

1 **Unraveling contaminant effects on biodiversity across scales: the macroecotoxicology**  
2 **perspective**

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12 **Keywords:** Anthropogenic impacts, Biodiversity patterns, Environmental stressors,  
13 Ecotoxicology, Macroecology

14 **Abstract**

15 With the spread of contaminants across the globe, ecosystems are increasingly exposed to  
16 pollutants at varying levels of biological organization. The effects of a wide range of contaminants  
17 on individuals have been extensively studied within the discipline of ecotoxicology, but  
18 understanding the generality of species' responses across taxa and ecosystems remains a major  
19 challenge. This is because such responses are shaped by eco-physiological, geographic, and  
20 evolutionary factors, dimensions that ecotoxicology has not been able to fully capture on its own.  
21 While these dimensions are frequently explored in macroecological studies, such research rarely  
22 considers environmental contamination as a variable capable of influencing species occurrence  
23 and distribution patterns. Here, we explore the potential of macroecotoxicology as a sub-discipline  
24 capable of integrating the core principles of both ecotoxicology and macroecology. By benefiting  
25 from recent advances in these disciplines, macroecotoxicological research would allow us to scale  
26 responses from individual organisms' sensitivity up to broader patterns of species distribution and  
27 ecosystem response, contributing to the development of predictive frameworks for biodiversity  
28 change in a rapidly transforming world.

29 **Introduction**

30 *"(...) the critical problem in ecotoxicology is one of scaling. How do effects on individuals become*  
31 *aggregated to populations and to species, and how much detail do we need to document species*  
32 *distributions? Until such issues can be addressed, the science of ecotoxicology will be unable to*  
33 *deal adequately with the preservation of our life-support systems."* - Simon Levin [1]

34 Among the main anthropogenic impacts, contamination is a key driver of biodiversity loss, with  
35 effects that are ongoing and intensifying [2–4]. In fact, the high concentrations of some  
36 contaminants in ecosystems have already exceeded the planetary boundary for chemical  
37 pollution [5], and their toxicity affects species' biology from single cell to ecosystem levels [6].  
38 Understanding the effect of contaminants on ecosystems is the holy grain of ecotoxicology (Box  
39 1). However, so far, ecotoxicology has focused on assessing chemical effects on individuals,  
40 primarily under laboratory conditions, and extrapolating these findings to (semi-)field conditions  
41 to estimate population-level effects with the help of models [7]. For many years, scaling up  
42 laboratory results to the landscape scale has been the main challenge of integrating ecotoxicology  
43 with other disciplines. Particularly, connecting ecotoxicology with macroecology, the discipline  
44 dedicated to understanding emerging biodiversity patterns across scales, is still hampered by  
45 technical and theoretical issues on how to associate species-level responses to contaminants  
46 with large-scale biological drivers. Fourteen years ago, acknowledging the need for scaling up  
47 contamination effects on species [8] called for the integration of both disciplines into a new  
48 subdiscipline called macroecotoxicology. While the idea was well received, the extent to which  
49 this subdiscipline has advanced remains limited. Here, we discuss the recent theoretical and  
50 methodological advances in both disciplines that will support the surge of macroecotoxicology  
51 and propose a framework and research directions to assess changes in global biodiversity  
52 patterns to contamination in a changing world.

53 Since the proposal of macroecotoxicology as a new subdiscipline, ecotoxicology has advanced  
54 in methods to extrapolate the sensitivity of untested species to different contaminants, to improve  
55 the link between exposure and effects on individuals and population endpoints, and in  
56 experimental knowledge and modelling tools that help extrapolate chemical effects to community  
57 and ecosystem levels, including impacts on biodiversity and ecosystem functions and services.  
58 These advances now enable the identification of species and biological traits most vulnerable to  
59 toxic pressure [9], as well as associated changes in biodiversity [10]. In turn, macroecology has  
60 seen advances in management and analysis of larger amounts of data, allowing it to test long-  
61 standing ecological questions across spatial and temporal scales [11]. Given these advances, we  
62 believe the time is ripe for macroecotoxicology to help identify emergent, large-scale patterns in  
63 ecological systems, particularly concerning species diversity, abundance, and geographic  
64 distribution [12]. We also advocate for the inclusion of contaminants in macroecological studies,  
65 as their ubiquitous presence in all ecosystems may change our view of biodiversity patterns [13].  
66 Many efforts to bridge the gap between the impact of contaminants and their widespread effects  
67 on biodiversity exist [14–19]. Yet, to increase our predictive power for detecting changes in  
68 species distributions caused by exposure to contaminants and for how contaminants can lead to  
69 biodiversity changes [20], we propose a framework for asking relevant questions and obtaining  
70 data to understand the effect of contaminants over species distributions and global biodiversity.

### 71 *Advances in Ecotoxicology*

72 During the last few years, new approaches based on artificial intelligence algorithms [21,22] (Box  
73 2) along with increased knowledge on taxonomic relatedness, biological traits, and novel chemical  
74 predictors have been capable of determining sensitivity endpoints (LC50, EC50 or NOECs) of a  
75 wide number of species and chemical combinations with limited biases [23–25]. These advances

76 have opened the possibility of evaluating the impact of complex contaminant mixtures in regions  
77 where theoretical ecosystem sensitivity is unknown. In this direction, current research aims to  
78 develop similar extrapolation models to calculate toxicokinetic parameters, enabling the  
79 assessment of chemical bioconcentration and individual effects under varying exposure  
80 conditions [26]. This would provide a refined link between dynamic exposure concentration  
81 profiles and biological responses across large-scale areas. Further, agent-based models are  
82 increasingly used in prospective ecological risk assessments to evaluate how populations  
83 respond to chemicals in heterogeneous environmental scenarios. These models integrate species'  
84 life-history traits and individual movement patterns to assess population dynamics under realistic,  
85 spatio-temporally dynamic exposure [26,27]. Advancements in computing power, coupled with  
86 large-scale models of contaminant fate and exposure, also allow quantifying the potential long-  
87 term impacts of pollutants on population and species dynamics at wider scales than those used  
88 traditionally by agent-based models [28], while generalized models can identify trait combinations  
89 that render species more vulnerable to chemical exposure across different environmental  
90 contexts [29].

91 Additionally, there has been a sharp increase in both field monitoring, encompassing biological  
92 responses and chemical stressors, and in micro- and mesocosm experiments that assess the  
93 impact of chemical exposure gradients on populations and communities [30]. Novel experimental  
94 methods allow organisms to move through heterogeneous, multicompartiment environments,  
95 moving beyond the forced chemical exposure to which they are subjected in standard toxicity  
96 tests [31,32]. This enables the direct quantification of avoidance, escaping, and movement  
97 behaviors under realistic exposure scenarios. Such data is essential for understanding how  
98 chemical barriers, such as polluted river stretches or point-source contamination hotspots (e.g.,  
99 wastewater effluent discharges), influence the spatial distribution of species, and can be  
100 integrated into landscape-scale evaluations [33,34].

101 Finally, omics studies have advanced ecotoxicology by using functional genomics to reveal novel  
102 molecular mechanisms, developing dose-dependent transcriptomics pipelines for high-  
103 throughput pathway-level testing, and applying eDNA metabarcoding to assess chemical effects  
104 on communities in mesocosms and the field [35,36]. These approaches not only improve  
105 laboratory relevance but also link ecological models to systems biology, offering a new paradigm  
106 for ecotoxicology that can consider chemical effects in heterogeneous exposure and ecological  
107 landscapes, which would allow an effective integration of macroecological principles.

## 108 *Advances in Macroecology*

109 From a methodological perspective, macroecology has improved its modeling toolkit for better  
110 understanding the effects and dynamics of both ecological and evolutionary processes on  
111 biodiversity patterns [11]. For instance, explicit consideration of spatial autocorrelation and  
112 phylogenetic effects as an intrinsic source of data structure has led to more appropriate statistical  
113 models, avoiding confounding factors. Moreover, thanks to the increasing computational  
114 capacities and data availability (e.g., geographic distributions and phylogenetic relationships for  
115 tens of thousands of species), it is now possible to apply null models that control the effect of  
116 different factors such as climatic gradients at large taxonomic and spatial scales and compare

117 them to observed patterns (McGill 2019). Importantly, more recent modelling approaches now  
118 allow the direct evaluation of hypothesized processes (e.g., selection, dispersal, diversification)  
119 on biodiversity patterns through mechanistic computer simulations [37,38]. These mechanistic  
120 simulation models provide a deeper understanding of the role of ecological and evolutionary  
121 drivers on macroecological patterns that can be applied to different taxa and across different  
122 spatial and temporal scales.

123 From a theoretical point of view, macroecology has broadened its focus from taxonomic diversity,  
124 namely species richness, to other dimensions of biodiversity such as phylogenetic and functional  
125 diversities representing the evolutionary history and trait variety, respectively, of species  
126 assemblages [39,40]. Additional dimensions such as ecological interactions [41] and behavior  
127 [42] are also being investigated under a macroecological perspective. All these diversity  
128 dimensions are considered complementary and thus important to robustly study and understand  
129 biodiversity patterns across scales. Along with the recognition of different dimensions of  
130 biodiversity, macroecology is now more explicitly “evolutionary” by considering phylogenetic data  
131 and methods and being fully integrated with macroevolution to comprehensively “answer  
132 fundamental questions about biodiversity” [43,44].

133 Notwithstanding the advances in macroecology, including the description and evaluation of  
134 biodiversity patterns for taxa beyond charismatic groups such as tetrapods [45], several  
135 knowledge shortfalls remain that hinder our understanding of both large scale patterns and  
136 underlying processes (Hortal et al. 2015). These shortfalls are mainly related to the lack of data  
137 on several aspects of species’ biology, ecology and evolution, with many recent efforts aiming at  
138 filling them [46]. However, other species’ aspects remain unknown and naming them can help not  
139 only to identify them but also to foster biodiversity monitoring and conservation in a rapidly  
140 changing world [47,48]. In this vein, here we propose a new biodiversity knowledge shortfall  
141 regarding the lack of data on species responses to contamination, which we label the Carlsonian  
142 shortfall in honor of Rachel Carlson (Box 3).

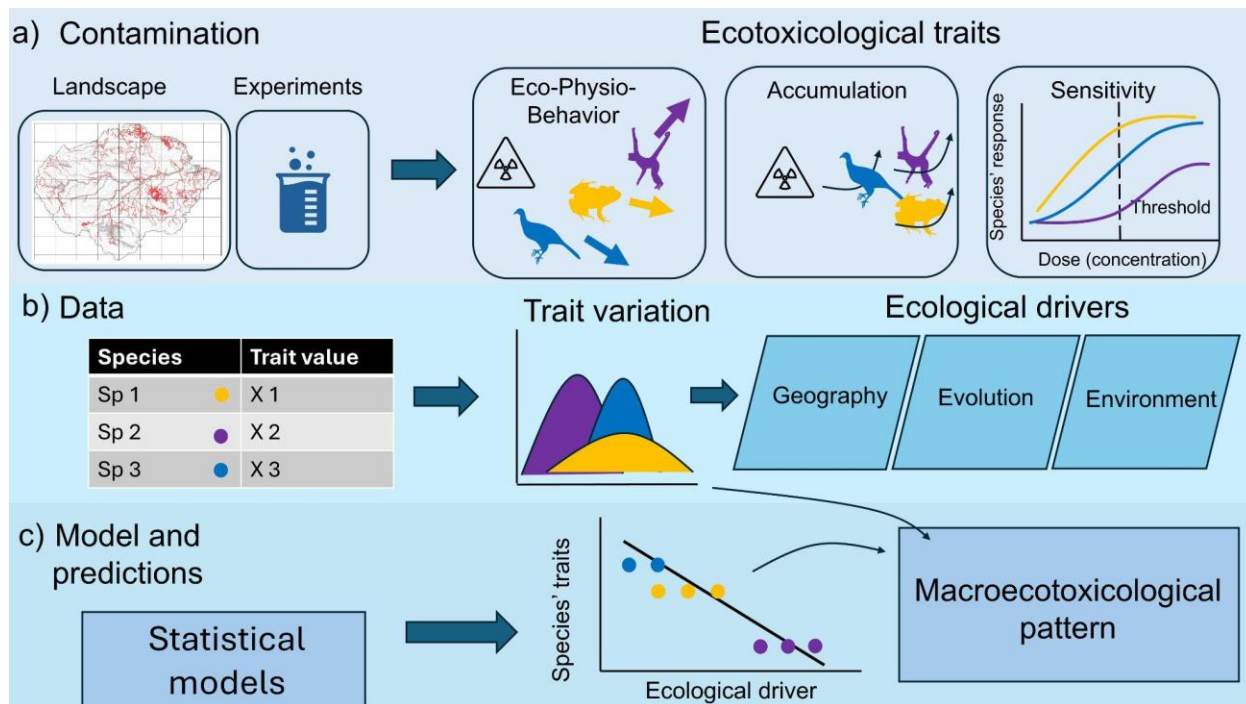
### 143 **How can macroecotoxicology help reveal global diversity patterns?**

144 We define macroecotoxicology as a new subdiscipline that integrates macroecology and  
145 ecotoxicology. Macroecotoxicology aims to investigate species’ responses to chemicals across  
146 broad geographic and taxonomic scales, trying to explain changes in species distribution and  
147 biodiversity patterns caused by widespread contaminants. Thus, identifying critical, unresolved  
148 questions concerning the effects of chemical contaminants on biodiversity patterns and providing  
149 powerful tools to address these questions.

150 Despite the growing availability of global data on chemical contamination, ecotoxicology and  
151 macroecology are unlikely to establish a comprehensive understanding of contaminant impacts if  
152 pursued independently [49,50]. True integration between these disciplines requires research  
153 questions to be formulated with an explicit acknowledgment of both ecological/evolutionary  
154 mechanisms and large-scale environmental patterns. Some of these questions may be built upon  
155 established hypotheses and theoretical frameworks from either discipline, while others should  
156 adopt a more exploratory approach, initially focusing on pattern description. From a broader

157 perspective, macroecotoxicological research should address issues of regional to global  
 158 significance, with a clear emphasis on conservation relevance. For example, global exposure data  
 159 for contaminants such as PFAS, pesticides, and metals can reveal patterns that govern  
 160 bioaccumulation and effects across latitudinal gradients and diverse ecological contexts [51].  
 161 Such questions must also consider how chemical contaminants can reshape biodiversity,  
 162 potentially altering existing patterns and processes.

163 Those questions should be elaborated centering on the responses of individual species to  
 164 chemical contaminants (Figure 1a), thereby establishing the species—analogue to its role in  
 165 macroecology—as the fundamental analytical unit [52]. Focusing on species-level attributes  
 166 enables integrating ecotoxicological responses (e.g., bioaccumulation, biomarker activity) with  
 167 biological characteristics (e.g., functional traits) that are inherently species-specific. This  
 168 perspective is grounded in the understanding that each species exhibits a unique combination of  
 169 ecological, geographical, and evolutionary attributes [53], which collectively determine its  
 170 susceptibility to chemical contamination.



171  
 172 Figure 1. Integrating ecotoxicological responses into a macroecological perspective. a)  
 173 Contamination can be mapped from the landscape or from laboratory experiments, from which  
 174 individual species' ecotoxicological responses (e.g. sensitivity) will be obtained. Those responses  
 175 are gathered into databases (b) and assigned to species-specific ecological drivers, whose  
 176 variation can already be used to map macroecotoxicological patterns. Prediction can be done  
 177 using statistical models (c) that control for sources of heterogeneity when modelling  
 178 macroecotoxicological patterns by using ecological drivers as predictors.

179 Macroecotoxicology should emphasize the use of ecotoxicological traits (e.g., bioaccumulation  
 180 capacity), while life-history traits can be incorporated to assess the likelihood of contaminants

181 affecting species from similar functional or phylogenetic groups, or to assess long-term  
182 vulnerability (i.e., capacity to avoid exposure and to recover from pulsed exposures) [51,54].  
183 Ecotoxicological traits should then be linked to species-specific biological traits (Figure 1b),  
184 creating new predictive opportunities for evaluating the geographical, evolutionary and ecological  
185 dimension of contaminant impacts on biodiversity patterns [13].

186 *Which are the ecotoxicological traits that can be used in macroecotoxicology?*

187 The presence of chemical contaminants in organism tissues and their surrounding environments  
188 serves as a clear indicator of exposure and potential ecological impact [55]. In contrast, species  
189 sensitivity to contaminants represents measurable biological responses to chemical stressors and  
190 we therefore proposed them as the primary response variables in macroecotoxicology (Figure  
191 1a). Other ecotoxicological endpoints—such as mortality, growth inhibition, or behavioral  
192 alterations—also provide valuable information on contaminant effects, although they are not  
193 considered biomarkers *sensu stricto* [56]. Within the macroecotoxicological framework, individual-  
194 level responses are aggregated at the species level, mirroring macroecology, where traits  
195 measured in individuals capture within-species variation but are ultimately summarized (e.g.,  
196 averaged) to the species level for large-scale assessments [40,57].

197 Chemical pollution affects growth, reproduction, behavior, and fitness, ultimately contributing to  
198 biodiversity shifts. Organisms respond through conserved molecular pathways collectively termed  
199 the “chemical defensome”, including efflux transporters, antioxidant systems, transcription  
200 factors, and biotransformation enzymes [34]. Although many components of the defensome are  
201 evolutionarily conserved, their expression and effectiveness vary across taxa and environmental  
202 contexts. Behavioral responses, particularly spatial avoidance, can be viewed as an extension of  
203 these defense mechanisms at the organismal level. Therefore, macroecotoxicological  
204 approaches should explicitly acknowledge that toxicity thresholds and exposure regimes are  
205 context-dependent and shaped by spatiotemporal heterogeneity, movement behavior, and  
206 multilevel biological responses. Incorporating these dynamics will strengthen the ecological  
207 realism and predictive credibility of the proposed framework.

208 *Sources of heterogeneity and predictions*

209 Ecotoxicological traits are not fixed in space and time, but quite variable depending on the  
210 environmental conditions, fate of the contaminants, and the media where they are found.  
211 Moreover, intraspecific variation is expected due to the environmental conditions, level of  
212 contamination (and the interaction between both) on which populations of the same species are  
213 exposed. Macroecology deals with such variation by using statistical and quantitative methods to  
214 account for population or other sources of variation, thus we proposed that similar methods be  
215 used in macroecotoxicology (Figure 1c). For instance, intraspecific population variability can be  
216 controlled in the random term of mixed models [58,59].

217 Many ecotoxicological assessments implicitly assume homogeneous and static exposure. In  
218 reality, both contaminants and organisms are distributed nonrandomly across heterogeneous  
219 environments. Most toxicity evidence derives from laboratory tests that restrict organism

220 movement and impose uniform exposure conditions. While foundational, such approaches may  
221 underestimate the dynamic spatiotemporal interactions that shape real-world wildlife–pollution  
222 relationships. [33] propose a three-pronged framework integrating *in silico* spatial modeling of  
223 exposure and effects by using toxicokinetic and toxicodynamic models, laboratory experiments  
224 allowing movement, and field-based tracking of free-ranging organisms to better capture these  
225 dynamics. Advances in telemetry, remote sensing, and computational modeling now make such  
226 integration feasible.

227 Importantly, ecotoxicological data, ranging from environmental concentrations of chemicals  
228 across different matrices to laboratory exposure levels and associated toxicological responses, is  
229 not standardized (e.g., concentration units, endpoints), and integration into macroecotoxicology  
230 requires making use of statistics that help achieve generality, but on the risk of losing ecological  
231 specificity.

### 232 *Emergent biodiversity patterns that can be detected by macroecotoxicology*

233 The synthesis of individual responses to contaminants—as obtained from ecotoxicology—with  
234 their intrinsic relationship to geographical, evolutionary, and ecological drivers—as obtained from  
235 macroecology—allows for the mapping of biodiversity patterns under the lens of  
236 macroecotoxicology. Here, we present three examples of classic biodiversity gradients and frame  
237 them within a macroecotoxicological approach to explore how chemical pollution may reinforce  
238 or disrupt these established patterns (Figure 1c):

239 1. Variation in species sensitivity or vulnerability to contamination along latitudinal gradients. The  
240 Latitudinal Diversity Gradient (LDG) refers to the well-established pattern of increasing species  
241 richness from temperate (higher-latitude) to tropical (lower-latitude) regions, a trend consistently  
242 observed across most taxa [60]. This global biodiversity pattern may be influenced by the uneven  
243 spatial distribution of chemical contaminants, as they may cause direct mortality or impair the  
244 ecophysiological functions of exposed organisms, leading to local biodiversity loss and potentially  
245 altering the LDG itself [61,62]. Understanding how species sensitivity to contamination intersects  
246 with the LDG, or any geographic pattern for that matter, is therefore critical for anticipating  
247 biodiversity responses under intensifying global pollution [51].

248 2. Variation in functional traits across space is often described by ecogeographical rules, such as  
249 Bergmann’s rule, the tendency of species to exhibit larger body sizes in colder (typically higher  
250 latitude) environments, and Rapoport’s rule, the tendency of species’ geographic range sizes to  
251 increase towards higher latitudes [63]. These spatial patterns reflect adaptations to broad-scale  
252 environmental gradients. However, environmental chemical contamination has the potential to  
253 disrupt these patterns by altering the expression of functional traits. For instance, recent studies  
254 have shown that exposure to metals can influence organismal size, with smaller body sizes  
255 commonly observed in taxa inhabiting highly contaminated environments [64,65]. On the other  
256 hand, size is also one of the most important traits to classify invertebrates’ sensitivity to  
257 insecticides [66]. These findings suggest that contaminants may act as additional selective  
258 pressures, modifying established ecogeographical trends and potentially reshaping trait  
259 geographical variation at regional and global scales.

260 3. Variation in species interactions within and across ecological networks (e.g., food webs) is  
261 fundamental to maintaining ecosystem structure and functionality [67,68]. When contaminants  
262 are incorporated into these networks, they can disrupt ecological interactions, alter trophic  
263 dynamics, and ultimately compromise the integrity of the network's structure [69–71]. The  
264 hypothesis is that more complex food webs (in the tropics) will be more stable to chemical  
265 pollution, although the percentage of species extinctions may be larger [72]. This has been  
266 demonstrated empirically, and macroecotoxicology could test for such hypotheses at regional to  
267 global scales using experiments and models. The varying persistence of certain chemical  
268 contaminants in the environment further exacerbates these disruptions by driving shifts in  
269 community composition [73]. These changes can reduce ecological complexity and destabilize  
270 ecosystem functioning, all of which can be documented at large spatial and taxonomic scales by  
271 considering different ecological networks across geographic/environmental gradients.

## 272 **Concluding remarks**

273 A central challenge in ecotoxicology has been understanding the effects of diverse chemical  
274 contaminants while scaling information obtained at the individual species level to broader  
275 ecosystem-level responses [74]. Macroecotoxicology embraces this issue as an initiative seeking  
276 an interdisciplinary synthesis between ecotoxicology and macroecology, encouraging  
277 collaboration across these fields. Macroecotoxicology warrants further development to address  
278 critical knowledge gaps in how chemical contamination influences biodiversity, enabling the  
279 scaling of (sub)organismal effects to regional and global levels.

280 The general macroecotoxicology framework begins by formulating research questions that  
281 explicitly address the effects of contaminants on emergent biodiversity patterns. One or more  
282 contaminants of interest and their potential impacts on biodiversity can then be selected, ideally  
283 encompassing multiple species across broad geographic scales. The knowledge gained from field  
284 monitoring and ecosystem modeling is poised to elevate macroecotoxicology to the next level,  
285 where species interactions and shifts in abiotic parameters will feed back into species distributions  
286 across complex landscapes. The subsequent step involves quantifying species' responses using  
287 known and novel toxicity endpoints, bioaccumulation data, and biomarkers, either from existing  
288 ecotoxicological datasets, through targeted literature reviews or by using taxonomy or trait-based  
289 extrapolation models. Finally, the framework can be applied to evaluate how contamination may  
290 influence biodiversity patterns, thereby linking species-level ecotoxicological responses to large-  
291 scale ecological and evolutionary processes (Figure 1).

292 It is important to acknowledge that macroecotoxicology is not a panacea for contamination crisis,  
293 as contamination is spreading faster than our research and our ability to understand its  
294 consequences and how it is reshaping biodiversity patterns [75]. Nevertheless, considering that  
295 contamination may represent an underrecognized driver of species distribution shifts and given  
296 the extensive datasets already available on contaminants and biodiversity, there is a timely  
297 opportunity to advance macroscale analyses that integrate ecotoxicological and macroecological  
298 perspectives. We contend that the time is ripe to formally establish macroecotoxicology as a  
299 subdiscipline capable of tackling some of the most urgent ecological challenges of the  
300 Anthropocene.

## BOX 1: A brief history of ecotoxicology development and current approaches

The term ecotoxicology was introduced and studies began in the 1960s, initially inspired by Rachel Carson's influential book *Silent Spring* and later formalized by René Truhaut in 1969 [75]. From its inception, ecotoxicology has been a multidisciplinary science, combining elements of ecology and toxicology, and integrating a wide array of fields, including biochemistry, physiology, bioinformatics, biostatistics, and, more recently, the omics sciences. It has focused on the study of the exposure, accumulation, and effects of environmental stressors across multiple levels of biological organization, from molecules, cells, and organs to whole organisms, populations, communities, and ultimately ecosystems and the biosphere [50].

The primary objective of ecotoxicology remains to understand and predict the effects of contaminant-induced stress on ecological systems. Although more complex approaches involving multiple species are increasingly used in ecotoxicology, single-species and single-contaminant test batteries remain the primary tool for ecotoxicological assessments and continue to underpin the development of environmental regulations [76]. These tests encompass a broad range of toxicant modes of action, making them valuable for predictive effect evaluations [77]. Current ecotoxicological approaches still rely largely on the assessment of biochemical biomarkers, particularly those related to oxidative stress. These biomarkers quantify the measurable effects of contaminants primarily at the individual and population levels, both in field and laboratory settings [56]. However, this bottom-up approach, which extrapolates individual-level responses to predict ecosystem-level outcomes, has long been a challenge in ecotoxicology [1], as it may fail to capture consistent patterns across spatial and temporal scales.

Ecotoxicological methods have traditionally relied on standardized toxicity testing to quantify organismal tolerance thresholds, commonly expressed as  $LC_{50}$  or  $EC_{50}$  values, or as no-observed-effect concentrations (NOEC) derived from biological responses and biomarkers under controlled laboratory conditions. These approaches have been instrumental in establishing regulatory benchmarks and enabling cross-study comparability. However, because standardized protocols are typically developed for a limited number of model organisms and well-characterized contaminants, the resulting datasets are unevenly distributed across taxa and chemical classes. As a consequence, extrapolating toxicological knowledge to untested species and emerging contaminants remains one of the central challenges in ecotoxicology.

In recent decades, the field has expanded to include contaminants of emerging concern, such as nanoparticles, newly synthesized pesticides, antibiotics, complex pharmaceuticals, and micro- and nanoplastics [50]. At the same time, it has increasingly been recognized that chemical pollution does not act in isolation. Major global stressors—including climate change, habitat modification, eutrophication, and overexploitation—interact with contaminant exposure in complex and often non-linear ways. Addressing the combined and potentially synergistic

effects of chemical and climate-related stressors represents a critical frontier for contemporary ecotoxicology.

Importantly, ecotoxicology is not limited to laboratory-based threshold testing. Long-standing field-integrated frameworks, such as the Sediment Quality Triad (SQT), explicitly combine chemical analyses, toxicity bioassays, and benthic community assessments to evaluate the ecological consequences of contaminated sediments [78]. By integrating chemistry, organism-level toxicity, and in situ community structure, the SQT captures mixture effects and the influence of natural environmental variables (e.g., sediment grain size, salinity, organic matter) in ways that single-species endpoints alone cannot. Since its development, the SQT approach has been refined and adapted across ecosystems and stressor types [79,80], demonstrating the field's capacity to incorporate ecological realism into risk assessment.

Building on these foundations, an important opportunity lies in connecting ecotoxicological datasets with large functional trait databases—encompassing ecological, morphological, life-history, dietary, and habitat-related characteristics across taxa (e.g., TRY, FishBase, AmphiBIO, PanTHERIA, AVONET, MarLIN). Integrating trait-based ecological information with toxicological endpoints would not replace existing risk assessment frameworks but would expand their analytical scope. Such integration could improve cross-taxon comparability, help identify trait-mediated sensitivity patterns, and enable broader-scale analyses of vulnerability across environmental gradients. Ultimately, this combined approach could strengthen our capacity to detect macroecotoxicological patterns while remaining grounded in empirically validated field and laboratory methods.

#### *Where to find the available ecotoxicological data?*

As concern about contaminant-driven biodiversity change grows, several authors have called for the integration of ecotoxicological data into large, publicly accessible repositories such as the ECOTOXicology Knowledgebase (ECOTOX) [81] and the Curated Aquatic Toxicology Database (EnviroTox) [82]. These initiatives represent important steps toward harmonizing information generated by individual studies into unified datasets. Given that data sharing is still not a universal practice in ecotoxicology [83], such databases are essential foundations for advancing comparative and large-scale analyses.

The current structure of these repositories reveals important limitations. Most entries prioritize taxonomic descriptors (e.g., species name, genus, class) and standardized toxicological endpoints, while ecological metadata remains sparse. Functional traits, trophic position, life-history strategy, body size, and physiological characteristics are rarely incorporated in a systematic way. The absence of this contextual information constrains cross-species comparability and limits the integration of ecotoxicology with macroecological theory. Expanding database architectures to include trait-based and ecological descriptors would substantially enhance their utility for macroecotoxicological analyses.

Beyond harmonized databases, valuable cross-taxonomic information can be retrieved from bibliographic repositories such as Google Scholar and Web of Science, particularly for endpoints such as bioaccumulation [51]. Nevertheless, reliance on literature mining introduces additional heterogeneity in methodologies, reporting standards, and exposure conditions. Broader adoption of open science principles and standardized data reporting in ecotoxicology [84] would significantly increase the availability and comparability of primary datasets, facilitating regional and continental-scale syntheses. Incentivizing the publication of raw experimental data, rather than summary statistics alone, is particularly important given that species-level contamination response data remains unavailable for the vast majority of taxa.

Despite these advances, current ecotoxicological datasets exhibit substantial structural biases that constrain the immediate feasibility of large-scale macroecotoxicological forecasting. Strong taxonomic bias persists, with disproportionate representation of model organisms such as *Daphnia magna*, *Danio rerio*, and a limited set of standardized laboratory species. In contrast, marine invertebrates, wild plant species (including macrophytes), tropical taxa, and threatened species remain markedly underrepresented. Geographic bias constitutes an additional constraint. A large proportion of available data originates from Europe, North America (Global North), and, more recently, China, while Africa, South America, and many tropical and biodiversity-rich regions remain sparsely represented. Such spatial imbalance reduces the capacity to generalize findings across climatic gradients and socio-environmental contexts, and it complicates the development of globally applicable predictive frameworks.

Chemical bias further restricts potential extrapolation. Toxicological assessments are heavily concentrated on metals, legacy pesticides, hydrocarbons, and a relatively small subset of pharmaceuticals and modern pesticides. Thousands of emerging contaminants lack standardized ecotoxicological profiles, creating significant uncertainty in any attempt to construct global-scale predictive models. Taken together, these structural constraints indicate that the current database infrastructure is not yet sufficient to fully support robust global macroecotoxicological forecasting for a wide array of daily-use chemicals. Rather than providing an immediate operational predictive framework, macroecotoxicology should be viewed as a long-term research agenda that requires coordinated data harmonization, expansion of taxonomic and geographic coverage, incorporation of ecological metadata, and rigorous uncertainty quantification. Nonetheless, existing databases constitute an essential starting point. When used critically acknowledging methodological limitations, structural data inequalities, and technical barriers, they offer a foundation upon which more integrative and predictive macroecotoxicological approaches can gradually be developed.

The predictive potential of macroecotoxicology could be substantially strengthened by integrating emerging AI and ML approaches. In ecotoxicology, recent studies have demonstrated that ML models trained on individual toxic responses can successfully predict mixture toxicity under environmentally realistic conditions, outperforming classical concentration addition and independent action models when the mode of action is unknown [85]. Rather than relying exclusively on mechanistic assumptions, these approaches learn empirical relationships between individual and combined responses. However, their predictive reliability remains contingent upon the representativeness and breadth of training datasets, and their transferability across chemical domains and ecological contexts requires further evaluation [85].

Extending this logic to macroecotoxicology would involve moving beyond the description of spatial patterns toward explicitly validated predictive frameworks [46]. For example, spatially explicit ML models could integrate land-use data, agricultural intensity, livestock density, climatic variables, estimated contaminant loads, and species functional traits to forecast regional vulnerability, biodiversity loss, or functional homogenization. Crucially, such models would need independent validation datasets, cross-regional testing, and explicit uncertainty propagation to ensure robustness and avoid overfitting to geographically biased data.

Similarly, predictive models could integrate species traits (e.g., body mass, metabolic rate, life-history strategy), environmental parameters (temperature, soil/sediment properties, water chemistry), and contaminant exposure metrics to estimate expected sensitivity at broader ecological scales. This approach would reconnect functional macroecology with ecotoxicology and analytical chemistry, allowing trait-mediated vulnerability to be tested rather than merely inferred.

In the context of species responses under chemical pressure, macroecotoxicology could integrate species distribution models with contaminant exposure layers to evaluate niche contraction, range shifts, or altered suitability under combined climate and chemical stressors. Importantly, predictive performance should be assessed through out-of-sample forecasting, temporal validation, and quantification of model uncertainty. Addressing uncertainty propagation, data imbalance, and limits to transferability across taxa and regions is essential before claims of forecasting biodiversity change can be fully supported.

Therefore, while macroecotoxicology currently provides a conceptual framework that links biodiversity patterns with contaminant pressures, its predictive capacity will depend on rigorous model validation, transparent uncertainty analysis, and the development of transferable, multiscale datasets.

### BOX 3: A new knowledge shortfall?

We identify a novel type of biodiversity knowledge shortfall [86]: the lack of information on species' responses to chemical contaminants across spatial and taxonomic scales. As knowledge on the fate and distribution of chemical contaminants is advancing rapidly [74,87,88], the understanding of the impacts of these contaminants on biodiversity, including humans [89], is still largely unknown [90,91]. This is partly due to the rapid production and release of new chemicals into the environment [20], but also to the fact that the impact of contaminants has been re-addressed over time, so chemical contaminants that were supposedly harmless to the biota and have been applied in industrial products for years, are now known as extremely toxic [92].

Altogether, the listed ecotoxicology databases in this opinion paper comprise ~17,000 species of 590 orders and ~18,000 chemicals. It represents a huge effort but still contains information for a relatively minor number of existing species. We do not intend to report an exhaustive search for ecotoxicological responses, but to explicitly acknowledge our ignorance of the effect of chemical contaminants on the biodiversity of ecosystems, the known unknown. Therefore, we propose the *Carlsonian* shortfall as a new knowledge shortfall to be added to the existing ones, named after Rachel Carlson, the pioneer in addressing contaminant bioaccumulation and endocrine disruptions in birds and in the fight for a responsible development of new chemicals [93]. Importantly, this is the first shortfall named after a woman, acknowledging gender inequality in STEM.

303

### 304 Acknowledgments

305 GM is supported by a SECIHTI postdoctoral grant. FV thanks INECOL and SECIHTI for  
306 continuing support. MVC thanks the Instituto de Ciencias del Mar y Limnología, UNAM, Estación  
307 El Carmen, for the support provided through institutional projects. DMT thanks ECOBIO  
308 (Université de Rennes, France) and CONICET (Argentina) for their support through the  
309 postdoctoral positions. AR thanks the Talented Researcher Support Programme - PlanGenT  
310 (CIDEAGENT/2020/043) of the Generalitat Valenciana.

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