

1 **Title:**

2 Toward a unified tolerance–resistance framework across biological stressors and scales

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25 **Abstract**

26

27 Ecotoxicology and immunology both explore how organisms cope with external stressors that disrupt
28 homeostasis, yet these fields have developed largely in parallel. While immunology has formalized the
29 distinction between resistance (i.e. reducing stressor burden) and disease tolerance (i.e. mitigating
30 damage without reducing burden), ecotoxicology has traditionally focussed on stressor fate, trophic
31 transfer, and ecosystem-level consequences without consistently discriminating between these
32 mechanistic strategies. Here, we argue that explicitly separating resistance from tolerance provides the
33 conceptual clarity necessary to connect mechanistic, ecological, and evolutionary perspectives across
34 these disciplines and bridge different biological scales.

35 Using examples from host–pathogen interactions and pollutant systems, we show that
36 distinguishing between mechanisms that reduce stressor burden and those that mitigate damage
37 enables more accurate predictions about contaminant persistence, bioaccumulation, transmission,
38 and recovery. Conversely, ecological perspectives developed in ecotoxicology may extend resistance-
39 tolerance theory and practice by incorporating stressor redistribution, food-web dynamics, and eco-
40 evolutionary feedbacks into the host–pathogen interaction research programme. Finally, we discuss
41 how resistance and tolerance evolve under different selective contexts, emphasizing the roles of
42 reciprocal coevolution, stressor persistence, cross-talk between mechanisms, and eco-evolutionary
43 feedbacks. By integrating mechanistic and ecological perspectives, propelled by a clear and shared
44 definition of resistance and tolerance, we propose a unified framework for understanding how
45 organisms deal with biotic and abiotic stressors across scales.

46 1. Introduction

47

48 Ecotoxicology addresses the impact of pollutants on ecosystems and their components (Truhaut, 1977;
49 Moriarty, 1988), whereas immunology investigates organismal responses and adaptations to pathogen
50 exposure (Pradeu, 2020). Although these disciplines developed largely independently, both are
51 fundamentally concerned with how organisms cope with external agents that disrupt homeostasis.
52 Ecotoxicology has traditionally emphasized the environmental sources, distribution, and ecological
53 consequences of pollutants, while immunology has focused on the cellular and physiological
54 mechanisms that protect the host against pathogens. These differences in emphasis largely reflect
55 historical contingencies rather than conceptual incompatibility and may obscure a shared biological
56 question: how do organisms maintain homeostasis when challenged by biotic or abiotic stressors (Fig.
57 1 and Fig. 2).

58 Physiological homeostasis (Kotas & Medzhitov, 2015) provides a conceptual anchor linking
59 ecotoxicology and immunology, as both disciplines examine how external stressors perturb
60 organismal steady states, how organisms resist or tolerate those perturbations, and how responses
61 scale from physiology to populations and ecosystems. Pathogens and pollutants alike pose a common
62 challenge for organisms: maintaining functional integrity in the face of disruption. This shared
63 challenge provides a basis for considering responses to biotic and abiotic agents within a unified
64 framework.

65 Elements of this integrative perspective have already begun to emerge, with studies examining
66 the impact of toxic substances on organismal physiology and immunity (Tryphonas & Arnold, 2005;
67 Tryphonas *et al.*, 2005; Sadd & Schmid-Hempel, 2009; Lafuente *et al.*, 2023), and others exploring how
68 pathogens influence ecological processes (Seabloom *et al.*, 2015; Fischhoff *et al.*, 2020). However, the
69 conceptual tools used to describe organismal responses are not always aligned across disciplines. In
70 particular, the terms “resistance” and “tolerance” are widely used in both fields, yet in largely
71 different contexts, often with different meanings and concomitantly distinct mechanistic, ecological,
72 and evolutionary implications.

73 In ecotoxicology in particular, resistance and tolerance are not always defined in relation to
74 internal burden and damage-fitness relationships. This can lead to the conflation of mechanistically
75 distinct organismal responses, limiting our ability to predict contaminant persistence, trophic
76 transfer, and ecosystem recovery. Conversely, although immunology has articulated a clearer

77 distinction between resistance and disease tolerance at the organismal level, this framework has
78 largely remained focused on host-pathogen interactions, with limited integration of ecosystem-level
79 consequences (Baucom & de Roode, 2011).

80 Here we argue that making explicit the mechanistic distinction between resistance and
81 tolerance provides a conceptual lens that connects ecotoxicology and immunology within a shared
82 framework anchored on homeostasis. We first distinguish between mechanisms that reduce stressor
83 burden (resistance) and those that mitigate damage without altering burden (tolerance) at the
84 organismal level. Then, we explore how this distinction helps to clarify how such responses scale to
85 ecological dynamics, evolutionary trajectories, and eco-evolutionary feedbacks across biotic and
86 abiotic stressors. By placing resistance and tolerance at the core of this shared framework, we aim to
87 sharpen concepts towards strengthened predictive links between physiological mechanisms,
88 ecological processes, and evolutionary outcomes.

89 2. Mechanisms of resistance and tolerance

90

91 In this section we review the mechanistic foundations of resistance and tolerance at the organismal
92 level to help clarify how organismal responses to stressors can be compared across biotic and abiotic
93 contexts. Immunology provides a particularly explicit formulation of this distinction, defining
94 resistance as the reduction of pathogen burden and disease tolerance as the mitigation of damage
95 without altering burden (Råberg, Sim & Read, 2007; Råberg, Graham & Read, 2009; Baucom & de
96 Roode, 2011). Here, for readability, we will generalize the term “tolerance” and use it *sensu* “disease
97 tolerance” rather than its strict adaptive immunity definition regarding the unresponsiveness to
98 antigens resulting from lymphocyte maturation processes (Medawar, 1960; Murphy *et al.*, 2022).

99 We adopt this mechanistic distinction as a conceptual starting point and extend it to
100 ecotoxicological systems, where analogous processes operate but are not always explicitly
101 distinguished from one another. This approach will allow us to align terminology across disciplines
102 (section 2) and link physiological mechanisms to ecological (section 3) and evolutionary consequences
103 (section 4).

104 2.1. Definition of resistance and tolerance in immunology and ecotoxicology

105 In immunology, resistance refers to the ability of the host to prevent or eliminate infection, typically
106 through two complementary processes: pathogen avoidance that minimizes exposure and pathogen
107 clearance, which relies on immune mechanisms that detect and neutralize pathogens after infection
108 and return the organism to a homeostatic steady-state (Restif & Koella, 2004; Råberg *et al.*, 2009;
109 Boots, 2011). In contrast, tolerance concerns the ability of organisms to maintain their homeostasis,
110 and therefore their fitness, despite infection and without directly affecting their pathogen load
111 (Schneider & Ayres, 2008; Baucom & de Roode, 2011; Ayres & Schneider, 2012; Medzhitov, Schneider &
112 Soares, 2012). Rather than preventing or clearing infection, tolerance mechanisms mitigate the
113 damage caused by pathogens or their by-products through tissue repair, damage control, and
114 physiological buffering (Read, Graham & Råberg, 2008; see Box 1).

115 The term “resistance” has historically been used broadly to describe the ability to prevent,
116 survive, or recover from infection, eventually contributing to the emergence of the modern concept of
117 “immunity” in the nineteenth century through the work of Jenner, Pasteur, Koch, Metchnikov, von

118 Behring, and Ehrlich (Silverstein, 1989). The concept of tolerance as a damage-mitigating process
119 emerged from the recognition that survival may result from mechanistically distinct processes. This
120 distinction also has roots in nineteenth-century plant pathology, particularly in the work of Nathan
121 Cobb, and became increasingly developed throughout the twentieth century in plant biology and
122 agronomy (Schafer, 1971; Pagán & García-Arenal, 2020). In the 1950s and 1960s, key conceptual
123 advances clarified tolerance as distinct from resistance by moving beyond strictly host-centered
124 measures (e.g., leaf damage or crop yield) to explicitly consider pathogen performance and the host –
125 pathogen interaction (Dropkin, 1955; Caldwell *et al.*, 1958; Dropkin & Nelson, 1960). Schafer’s
126 influential 1971 definition – “*Tolerance may be defined as that capacity of a cultivar resulting in less yield*
127 *or quality loss relative to disease severity or pathogen development when compared with other cultivars or*
128 *crops*” – largely established the modern framework later adopted in animal immunology (Råberg *et al.*,
129 2007, 2009; Baucom & de Roode, 2011; Råberg, 2014; Kutzer & Armitage, 2016).

130 In ecotoxicology, such mechanistic distinctions between tolerance and resistance are not
131 consistently made. Terms like “pesticide resistance” or “antibiotic resistance” are widely used but
132 often agnostic as to whether the toxicant is eliminated, transformed, or remains biologically available
133 within the organism. For example, resistance to organophosphates in the mosquito *Culex pipiens* may
134 arise either through the overproduction of esterases that hydrolyse the pesticide (Raymond *et al.*,
135 1998), or through mutations in the acetylcholinesterase (*ace-1*) gene that reduce sensitivity of the
136 molecular target (Labbé *et al.*, 2007). Despite their fundamentally different modes of action, both
137 mechanisms are commonly classified as “resistance”. Under a mechanistic framework informed by
138 immunology, these strategies correspond to distinct categories: esterase-mediated hydrolysis
139 constitutes resistance *sensu stricto*, as it reduces toxicant burden, whereas target-site insensitivity is
140 more appropriately described as tolerance, as the pesticide remains unaltered and potentially
141 bioavailable. Conflating these responses obscures their distinct ecological implications, including
142 whether pollutants are detoxified or persist within organisms and ecosystems, with consequences for
143 bioaccumulation, trophic transfer, and environmental recovery (cf. Section 3). This example illustrates
144 how the clearer conceptual distinction between tolerance and resistance developed in immunology,
145 may impact operationally ecotoxicology studies towards a clearer link between organismal
146 mechanisms and eco-evolutionary outcomes. This does not imply that ecotoxicology lacks mechanistic
147 insight; rather, making this distinction explicit clarifies how organismal responses translate into

148 ecological and evolutionary consequences. Importantly, the immunological definitions of resistance
149 and tolerance hinge on the nature of the interactions between host and a living, hence proliferating,
150 agent. This is not the case for abiotic stressors that, however, obey analogous dynamics in their
151 interactions with organisms in time and space (cf. Section 3).

152 Taken together, the aforementioned definitions highlight that the key distinction between
153 resistance and tolerance lies not in the identity of the stressor, but in how organisms interact with it to
154 maintain homeostatic function. Below, we re-visit the main mechanisms of resistance and tolerance,
155 building on the explicit formulation developed in immunology.

156 2.2. Mechanisms of resistance at the organismal level

157 In host–pathogen interactions, resistance is framed as operating along two complementary axes that
158 reduce pathogen load: behavioural avoidance or expulsion and immune-mediated clearance (Heine,
159 2007; Murphy *et al.*, 2022)Fig. 2).

160 The first axis, avoidance and expulsion, includes processes whereby the agent is not modified.
161 Avoidance is achieved through behavioural decisions that minimize contact with harmful agents (Buck,
162 Weinstein & Young, 2018; Gibson & Amoroso, 2022). Such responses are well documented for biotic
163 stressors: spider mites avoid plants harbouring pathogenic bacteria (Zélé *et al.*, 2019), and diverse
164 pathogen avoidance behaviours have been described in *Drosophila* and *C. elegans* (Meisel & Kim, 2014;
165 Vale & Jardine, 2017; Lei *et al.*, 2024). In plants, antixenosis – i.e. traits that deter or repel herbivores
166 and other pests – similarly reduces harmful exposure by preventing feeding, reproduction, or
167 settlement on the host. Although plants cannot behaviourally evade stressors, antixenosis functionally
168 parallels avoidance in animals by limiting contact with biotic agents (Kogan & Ortman, 1978; Le Roux
169 *et al.*, 2010).

170 Comparable avoidance strategies also occur in response to abiotic stressors (Mogren &
171 Trumble, 2010). For example, spider mites avoid plants with high concentrations of toxic metals such
172 as cadmium (Godinho *et al.*, 2024), while *Daphnia longispina* can detect copper and synthetic
173 pyrethroids, actively swimming away from contaminated water masses (Lopes *et al.*, 2004). However,
174 despite some illustrative examples, behavioural avoidance of abiotic stressors remains comparatively
175 understudied in model organisms (but see e.g., Bahadorani & Hilliker, 2009; Pak & Murashov, 2021),
176 limiting broader mechanistic comparisons across stressor types.

177 In contrast to avoidance, expulsion involves mechanisms that employ efflux systems to
178 actively export harmful compounds, thereby alleviating the internal toxic burden. Clear examples
179 include emetic responses (i.e. the reflexive expulsion of ingested contents through vomiting) triggered
180 by ingested toxins or pathogens across the animal kingdom (Horn, 2017), as well as increased
181 defecation in response to oral bacterial infections in *Drosophila* (Buchon *et al.*, 2009; Du *et al.*, 2016; but
182 see Rubinić *et al.*, 2025). Comparable expulsion mechanisms also operate against abiotic stressors. For
183 example, ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters are highly conserved across species (Ferreira *et al.*,
184 2014) and facilitate the export of xenobiotics and their metabolites across cell membranes, playing a
185 critical role in organisms chronically exposed to pollution loads (Bard, 2000). Similarly, multidrug and
186 toxic compound extrusion (MATE) transporters remove metal ions, such as cadmium and arsenic in
187 bacteria, plants, and animals (Moriyama *et al.*, 2008; Takanashi, Shitan & Yazaki, 2014; Lu, 2016), while
188 multidrug resistance-associated proteins (MRPs) expel polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs),
189 pharmaceuticals, and dyes in aquatic invertebrates (Borst *et al.*, 2000; Sodani *et al.*, 2012).

190 The second axis of resistance involves transformation of the stressor through biochemical
191 modification or biotransformation. In immunology, this axis is illustrated by antimicrobial defenses
192 that chemically modify pathogens or their structural components. For example, lysozyme hydrolyses
193 the peptidoglycan layer of bacterial cell walls, weakening cell integrity and inducing lysis (Ragland &
194 Criss, 2017).

195 In ecotoxicology, a well-characterized class of such mechanisms includes enzymatic
196 biotransformation pathways, which are often inducible and exhibit broader, less target-specific
197 activity than immune responses. Cytochrome P450 monooxygenases, for example, catalyze oxidation
198 reactions that convert hydrophobic pollutants (e.g., organochlorines, PAHs, pesticides) into
199 hydrophilic metabolites (Stegeman & Lech, 1991). These metabolites can then be conjugated by UDP-
200 glucuronosyltransferases (UGTs), facilitating their biliary and urinary excretion, as demonstrated in
201 fish exposed to endocrine-disrupting chemicals (Wang, Huang & Wu, 2014). In plants, cytochrome
202 P450 enzymes similarly metabolize herbicides and industrial contaminants (Siminszky, 2006; Schuler,
203 2011).

204 Notably, these enzymatic responses are also induced by pathogenic challenges in both animals
205 and plants, highlighting conserved resistance mechanisms for coping with diverse stressors (Bingeli
206 *et al.*, 2014; Tafesh-Edwards & Eleftherianos, 2023; see section 4.3). Similarly, glutathione-mediated
207 responses are shared across taxa in the face of abiotic and biotic stressors, including pathogen

208 exposure (Dixon, Cummins & Cole, 1998; Cummins *et al.*, 2011; do Carmo Santos *et al.*, 2025). Together,
209 these examples show that resistance to pollutants and immunological resistance rely on similar or
210 diverse biochemical strategies that converge on a common outcome: reducing internal stressor burden
211 and restoring homeostasis.

212 **2.3. Mechanisms of tolerance at the organismal level**

213 Tolerance includes mechanisms that prevent, repair, or mitigate damage, manage stressor-induced
214 oxidative stress, and enable the accumulation and sequestration of foreign substances (Fig. 2). These
215 mechanisms are widespread in nature and are particularly important in environments where avoidance
216 or metabolic clearance may be limited.

217 One prominent class of tolerance mechanisms involves limiting physiological damage. In
218 immunology, hosts can reduce infection-induced damage through tissue-protective responses that
219 preserve organ function. For example, epithelial repair processes and mucus production can protect
220 barrier tissues and limit damage during infection (Turner, 2009). Similarly, heavy-metal exposure in
221 fish can induce morphological changes in gill epithelia (e.g., epithelial thickening and increased mucus
222 production) that reduce physiological disruption and preserve ion balance despite continued exposure
223 (Jeziarska, Ługowska & Witeska, 2009). More broadly, organisms may upregulate protective proteins
224 that stabilize membranes and reduce cellular injury under chronic pollutant stress (Abdallah *et al.*,
225 2024).

226 Another prominent form of tolerance is the management of oxidative stress. Pathogenic
227 infections often induce the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), which can damage host tissues
228 if not properly controlled (Ma, 2013). Hosts therefore activate antioxidant and repair pathways to limit
229 this damage and maintain cellular function (Lambeth, 2004; Nathan & Cunningham-Bussel, 2013).
230 Similarly, pollutants such as metals, PAHs and pesticides generate ROS, leading to DNA damage, lipid
231 peroxidation, and protein misfolding, which trigger antioxidant defenses and protein quality-control
232 mechanisms, including heat-shock proteins and proteasomal degradation (Cabiscol, Tamarit & Ros,
233 2000; Steinbrenner & Sies, 2009).

234 Another axis of tolerance involves the accumulation and sequestration of pathogens or toxic
235 substances into chemically inert forms or specialized compartments. This limits interference with core
236 cellular processes despite the maintenance of high internal burdens. In immunology, this is
237 exemplified by granulomas – organized aggregates of immune cells that form in response to persistent

238 stimuli, which restrict the spread of pathogens, as observed in tuberculosis and other chronic
239 infections (Lyu *et al.*, 2024). An analogous strategy operates in response to abiotic stressors, where
240 plants exposed to high metal concentrations bind metals to phytochelatins or metallothioneins and
241 sequester them into vacuoles or root tissues, isolating them from key metabolic pathways (Clemens,
242 2006; Verbruggen, Hermans & Schat, 2009). In hyperaccumulator species, this strategy enables
243 survival under metal concentrations that are lethal to non-adapted taxa. Comparable mechanisms
244 occur in animals: bivalves store metals in lysosomal granules and storage vesicles (Zuykov, Pelletier &
245 Harper, 2013), while marine polychaetes sequester petroleum hydrocarbons in lipid droplets
246 (Cornelissen *et al.*, 2006). Together, these examples show that homeostasis can be achieved by
247 compartmentalizing stressors rather than eliminating them and illustrate that both immunological
248 disease tolerance and ecotoxicological tolerance enable organisms to maintain function without
249 reducing contaminant load.

Box 1. Experimental criteria for distinguishing resistance and tolerance

Distinguishing resistance from tolerance requires going beyond phenotypic responses to exposure and explicitly considering internal stressor burden and damage–fitness relationships. Resistance reduces internal burden, whereas tolerance maintains performance despite sustained stressor levels by limiting damage and preserving function (Pradeu *et al.*, 2024).

Operationally, tolerance is detected as a change in the relationship between internal burden and fitness (or damage), such that organisms maintain higher performance at a given level of exposure without reducing stressor load (Kutzer & Armitage, 2016). Following the framework proposed by Råberg and colleagues (Råberg & Kautsky, 2007; Råberg *et al.*, 2009), resistance and tolerance can be distinguished by jointly quantifying (i) the relationship between exposure and internal burden, and (ii) the relationship between internal burden and fitness (Schneider & Ayres, 2008; Kutzer & Armitage, 2016). Resistance reduces internal burden for a given exposure, whereas tolerance alters the fitness–burden relationship. More recent work further shows that measuring dynamics of pathogen (or stressor) load and host fitness, particularly during early stages of infection, can help distinguish tolerance from resistance (Duneau *et al.*, 2017, 2025; Akyaw *et al.*, 2025).

Although developed in host–pathogen systems, this framework is directly applicable to ecotoxicology, where internal stressor burden can be quantified and related to performance metrics. Similar considerations regarding dynamic processes and endpoint measures are therefore likely to apply when distinguishing resistance from tolerance in these systems.

252 3. Ecological consequences

253

254 Ecotoxicology has long emphasized how pollutants move through ecosystems, accumulate across
255 trophic levels, and persist in abiotic compartments. When interpreted through the clarified distinction
256 between resistance and tolerance outlined above, these ecological processes reveal consequences that
257 extend the resistance–tolerance dichotomy beyond its traditional host–pathogen framing. At the
258 ecosystem level, resistance and tolerance differ fundamentally in whether the stressor agent is
259 eliminated, retained, transformed, or redistributed through ecological interactions. Whereas
260 immunology has been concerned with pathogen transmission, ecotoxicology provides a broader
261 perspective in which stressors can accumulate, propagate through food webs, and re-enter the
262 environment independently of host survival.

263 3.1. Stressor persistence and transmission

264 In host–pathogen systems, the ecological consequences of resistance and tolerance are often framed
265 in terms of horizontal transmission of pathogens between hosts. Pathogens that transmit horizontally
266 are approached under specific theoretical frameworks such as classical epidemiological models, like
267 the Susceptible–Infected–Removed (SIR) models (Kermack & McKendrick, 1927; Harko, Lobo & Mak,
268 2014), which provide a basis for understanding how resistance and tolerance shape disease dynamics.
269 For example, resistant hosts that effectively clear infections are expected to reduce pathogen
270 prevalence and transmission at the community level (Råberg *et al.*, 2009). In contrast, hosts that
271 tolerate infection without reducing pathogen load can act as reservoirs, maintaining viable pathogens
272 and increasing transmission within and between species (Luis *et al.*, 2013; Hayman, 2016; Borremans
273 *et al.*, 2019). Thus, tolerance can enhance transmission even when host fitness is only minimally
274 affected.

275 Analogous, though not identical, dynamics occur in ecotoxicological systems. Species that
276 tolerate harmful agents without eliminating them act as reservoirs of pollutants, facilitating trophic
277 transfer and bioaccumulation. A well-documented example is mercury in aquatic ecosystems, where
278 organisms tolerate methylmercury while retaining high internal burdens, leading to biomagnification
279 in top predators (Lavoie *et al.*, 2013). Similarly, persistent organic pollutants such as PBDEs and
280 organochlorine pesticides (e.g., DDT and metabolites) accumulate in tolerant organisms (Connell,
281 1988) and are transferred through food webs, extending exposure beyond the original contamination

282 site and timing (Windsor *et al.*, 2019). These processes may be further amplified under climate change,
283 as shifts in species interactions and food-web structure increase trophic transfer (Barneche *et al.*,
284 2021).

285 Resistance mechanisms, by contrast, have more variable ecological consequences. Avoidance
286 and antixenosis reduce individual exposure without altering environmental contamination (Stout,
287 2013). Other mechanisms, such as detoxification or biotransformation, can reduce environmental risk
288 when contaminants are converted into less toxic or more readily eliminated forms, as is the case with
289 cytochrome P450-mediated metabolism of organic pollutants (Stegeman, Hahn & Reyle-Hahn, 1994).
290 However, when transformation produces persistent and toxic by-products, resistance may maintain
291 or even increase environmental risk. Similarly, efflux-based mechanisms can either reduce or sustain
292 contamination depending on whether compounds are exported in altered or intact forms.

293 Beyond transfer among organisms, both immunology and ecotoxicology involve processes
294 through which harmful agents enter and persist in abiotic compartments. In host-pathogen systems,
295 pathogen shedding, excretion, or host death increases the pool of infectious agents and the likelihood
296 of subsequent infections (Anderson & May, 1992). In ecotoxicological systems, the release of pollutants
297 similarly prolongs environmental exposure. In both cases, the potential for broader impact depends on
298 how organisms process the stressor: whether pathogens remain viable outside the host, or pollutants
299 are released intact or transformed, determines whether they continue to pose an environmental risk.

300 **3.2. Recovery versus hidden persistence**

301 A key ecological consequence of tolerance is the potential disconnect between organismal or
302 population performance and ecosystem recovery, a distinction particularly relevant for ecological risk
303 assessments (Calow & Forbes, 2003). Indeed, when tolerance strategies predominate in ecological
304 systems, populations may persist or even increase despite sustained exposure, while pollutants
305 accumulate in organisms or circulate through food webs (Forbes & Calow, 2002; Fleeger, Carman &
306 Nisbet, 2003; Luoma & Rainbow, 2008). Consequently, tolerance-driven persistence can mask
307 underlying ecological stress, causing ecosystems to appear recovered despite ongoing or redistributed
308 contaminant exposure. Thus, the extent to which ecosystem health assessments based on abundance
309 or demographic performance underestimate the lasting impacts of contaminants depends on whether
310 responses to stressors are dominated by tolerance or resistance mechanisms (Calow & Forbes, 2003).

311 For example, classic studies of polluted river systems show that biological recovery often lags
312 behind chemical improvements, reflecting the delayed release and redistribution of stored
313 contaminants (Frey, 1961). More recent research confirms that metals accumulated by tolerant
314 organisms can be released long after external inputs cease, prolonging ecosystem contamination and
315 hindering recovery (Luoma & Rainbow, 2008, 2009). In contrast, resistance-driven responses, which
316 reduce or eliminate stressor burden, may shorten the time frame in which costs on organisms are
317 expressed, but contribute more directly to ecosystem detoxification (Forbes & Calow, 2003; Ashauer &
318 Escher, 2010). Therefore, the distinction between resistance and tolerance mechanisms is critically
319 important to evaluate whether population persistence is a reliable indicator of environmental recovery,
320 and to predict ecosystem trajectories in polluted environments.

Box 2. Ecological and evolutionary consequences of resistance and tolerance in Lepidoptera

Lepidoptera are phytophagous insects, and many species provide compelling examples of the evolution of resistance and tolerance to defensive secondary metabolites produced by their host plants. For example, diamondback moths (*Plutella xylostella*) produce a glucosinolate sulfatase that biochemically modifies host glucosinolates and prevents the formation of toxic hydrolysis products, actively reducing toxic burden and therefore exemplifying resistance through transformation of the harmful agent (Ratzka *et al.*, 2002; Chen *et al.*, 2020). In contrast, monarch butterflies (*Danaus plexippus*) cope with host-derived toxic cardiac glycosides through amino acid substitutions in the Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase, which reduce sensitivity to the toxin without altering its chemical structure (Vaughan & Jungreis, 1977; Holzinger, Frick & Wink, 1992). This well-studied example of target-site insensitivity illustrates a tolerance mechanism, as the harmful agent remains biologically active.

In contrast to metabolic detoxification of plant-derived toxins, the evolution of tolerance in herbivores can promote the transfer of these compounds through food webs, thereby influencing community dynamics and the evolutionary trajectories of populations from higher trophic levels. For example, cardenolide tolerance allows monarch butterflies to sequester these toxins in their tissues and repurpose them for defence against parasitoids and predators (Brower & Moffitt, 1974; Petschenka & Agrawal, 2015), deterring attacks by non-adapted enemies and driving the evolution of resistance and/or tolerance mechanisms in higher trophic levels. Recent work on a community of cardenolide-tolerant herbivores has provided compelling evidence for this phenomenon by demonstrating that at least four of their predators and parasitoids have convergently evolved target-site insensitivity in the Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase (Groen & Whiteman, 2021). Thus, the evolution of tolerance mechanisms can drive evolutionary cascades that extend across trophic levels.

These examples from Lepidoptera clearly illustrate how distinct mechanistic strategies can lead to fundamentally different ecological and evolutionary consequences and underscore the importance of employing clearly defined distinctions across subdisciplines of biological research.

323 4. Evolutionary consequences

324

325 The distinction between resistance and tolerance carries important evolutionary implications, as
326 differences in how these strategies affect exposure, stressor fate, and interactions with other
327 organisms translate into distinct selection pressures across generations. Below, we discuss how
328 resistance and tolerance are studied from an evolutionary perspective and how they interact through
329 cross-talk and eco-evolutionary feedbacks.

330 4.1. Contrasting evolutionary dynamics of biotic and abiotic stressors

331 Although we have emphasized similarities in how organisms respond to pollutants and pathogens,
332 there is a fundamental difference between these stressors with major evolutionary consequences:
333 unlike toxins, pathogens are living organisms and, thus, reproduce and evolve. As a result, pathogen
334 evolution can directly shape host evolutionary trajectories. For example, pathogen replication within
335 hosts is at the core of the virulence-transmission trade-off: while increased replication boosts
336 transmission, it can also shorten infection duration due to premature host death (Alizon *et al.*, 2009).
337 This trade-off is expected to select for lower virulence, with consequences for the evolution of host
338 resistance and tolerance.

339 Moreover, evolutionary responses in the host can trigger counter-responses in the pathogen,
340 potentially driving coevolution, with either Red Queen fluctuating dynamics or escalatory arms races
341 (Woolhouse *et al.*, 2002). In turn, such coevolution will impact the evolution of tolerance or resistance
342 in the host (Boots *et al.*, 2009). For instance, models of host-parasite interactions predict that tolerance
343 is favored when hosts are exposed to parasites with a high growth rate (Restif & Koella, 2003). In
344 contrast, resistance is expected to follow more dynamical coevolutionary patterns, making it less likely
345 to become fixed compared to tolerance (Roy & Kirchner, 2000). Again, these fundamentally different
346 predictions highlight the importance of empirical tests where the distinction between tolerance and
347 resistance is unequivocal. Pollutants do not evolve, hence selection in polluted environments is driven
348 primarily by persistence, transformation, and redistribution of stressors through ecological networks,
349 rather than by coevolutionary feedbacks. Still, evolutionary consequences of host responses to abiotic
350 stressors will also hinge upon the resistance or tolerance mechanisms involved (see section 4.3).

351 4.2. Approaches to address the evolution of resistance and/or tolerance

352 Adaptation to external stressors in ecotoxicology and immunity has been explored through a variety of
353 complementary approaches, including local adaptation studies in natural populations, experimental
354 evolution, interspecific comparisons of responses to similar stressors, and genetic analyses of adaptive
355 mechanisms. A substantial body of literature tackles each of these approaches (e.g., Belliure,
356 Montserrat & Magalhaes, 2010; Kawecki *et al.*, 2012; Koskella, 2014; Buck *et al.*, 2018; Paulo *et al.*, 2025),
357 with certain study systems examining adaptation to stressors through multiple approaches. Despite
358 this wealth of research, relatively few studies attribute adaptation to the evolution of resistance versus
359 tolerance (but see e.g., Stowe, 1998; Paulo *et al.*, 2025). The results of some of these studies are
360 summarized below.

361 Natural variation in responses of *Drosophila melanogaster* to copper is associated with the
362 degree of urbanization, consistent with local adaptation to metal exposure. Transcriptomic analyses
363 revealed that population differences in copper sensitivity were linked to differential expression of gut -
364 expressed genes. RNAi knockdown of several candidate genes resulted in exaggerated gut acidification
365 under copper exposure, indicating impaired capacity to mitigate copper - induced damage rather than
366 reduced copper uptake. These results point to the evolution of tolerance - via gut damage control -
367 rather than resistance in populations exposed to copper (Green *et al.*, 2022). Artificial selection
368 experiments also using copper as the selective pressure also revealed phenotypic adaptation, but the
369 response obtained could not be unambiguously attributed to either resistance or tolerance (Arnold &
370 Everman, 2025).

371 Some host-parasite systems provide well-characterized examples in which adaptive
372 responses can be directly attributed to resistance mechanisms. Bacteria, for instance, have evolved
373 several strategies that allow them to defend themselves from phage infection (Hampton, Watson &
374 Fineran, 2020; Watson *et al.*, 2021). One prominent example is the CRISPR-Cas system, first
375 characterised in *Escherichia coli*, which provides sequence-specific degradation of invading viral
376 genomes (Brouns *et al.*, 2008). Experimental evolution studies further showed that *Pseudomonas*
377 *aeruginosa* evolves CRISPR-based resistance when exposed to the phage DMS3vir, alongside other
378 defenses such as surface modification (Bondy-Denomy *et al.*, 2016; Broniewski *et al.*, 2021).

379 Notably, closely related species may deploy contrasting tolerance and resistance strategies
380 when confronted with the same stressor, with distinct implications for ecological dynamics at higher
381 levels of organization. For example, *Arabidopsis halleri* tolerates zinc concentrations that are toxic to

382 most plant species (Meyer *et al.*, 2010). This species efficiently translocates zinc to the shoots and
383 sequesters it within vacuoles and leaf tissues, thereby maintaining physiological function despite a
384 high internal zinc burden - an illustration of tolerance *sensu stricto*. In contrast, closely related *A.*
385 *thaliana* maintain stricter control over zinc uptake and, under exposure to zinc excess, upregulates
386 PCR2 expression in epidermal cells to enhance efflux and preserve cellular metal homeostasis (Kajala
387 *et al.*, 2019). This response represents a resistance strategy, as it directly reduces internal metal burden.
388 Contrasting strategies within the same genus underscore the diversity of evolutionary responses to
389 identical stressors, with broad implications for ecological organization (Roosens, Willems &
390 Saumitou-Laprade, 2008).

391 Resistance and tolerance mechanisms are not mutually exclusive and may evolve concurrently
392 in the same system, as predicted by theory on host-parasite interactions (Restif & Koella, 2004). For
393 example, a study on local adaptation of North American finches exposed to *Mycoplasma gallisepticum*
394 bacteria shows the concurrent evolution of both mechanisms (Bonneaud *et al.*, 2019). Similarly,
395 experimental evolution of mosquitoes exposed to microsporidia revealed the simultaneous evolution
396 of both resistance and tolerance (Zeller & Koella, 2017). These findings underscore the importance of
397 moving beyond binary classifications to identify the ecological and evolutionary conditions that favour
398 the evolution of resistance, tolerance, or their combination, as well as the implications of these
399 strategies for host fitness, stressor persistence, and broader ecological dynamics.

400 **4.3. Correlated responses and eco-evolutionary feedbacks**

401 As described in Section 2, resistance and tolerance differ fundamentally in their mechanistic bases and
402 therefore have distinct evolutionary consequences for the host. However, the evolutionary
403 consequences of these strategies on the host are unlikely to remain confined to the focal stressor.
404 Indeed, a growing body of evidence shows that adaptation to one environmental challenge frequently
405 alters responses to other stressors (Baker-Austin *et al.*, 2006; Martins *et al.*, 2013; Orr *et al.*, 2020;
406 Bazzicalupo *et al.*, 2025). Of particular relevance to the framework proposed here is that evolutionary
407 responses are often correlated both within and across abiotic and biotic stressors (Jansen *et al.*, 2011;
408 Chauhan *et al.*, 2015; Foyer *et al.*, 2016; Biswas *et al.*, 2021; Rodgers *et al.*, 2025). Conceptual models have
409 been proposed to address the effects of multiple stressors (Vinebrooke *et al.*, 2004; Piggott, Townsend
410 & Matthaei, 2015), yet these frameworks have not explicitly incorporated whether responses to such
411 stressors are mediated by tolerance or resistance mechanisms. Indeed, although concepts such as “co-

412 tolerance” (Vinebrooke *et al.*, 2004) and “cross-resistance” (Georghiou, 1972) are widely used, they
413 are seldom linked to the mechanistic basis underlying these responses. Attributing correlated
414 evolutionary responses to resistance or tolerance mechanisms may substantially improve our ability
415 to predict the net effects of adaptation to multiple stressors in natural systems.

416 The most fundamental distinction between tolerance and resistance lies in the fact that
417 tolerance implies that the stressor is retained within the focal organism. This may alter the responses
418 to subsequent abiotic or biotic challenges. For example, some plants tolerate metals through
419 sequestration in vacuoles, particularly in above-ground tissues. These accumulated metals can be co-
420 opted as an “elemental defence” against herbivores and pathogens (Rascio & Navari-Izzo, 2011),
421 thereby conferring an ecological advantage to metal-accumulating plants relative to their competitors
422 (Lin *et al.*, 2025). Tolerance may also generate cross-effects indirectly when adaptation involves
423 generalized homeostatic or damage-control mechanisms. For instance, maintaining homeostasis
424 under pollutant exposure often involves enhanced management of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and
425 increased cellular repair capacity (Andreau, Leroux & Bouharrou, 2012; Vilas-Boas *et al.*, 2024),
426 mechanisms that are also critical for limiting immunopathology during infection (Ayres & Schneider,
427 2012; Medzhitov *et al.*, 2012). As such, the existence of shared damage-control pathways renders
428 correlated responses across biotic and abiotic stressors highly plausible.

429 In contrast to tolerance, resistance operates by avoiding, reducing, or eliminating the stressor
430 and, consequently, correlated responses associated with resistance often reflect allocation trade-offs,
431 whereby investment in resistance to one stressor constrains the capacity to cope with another stressor.
432 For example, predator avoidance in damselfly larvae is significantly impaired when individuals
433 simultaneously cope with zinc pollution (Janssens *et al.*, 2014), while pesticide exposure reduces the
434 ability of scarab grub hosts to evade nematode parasites through impaired host mobility (Koppenhofer,
435 Grewal & Kaya, 2000). However, resistance mechanisms may also generate positive cross-resistance
436 when a single defence pathway confers protection against multiple stressors. For instance, pollutant
437 exposure induces epidermal thickening in fish, reducing contaminant uptake and contact, while also
438 simultaneously lowering host susceptibility to parasite infection (Smallbone, Cable & Maceda-Veiga,
439 2016). These observations indicate that, although resistance is often associated with functional trade-
440 offs, shared defence mechanisms can also produce correlated increases in resistance across distinct
441 environmental challenges. We therefore propose that both co-tolerance (or cross-tolerance) and

442 cross-resistance may emerge as predictable outcomes of selection by co-occurring stressors, but the
443 generality of these patterns would require more systematic comparative and experimental evaluation.

444 Organismal resistance and tolerance can also shape eco-evolutionary feedbacks (Fig. 3), which
445 arise from reciprocal interactions between ecological and evolutionary processes (Matthews *et al.*,
446 2014; Govaert *et al.*, 2019). In both immunological and ecotoxicological systems, these feedbacks
447 depend on how resistance or tolerance alter stressor fate and exposure pathways. Resistance
448 mechanisms that reduce environmental concentrations or bioavailability can lower exposure for
449 subsequent individuals, thereby relaxing selection over time, particularly when resistance carries
450 maintenance costs or trade-offs (Forbes & Calow, 2002; McKean *et al.*, 2008; Ashauer & Escher, 2010).
451 Such responses therefore generate negative eco-evolutionary feedbacks, in which adaptation
452 progressively weakens the selective pressure that initially favoured it. However, detoxification or
453 degradation processes may also sustain or redirect selection when pollutant transformation generates
454 metabolites with distinct toxicological effects (Farré *et al.*, 2008; Ashauer & Escher, 2010).

455 In contrast, tolerance mechanisms facilitate the persistence of stressors in the system,
456 maintaining chronic exposure across generations, and thereby reinforcing selection on tolerance traits
457 through positive feedbacks (Post & Palkovacs, 2009; Hendry, 2020). Other tolerance mechanisms, such
458 as sequestration or isolation, may temporarily reduce exposure, but delayed release of stressors
459 through excretion, predation or decomposition extends exposure across generations, ultimately
460 strengthening positive feedbacks (Luoma & Rainbow, 2008, 2009). Thus, distinguishing resistance
461 from tolerance at the mechanistic level may improve our ability to predict long-term evolutionary
462 outcomes in environments with biotic and/or abiotic stressors.

463

464 5. Concluding remarks and future directions

465

466 We have reviewed the mechanistic foundations of resistance and tolerance, clarified their distinction
467 across biotic and abiotic stressors, and proposed a framework that integrates subdisciplinary
468 perspectives spanning biological scales. By explicitly separating these axes, the framework clarifies
469 how organisms maintain homeostasis under stress and strengthens predictions of ecological and
470 evolutionary consequences, including contaminant persistence, bioaccumulation, trophic transfer,
471 and disease dynamics. This unified perspective highlights connections between resistance-tolerance
472 theory and ecosystem-level processes, while linking physiological mechanisms to broader ecological
473 and evolutionary dynamics across disciplines.

474 By integrating mechanistic clarity with ecological realism, this framework is also relevant to
475 other biological subdisciplines, such as those involved with chemically mediated biotic interactions
476 (Box 2). This is well illustrated by herbivore responses to plant chemical defences, which are often
477 broadly grouped under the functional label of 'resistance' despite fundamental differences in how
478 plant-derived toxins are eliminated, transformed, or retained in a biologically active form (Després,
479 David & Gallet, 2007; Zhang *et al.*, 2019; López-Goldar *et al.*, 2026; but see e.g., Jeckel *et al.*, 2022).
480 Furthermore, the use of shared conceptual definitions enables meta-analyses, enhances cross-system
481 comparisons, and informs predictive modelling of ecological and evolutionary outcomes, including
482 cascading effects within food webs and host populations under environmental change.

483 This bidirectional exchange between disciplines, in which immunology provides formalized
484 definitions and evolutionary models of host defence mechanisms while ecotoxicology contributes
485 insights into stressor fate, trophic transfer, and eco-evolutionary feedbacks, also promotes
486 interdisciplinary collaboration and broadens our understanding of adaptive responses to
487 environmental stressors as a whole. Greater integration across these fields will improve our
488 understanding of resistance and tolerance mechanisms and strengthen predictions of how they shape
489 health risks. More broadly, incorporating both pathogens and toxicants into environmental health
490 research will better reflect real-world exposure scenarios and support more comprehensive
491 frameworks for studying responses to multiple biological and chemical stressors. Such synthesis may
492 ultimately enhance predictive power across disciplines and provide a more generalizable framework
493 for understanding responses to homeostasis-disrupting challenges, consistent with the One Health
494 perspective.

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954 **Statements**

955 **Author contributions:**

956 EL initiated and coordinated the development of the manuscript, working closely with all authors
957 throughout the process. EvB, SM, and ES contributed to the development of the conceptual framework
958 and to drafting specific sections of the manuscript. The figures were conceptualized collaboratively by
959 all authors and prepared by EL and EvB. All authors contributed to the critical revision of the
960 manuscript and approved the final version.

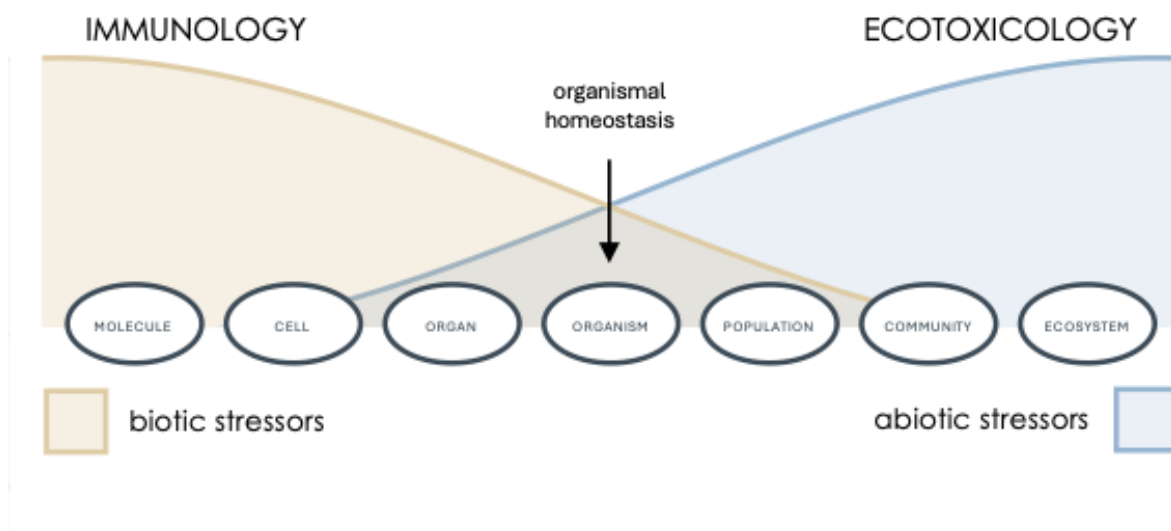
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965 PTDC/BIA-BIO/4693/2021 to ES; 2024.08432.CEECIND to EvB; 2022.04172.PTDC (DOI:
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967 **Conflict of interest:**

968 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
969 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

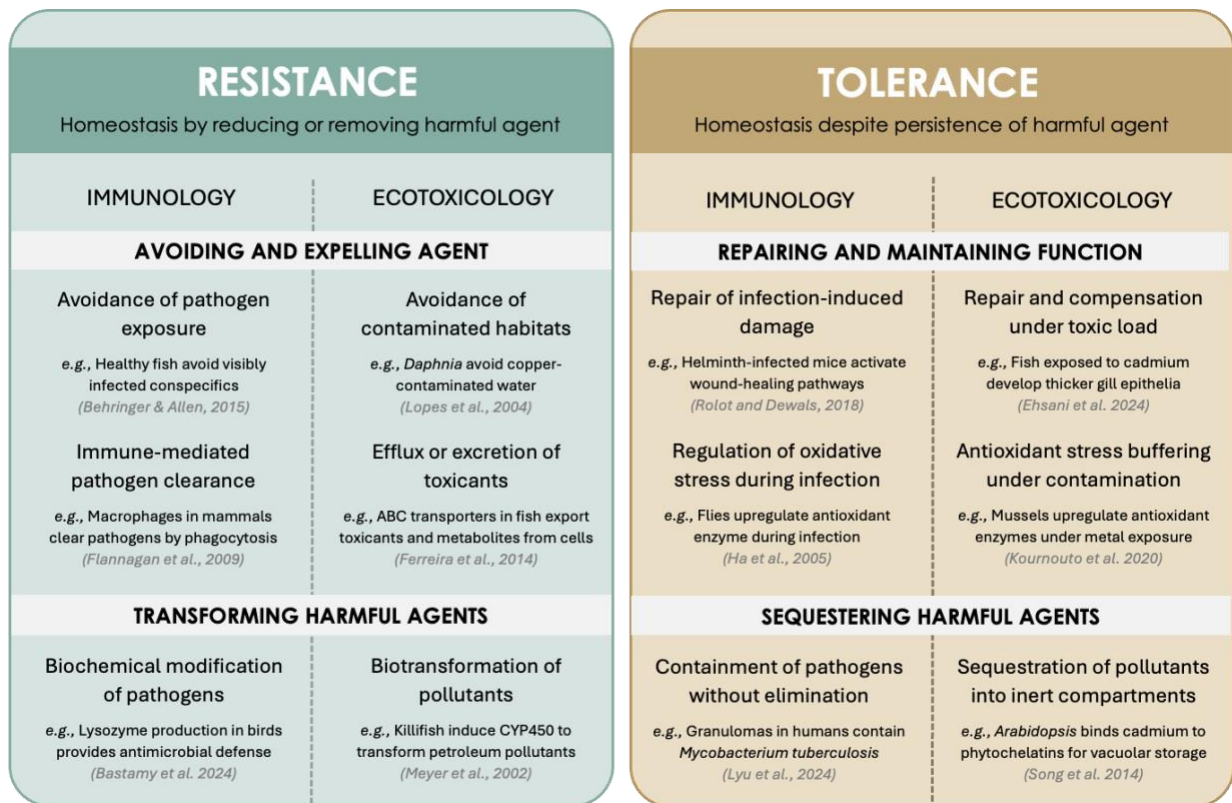
970 **Figures**



971

972 **Fig. 1. Conceptual convergence of ecotoxicology and immunology across biological scales.**

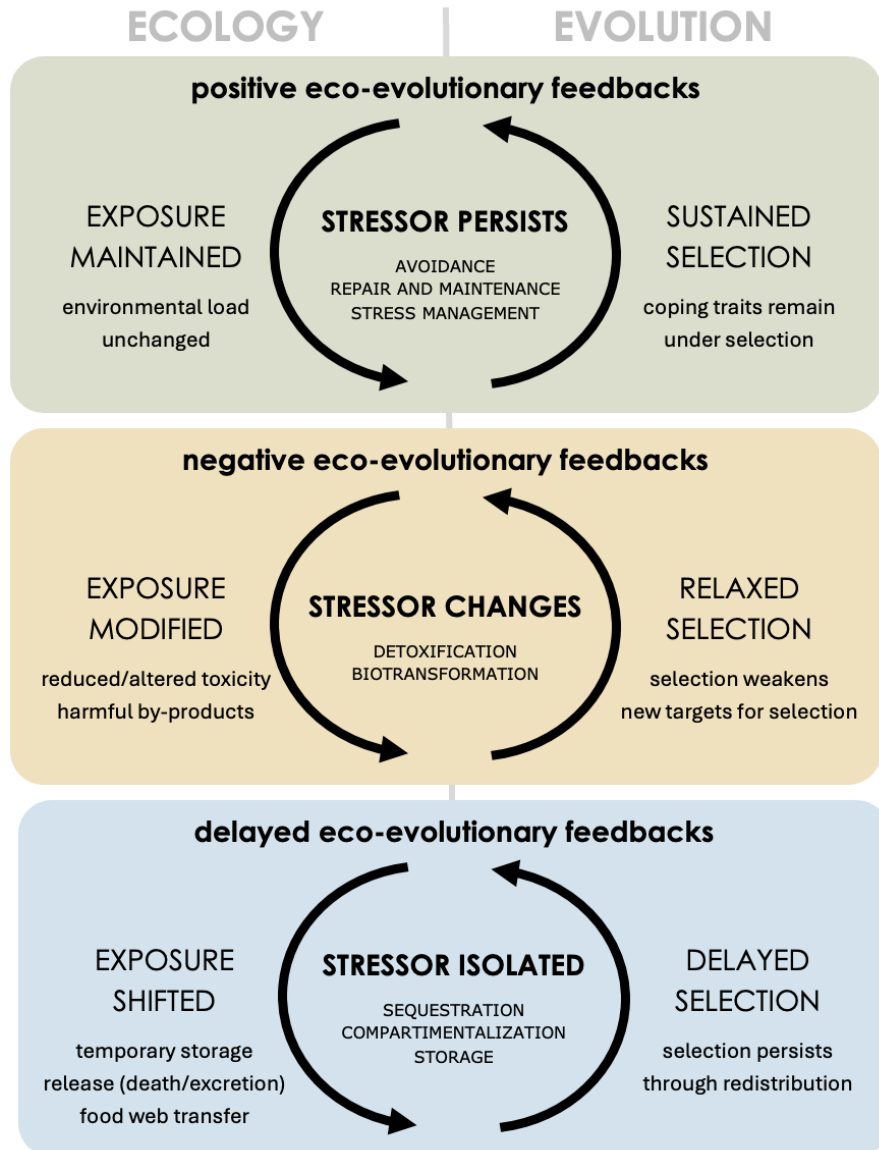
973 Ecotoxicology has historically focused on higher levels of biological organization, including
974 populations, communities, and ecosystems, whereas immunology has primarily examined processes
975 operating at lower levels, from molecules and cells to tissues and organs. Organismal homeostasis
976 constitutes the central integrative scale at which these disciplines converge: both biotic and abiotic
977 stressors disrupt physiological stability, and both resistance and tolerance mechanisms can improve
978 organismal performance and fitness under stress. By framing homeostasis as a shared functional
979 framework, the figure highlights a conceptual and operational bridge linking molecular responses to
980 ecological processes and outcomes.



981

982 **Fig. 2. Mechanistic parallels between resistance and tolerance in immunology and ecotoxicology.**

983 Resistance reduces or removes harmful agents through avoidance, expulsion, or biochemical
 984 transformation, thereby lowering internal burden. Tolerance maintains organismal function despite
 985 continued presence of the agent through damage repair, physiological buffering, or sequestration.
 986 Although developed in separate disciplines, analogous mechanisms operate across biotic and abiotic
 987 stressors. Explicitly distinguishing whether organisms reduce burden or mitigate damage clarifies
 988 ecological and evolutionary consequences across scales.



989

990 **Fig. 3. Mechanistic drivers of eco-evolutionary feedbacks under environmental stress.**

991 Physiological strategies that determine whether stressors persist, are transformed, or are isolated
 992 within organisms shape ecological exposure and how selection acts across generations. Stressor
 993 persistence maintains chronic exposure and positive feedbacks, transformation can relax or redirect
 994 selection and generate negative feedbacks, while sequestration and delayed release prolong exposure
 995 through trophic and ecological interactions.