplemented with just vitamin A (Diet 3) were smaller and weighed less than those in other treatments. Individuals supplemented with β-carotene (Diet 2) and β-carotene combined with 244 245 vitamin A (Diet 4) were found to have intermediate sizes and weights (Fig 2D-E). However, the 246 only statistically significant pairwise comparisons in both metamorphic size and weight were

between the vitamin A and control treatments (Diet 3 vs. Diet 1; Table 3), possibly due to ourmoderate sample sizes.

249

250 Discussion

Our goal in this study was to examine the effects of supplementing the diets of P. vittatus 251 252 tadpoles with additional carotenoids (β -carotene) and preformed vitamin A. This practice is commonly carried out by captive amphibian owners and caretakers, but the safety, benefits, and 253 254 appropriate dosages of these supplements have only been studied in a limited number of species. 255 The results of our feeding experiment suggest that, at least in the case of *P. vittatus*, supplementing with additional β -carotene and/or vitamin A than what is found in our base fish 256 257 flake feed (5.466 μ g/g β -carotene and 0.00188 mg/g preformed vitamin A, respectively) does not 258 provide any benefits, and can have detrimental effects in terms of tadpole mortality, and 259 probably also on pre-metamorphic growth.

The most severe negative effects were observed in the tadpoles fed Diet 4, which 260 contained both supplemental β-carotene and vitamin A. This treatment resulted in a significantly 261 262 lower survival rate than the other tested diets, and the affected individuals displayed clearly 263 different growth trajectories, as well as symptoms reminiscent of descriptions of 264 hypervitaminosis A in tadpoles of other frog species (Fig 1C; Weissmann 1961; Weissman et al. 265 1963), suggesting that these tadpoles died due to a diet-associated disease, most likely hypervitaminosis A. The same was true for the single tadpole that died under Diet 3 (only 266 267 vitamin A supplement). The fact that tadpoles supplemented with only vitamin A were much less 268 likely to die or show symptoms than those supplemented with both β -carotene and vitamin A could be due to some of the β -carotene being converted endogenously to vitamin A. While it is 269 270 commonly assumed that amphibians are not capable of cleaving provitamin A carotenoids to 271 form vitamin A, there is evidence that suggests that at least some species can do so (Brenes-Soto 272 and Dierenfeld 2014, Baruah and Goswami 2012). For instance, false tomato frogs (Dyscophus 273 guineti)supplemented with a mixture of carotenoids showed increased vitamin A plasma levels, 274 indicating they are likely able to convert carotenoids to vitamin A (Brenes-Soto and Dierenfeld 275 2014). In vitro experiments on the β -carotene metabolism of Asian common toad (*Duttaphrvnus* melanostictus) and Indian bullfrog (Haplobatrachus tigerinus) tadpoles also suggest that they are 276 277 able to convert β-carotene to vitamin A (Baruah and Goswami 2012). However, it is unknown if 278 this is the case for *P. vittatus* tadpoles, so further research is necessary to isolate the 279 physiological causes of this result. In the end, if a species is able to convert carotenoids into

vitamin A, then proper carotenoid supplementation could eliminate the need for additional
preformed vitamin A supplements, highlighting the importance of species-specific research for
husbandry practices.

283 We based the composition of the experimental diets on previous work with other (distantly related) frog species (e.g. Pseudophryne corroboree, Byrne and Silla 2017; Keogh et 284 285 al. 2018; Weissmann 1961; Weissman et al. 1963), in an attempt to avoid over supplementation . 286 Yet, it seems clear that tadpoles in this study did experience adverse effects associated with over 287 supplementation. This highlights the importance of knowledge on the biology of focal species for 288 adequate captive breeding. The lack of research on the nutritional requirements of most 289 amphibian species kept in captivity (or their close relatives) is concerning, considering the 290 increasing number of species kept in the pet trade, in zoos, and in ex-situ conservation efforts. Understanding the nutritional requirements of captive amphibians is especially important for 291 292 endangered species since adequate husbandry is the keystone of captive breeding programs. 293 Implementing the proper diet with proper levels of supplementation leads to larger, healthier, 294 more genetically diverse populations for release, which is essential for reintroduction success 295 (McInerney et al. 2019).

296 More generally, our findings highlight that the dietary requirements of frogs vary between species. This is not surprising considering the clade made up by anurans shared a 297 common ancestor approximately 221.8 million years ago (Kumar et al. 2022). Despite their 298 299 degree of evolutionary divergence, it is common for all frog species to be grouped as a single 300 category in husbandry contexts, which leads to and this belief is reflected by assumed similarities 301 in husbandry practices, which may be unwarranted. This frame of thinking is not usually applied 302 to more "mainstream" species kept in captivity. For instance cats (Felis catus) and dogs (Canis 303 *lupus familiaris*), for which clearly distinct husbandry practices are in place, diverged 304 approximately 55 million years ago (Kumar et al. 2022). In contrast, dendrobatids and 305 mantellids, two families of frogs commonly kept in captivity, diverged approximately 150 306 million years ago (Kumar et al. 2022) but are assumed to have very similar dietary and other 307 husbandry needs. Considering the phylogenetic diversity of amphibians there is a clear need for 308 further research to establish adequate husbandry and veterinary guidelines and practices that 309 reflect the specific needs of each species (or at least taxonomic group). This information can 310 improve the success of ex-situ conservation efforts, as well as the health of amphibians kept as pets, in zoos, and in laboratories. Our study is a step in this direction for *Phyllobates* poison-dart 311 312 frogs, and possibly other dendrobatid frogs kept in captivity.

314 Author Contributions

- 315 RA and RM conceived and designed the study. RA obtained the data. RA and RM analyzed the
- 316 data. RA wrote the manuscript with contributions from RM. RM obtained funding. Both authors
- 317 read and approved the manuscript.

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- 321 Evolutionary Biology at the University of Michigan.

322 Tables

- 323 Table 1. Total carotenoid, β-carotene, and Vitamin A contents of the four tested diets. Baseline contents
- 324 were obtained from Byrne and Silla's (2017) liquid chromatography analyses of the same commercially-
- available feeds used for the control diet (i.e. Diet 1).

	Total Carotenoids	β-carotene	Vitamin A
Treatment 1	0.01454 mg/g	0.005466 mg/g	0.00188 mg/g
Treatment 2	2.51454 mg/g	2.505466 mg/g	0.00188 mg/g
Treatment 3	0.01454 mg/g	0.005466 mg/g	0.50188 mg/g
Treatment 4	2.51454 mg/g	2.505466 mg/g	0.50188 mg/g

326

- 328 Table 2. Pairwise comparisons between diet treatments and survivorship categories in growth curve
- 329 parameters obtained through a Tukey-Kramer post-hoc test. Maximum size and growth rate comparisons
- 330 correspond to panels B and C of Figure 2, respectively.

	1	Maximum	size (mm)			Growth	Rate	
Comparison	Difference	Lower 2.5%	Upper 97.5%	p-value	Difference	Lower 2.5%	Upper 97.5%	p-value
D2 Surv. – D1 Surv	-0.03	-0.68	0.62	1.00	0.01	-0.04	0.06	1.00
D3 Surv. – D1 Surv	-0.37	-1.03	0.28	0.58	0.01	-0.04	0.06	1.00
D4 Surv. – D1 Surv	-0.12	-0.86	0.62	1.00	0.01	-0.05	0.06	1.00
D3 Surv. – D2 Surv	-0.34	-0.98	0.29	0.64	0.00	-0.05	0.04	1.00
D4 Surv. – D2 Surv	-0.09	-0.81	0.63	1.00	0.00	-0.06	0.05	1.00
D4 Surv. – D3 Surv	0.26	-0.46	0.98	0.93	0.00	-0.05	0.05	1.00
D3 Died – D1 Died	-1.84	-3.63	-0.05	0.04	0.05	-0.08	0.18	0.86
D4 Died – D1 Died	-2.89	-4.31	-1.48	8.34e-6	0.17	0.06	0.27	3.20e-4
D4 Died – D3 Died	-1.05	-2.47	0.36	0.26	0.11	0.01	0.21	0.026
D1 Surv. – D1 Died	0.65	-0.70	2.00	0.76	-0.02	-0.11	0.08	1.00
D2 Surv. – D1 Died	0.62	-0.72	1.96	0.79	-0.01	-0.10	0.09	1.00
D3 Surv. – D1 Died	0.28	-1.06	1.62	1.00	-0.01	-0.10	0.09	1.00
D4 Surv. – D1 Died	0.54	-0.85	1.92	0.90	-0.01	-0.11	0.09	1.00
D1 Surv. – D3 Died	2.49	1.14	3.85	4.56e-5	-0.07	-0.17	0.03	0.31
D2 Surv. – D3 Died	2.46	1.12	3.81	4.87e-5	-0.06	-0.16	0.04	0.49

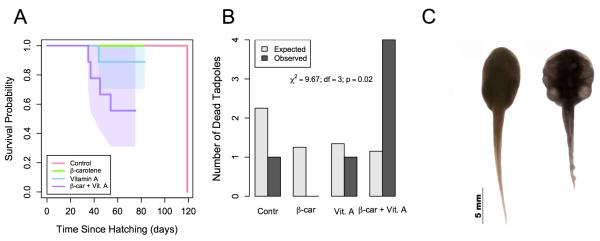
D3 Surv. – D3 Died	2.12	0.78	3.46	4.36e-4	-0.06	-0.16	0.04	0.45
D4 Surv. – D3 Died	2.38	0.99	3.76	1.37e-4	-0.06	-0.17	0.04	0.44
D1 Surv. – D4 Died	3.55	2.75	4.34	5.89e-13	-0.18	-0.24	-0.12	1.89e-9
D2 Surv. – D4 Died	3.52	2.74	4.29	4.12e-13	-0.17	-0.23	-0.12	3.80e-9
D3 Surv. – D4 Died	3.17	2.40	3.95	4.86e-12	-0.17	-0.23	-0.12	2.99e-9
D4 Surv. – D4 Died	3.43	2.58	4.28	6.64e-12	-0.18	-0.24	-0.11	1.52e-8

332	Table 3. Pairwise comparisons between	diet treatments in size and	d weight of surviving tadpoles at
	1		

333 metamorphosis. Weight and length comparisons correspond to panels E and F of Figure 2, respectively.

	Weig	Weight at Metamorphosis (g)				ength at Met	amorphosis (mm)
	Difference	Lower 2.5%	Upper 97.5%	p-value	Difference	Lower 2.5%	Upper 97.5%	p-value
D2 – D1	0.00	-0.02	0.01	0.82	-0.10	-0.53	0.33	0.93
D3 – D1	-0.02	-0.03	0.0001	0.052	-0.45	-0.88	-0.02	0.038
D4 – D1	-0.01	-0.03	0.01	0.55	-0.32	-0.80	0.17	0.31
D3 – D2	-0.01	-0.03	0.005	0.24	-0.35	-0.77	0.06	0.11
D4 – D2	-0.004	-0.02	0.01	0.94	-0.22	-0.69	0.26	0.59
D4 – D3	0.01	-0.01	0.02	0.68	0.14	-0.34	0.61	0.86

336 Figures





339 survivorship curves for each of the four treatments. Translucent polygons represent 95% confidence

340 intervals. B) Observed and expected mortality by treatment under a KM model with equal survivorship by

across treatments. C) Examples of a healthy tadpole (left), and one exhibiting the symptoms associated

342 with A hypervitaminosis (right). Photos were taken around Gosner stage 30, 24 days after eclosion.

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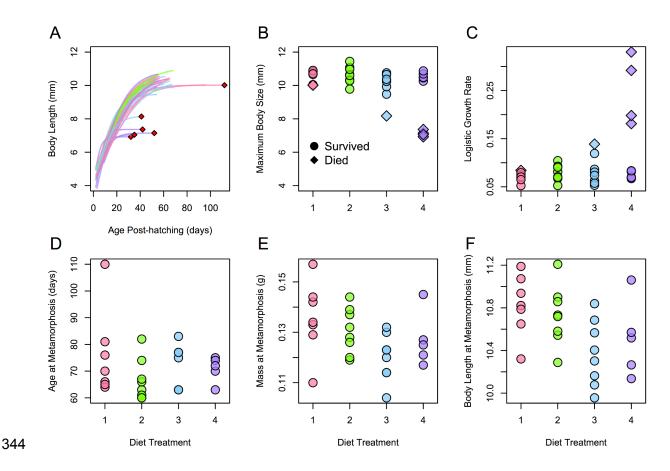


Figure 2. The effect of diet supplementation on tadpole growth. A) Best-fitting logistic growth curves for the 34tadpoles used in the experiment. Tadpoles that did not survive to metamorphosis are marked with a red diamond. B-

347 C) Best-fitting maximum size and growth rate parameters for the curves in panel A grouped by treatment and

348 survivorship status. D-F) Metamorphic age, mass, and body length of individuals that successfully survived past

349 metamorphosis, grouped by treatments. Colors in all figures match those in Figure 1.

351 Supplementary Materials

- 352 Table S1. Survivorship and growth parameters compared between tadpoles born from jellied and de-
- 353 jellied eggs. Mortality was compared using Fisher's exact test, and all other parameters were compared
- 354 using one-way anovas. OR = Odds Ratio.

355

Parameter	Test Statistic	df	p-value
Mortality	OR = 0.565	-	0.642
Maximum Size	F = 0.512	1, 32	0.479
Growth Rate	F = 1.699	1, 32	0.202
Time to Metamorphosis	F = 0.095	1, 26	0.760
Mass at Metamorphosis	F = 0.714	1, 26	0.406
Body Length at Metamorphosis	F = 0.664	1, 26	0.422

356

357 Table S2. Recipes for the four tested diets. The flake mix was a 75:25 by weight mixture of Sera Flora358 and Sera Sans fish flakes.

Prepared Diet					
	Flake Mix	β-carotene	Vitamin A	Cellulose	Total
Control (Diet 1)	3.988 g	0 mg	0 mg	12.0 mg	4 g
β-carotene (Diet 2)	3.988 g	10.0 mg	0 mg	2.0 mg	4 g
Vitamin A (Diet 3)	3.988 g	0 mg	2.0 mg	10 mg	4 g
β-carotene and Vitamin A (Diet 4)	3.988 g	10.0 mg	2.0 mg	0 mg	4 g

359

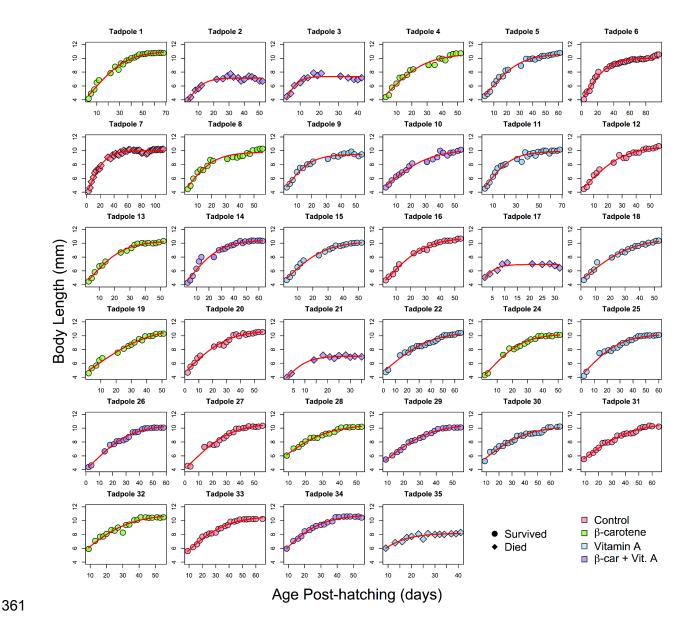


Figure S1. Individual growth trajectories for all tadpoles used in the study. Points represent rawmeasurements, and red lines are the best-fitting logistic growth curves for each individual.

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