

1 **Aligning Behavioural Ecotoxicology with Real-World Water**
2 **Concentrations: Current Minimum Tested Levels for Pharmaceuticals Far**
3 **Exceed Environmental Reality**

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 Behavioural ecotoxicology has rapidly emerged as a key area of research, offering sensitive
22 and ecologically meaningful endpoints for detecting sub-lethal effects of contaminants. Much
23 of this work has focused on pharmaceutical pollutants, now widely recognised as contaminants
24 of emerging concern in aquatic systems. Given the field's rapid growth and the availability of
25 large-scale open-access datasets, we have synthesized across four global databases to
26 evaluate the environmental relevance of tested concentrations—using behavioural
27 ecotoxicology and pharmaceutical pollutants as a case study. We compare exposure data
28 from more than 760 behavioural studies with over 10 million aquatic pharmaceutical
29 occurrence records from global monitoring databases. On average, minimum tested
30 concentrations were 43 times higher than median surface water levels and 10 times higher
31 than median concentrations in treated wastewater. Over half of all tested compounds were
32 never evaluated at concentrations below the highest end of wastewater detections (upper 95%
33 credible interval). Additionally, there was only weak alignment between the pharmaceuticals
34 most frequently tested and those most commonly detected in aquatic environments. These
35 findings reveal a disconnect between experimental design and environmental exposure,
36 potentially limiting the ecological and regulatory relevance of behavioural endpoints in
37 pharmaceutical risk assessment.

38

39 **Keywords (5-8)**

40 evidence synthesis, sub-lethal toxicity, experimental design, contaminants of emerging
41 concern, ecological risk assessment, environmental monitoring, aquatic toxicology,
42 laboratory field comparison

43

44 **Synopsis:**

45 We found that pharmaceutical exposures used in behavioural tests often exceed
46 environmentally relevant concentrations, limiting their utility for ecological risk assessment.

47 **Introduction**

48 Behavioural ecotoxicology has emerged as a rapidly expanding field, offering sensitive and
49 ecologically meaningful endpoints for detecting contaminant effects on wildlife [1–3]. Behaviour
50 is the product of sub-organismal molecular and physiological processes that ultimately
51 determines functions essential for survival and reproduction—such as foraging, predator
52 avoidance, and social interaction. Therefore, it is often said to serve as an early warning signal
53 of potential population-level impacts [3–6]. Reflecting this relevance, research in behavioural
54 ecotoxicology has more than tripled over the past two decades [7], with growing interest in
55 integrating behavioural data into environmental risk assessments [8,9].

56 Much of this work has focused on the effects of pharmaceutical pollutants, which are
57 now widely recognised as contaminants of emerging concern. Over 990 active compounds or
58 their transformation products have been detected in aquatic environments globally [10]. These
59 substances enter waterways via wastewater discharge, agriculture, and pharmaceutical
60 manufacturing, and often persist due to continuous input and resistance to degradation [11].
61 Designed to act at low concentrations, many pharmaceuticals target conserved biological
62 pathways—making even trace exposures a potential risk to non-target species [2,12,13].

63 Given the growing interest in behavioural endpoints, particularly regarding
64 pharmaceutical pollutants, and their potential regulatory application, it is critical to assess
65 whether laboratory exposures in this field include environmentally realistic conditions.
66 Specifically, do the concentrations tested align with those observed in aquatic environments?
67 Here, we integrated a global database of behavioural studies—EIPAAB (Evidence of the
68 Impacts of Pharmaceuticals on Aquatic Animal Behaviour), spanning 48 years and 1,739
69 species–compound combinations [14]—with three major international monitoring datasets that
70 track pharmaceutical occurrence and concentrations in aquatic systems [10,15,16]. Our aims
71 were twofold: (1) to assess whether the concentrations tested in behavioural studies reflect
72 those measured in surface waters and wastewater, and (2) to evaluate whether the
73 pharmaceuticals most frequently studied in behavioural ecotoxicology align with those most
74 commonly detected in the environment.

75

76 **Materials and Methods**

77 **Databases**

78 The databases used for this investigation were: (1) The Evidence of the Impacts of
79 Pharmaceuticals on Aquatic Animal Behaviour (EIPAAB) database [14]; (2) The NORMAN

80 EMPODAT database for chemical occurrence (accessed on 18/03/2025; [16]); (3) The
81 Umweltbundesamt (UBA, German Environment Agency) Pharmaceuticals in the Environment
82 database (PHARMS-UBA; accessed on 19/12/2024; [10]), and (4) Wilkinson et al. (2022)
83 Pharmaceutical pollution of the world's rivers database [15]. For a numerical summary of the
84 data included from each database, see Table 1.

85 The EIPAAB database was developed by Martin et al. (2025) [14] through a systematic
86 review of 5,988 articles using a 'PECO' framework: studies involving aquatic organisms (P)
87 exposed to pharmaceuticals (E), with behavioural outcomes (O) and a control group (C). The
88 search spanned Web of Science, Scopus, and additional sources (e.g., reference lists, social
89 media calls). The final database includes 901 articles published between 1974 and 2022,
90 covering 1,739 species–compound combinations and 426 unique pharmaceutical compounds.
91 For this study, we used metadata on compound names, CAS numbers, minimum exposure
92 concentrations, publication year, and article motivation (e.g., environmental, medical, or basic
93 research).

94 The NORMAN EMPODAT Chemical Occurrence Database [16] is maintained by the
95 NORMAN Network, an independent consortium of over 80 organisations focused on emerging
96 substances across Europe. Established in 2009, the database contains geo-referenced
97 monitoring and biomonitoring data across water, sediment, biota, soil, sludge, and air, with an
98 emphasis on substances not yet included in routine monitoring programs. As of the latest
99 update, it includes over 96 million data entries covering 4,567 substances from 39 European
100 countries. Data are submitted via a standardised Data Collection Template (DCT) available
101 through the NORMAN website. For this study, we extracted metadata on compound names,
102 CAS numbers, measured concentrations, concentration units, year, environmental matrix, and
103 reporting organisation.

104 The PHARMS-UBA database, maintained by the German Environment Agency (UBA),
105 was compiled through three systematic literature reviews focused on measured environmental
106 concentrations of pharmaceuticals [17–19]. The initial review [17] covered data from 1987 to
107 2013 using multiple search strategies across peer-reviewed and grey literature, as well as
108 European Commission databases. The subsequent reviews [18,19] extended the dataset
109 through 2020. Together, these efforts screened over 12,000 articles and compiled 276,895
110 entries covering 992 pharmaceutical compounds (Version: pharms-uba_v3_2021_0). For this
111 study, we used metadata on compound names, CAS numbers, measured concentrations,
112 concentration units ($\mu\text{g/L}$), statistical descriptions (aggregate or individual value), and the
113 environmental matrix in which the substance was detected.

114 The Wilkinson et al. database was produced through a standardised global sampling
115 campaign of pharmaceutical pollution in rivers, spanning 1,052 locations across 104 countries
116 and targeting 258 active pharmaceutical ingredients [15]. The resulting dataset, published as
117 “Database of pharmaceutical concentrations at all the sampling locations monitored in this
118 project” (Dataset S4), provides consistent occurrence data across regions. For this study, we
119 extracted metadata on compound names and measured concentrations.

120

121 **Database filtering and tidying**

122 To ensure comparability across datasets, all concentration data were filtered to include only
123 values reported in mass per volume of water (e.g., µg/L) for relevant surface water and
124 wastewater samples. For the NORMAN EMPODAT database, we retained entries from eight
125 surface water and four wastewater matrix categories (see Supplementary File 1). As influent
126 and effluent could not be distinguished, both were included. We also restricted entries to
127 compounds listed in the NORMAN Pharmaceuticals Suspect List (PHARMA SusDat),
128 comprising 9,626 compounds and 13,324 unique CAS numbers. For the PHARMS-UBA
129 database, we included six surface water and four effluent categories, covering samples subject
130 to varying levels of treatment (e.g., primary, secondary). Only concentrations reported in mass
131 per volume and as single values or aggregate central tendencies (e.g., mean or median) were
132 retained; minimum and maximum summaries were excluded. Aggregated values made up just
133 0.33% of the final dataset, and aggregated values represented unique data (i.e. they were not
134 an aggregate of single values already in the database). No filtering was required for the
135 Wilkinson et al. dataset, as all entries represented pharmaceuticals measured in surface water
136 and were consistently reported in µg/L. For the EIPAAB database, we retained only studies
137 with an environmental motivation (as classified in Martin et al., 2025) and exposure
138 concentrations reported in mass per volume units.

139 To compare the pharmaceuticals used in the behavioural test database (EIPAAB) to
140 those detected in the environment, we combined all environmental occurrence data across the
141 three databases ($n = 10,010,937$; see Table 1 for a database breakdown) and created a
142 compound-level summary ($n = 1650$ compounds). This summary included:

- 143 ● *Total occurrence (i.e. total rows)*
- 144 ● *Number of samples (which differs from total occurrences because some values were
145 summary values based on aggregated data from multiple samples)*
- 146 ● *Number of positive detections (i.e. above limit of quantification, not including
147 aggregated values)*
- 148 ● *Median measured concentration*

- 149 ● *The upper and lower 95% credible intervals (95% CrIs) of measured concentrations*
- 150 *using empirical quantiles*
- 151 ● *Percentage of positive detections (for compounds with >10 single sample values)*
- 152 ● *Relative rank occurrence (1–1650)*
- 153 ● *Relative rank detection frequency (i.e. rank of number of positive detections divided by*
- 154 *total occurrence; 1–1424)*

155 Estimates of median concentration and 95% credible intervals (CrIs) were calculated
 156 separately for surface water and wastewater matrices, using only positive detections (i.e.,
 157 values above zero or above detection limits). This approach was taken for two reasons: (1) we
 158 assume that researchers designing exposure studies are simulating contamination scenarios
 159 at impacted sites, rather than aiming to replicate a theoretical global average; and (2) excluding
 160 non-detections provides a more conservative basis for comparing tested concentrations in
 161 behavioural studies with those observed in the environment. When sample size was not
 162 reported for aggregate values, we assumed a value two —resulting in likely underestimates of
 163 total sample size. Only PHARMS-UBA provided central tendency values; among these, 4,023
 164 entries lacked sample size metadata (<0.05% of all data), making our estimates of sample
 165 count very close to actual values. To reduce the influence of extreme outliers on compound-
 166 level comparisons, we used the upper bound of the 95% CrI as a more conservative estimate
 167 of the maximum concentration rather than the actual maximum observed concentration.

168

169 **Table 1.** Number of pharmaceutical compounds and data entries included from each of the four
 170 databases used in this study (EIPAAB, NORMAN, PHARMS-UBA, and Wilkinson). In EIPAAB, each
 171 entry represents a distinct pharmaceutical exposure assay (a single article may contain multiple assays
 172 across compounds or species). In the environmental databases, each entry corresponds to a single
 173 measurement of a compound in a water sample. PHARMS-UBA includes some aggregate entries (e.g.,
 174 mean or median values), though these account for only 0.33% of the total.

Source	Number of compounds	Data
EIPAAB	184	767
NORMAN*	1,379	9,382,388
PHARMS-UBA	911	564,417
Wilkinson	61	64,132
Total	1,760	10,011,704

175 * The NORMAN database was filtered to remove data from the German Environment Agency (UBA), and restricted
 176 to 2014-2022, as the PHARMS-UBA also included data from NORMAN prior to 2014; thus, this number is not the
 177 true total number of pharmaceutical samples present in the whole NORMAN database.

178 **Analysis**

179 All analyses were conducted in R (v4.2.3) using RStudio (Build 463) [20]. To evaluate
180 whether pharmaceutical concentrations tested in behavioural ecotoxicology studies reflect
181 those found in the environment, we fitted Bayesian linear regression models (via the *brm*
182 function, *brms* package; [21]). Models predicted log-transformed minimum tested
183 concentrations from the EIPAAB database as a function of log-transformed median surface
184 water or wastewater concentrations, with relative publication year (years since 1992)
185 included as a covariate. Both models assumed a Gaussian likelihood.

186 To assess alignment between the most frequently studied pharmaceuticals in
187 behavioural ecotoxicology and those most commonly detected in the environment, we
188 compared the frequency of behavioural exposure assays per compound with two
189 environmental detection metrics: (1) the total number of positive detections and (2) the
190 percentage of positive detections (i.e., detections relative to total samples). The total number
191 reflects overall monitoring frequency, while the percentage accounts for sampling effort,
192 together providing a more comprehensive view of environmental occurrence. These
193 comparisons were analysed using Bayesian Negative Binomial Regression, appropriate for
194 overdispersed count data.

195 All models were run with four MCMC chains using default weakly informative priors,
196 each with 8,000 iterations and a 1,000-iteration warm-up. Convergence was confirmed via
197 trace plots and R-hat diagnostics (R-hat = 1.00). Results are presented as posterior means
198 with 95% credible intervals (CrIs), and inference was based on whether CrIs excluded zero.

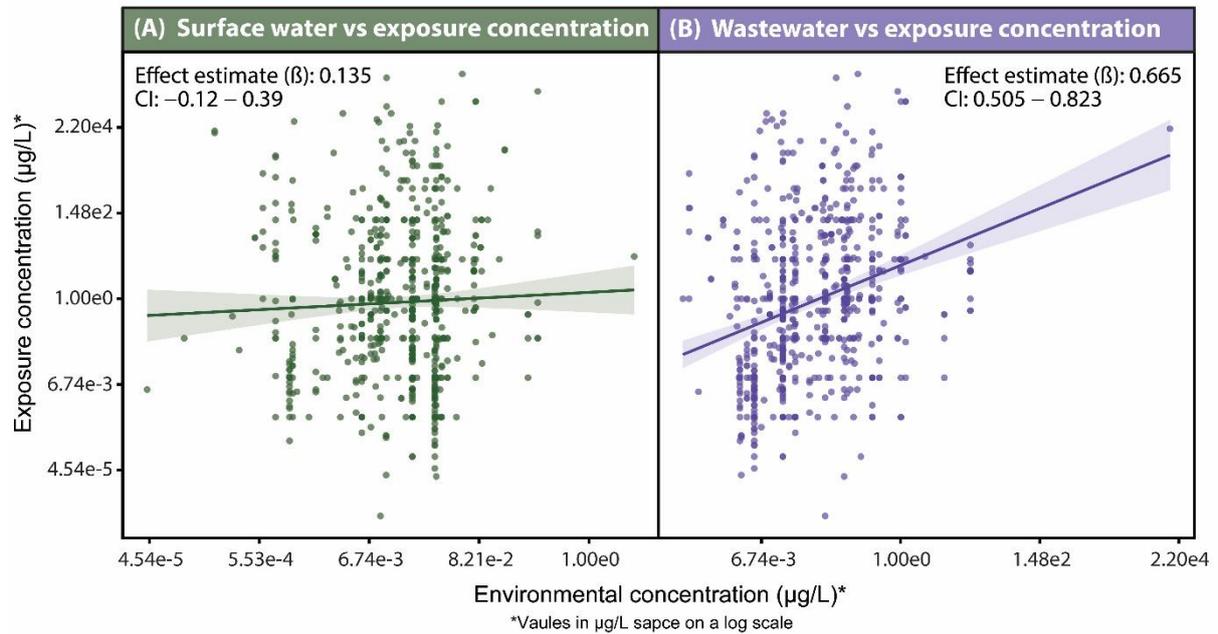
199

200 **Results**

201 We compared 767 behavioural exposure assays from the EIPAAB database with 10,009,385
202 environmental water samples, comprising 9,727,633 surface water and 281,752 wastewater
203 measurements from the NORMAN, PHARMS-UBA, and Wilkinson datasets. Of the 184
204 pharmaceuticals tested in behavioural studies, 167 (90.8%) had corresponding environmental
205 occurrence data.

206 Minimum tested concentrations in behavioural studies were not strongly predicted by
207 median surface water concentrations (Bayesian linear regression: $\beta = 0.135$, 95% CrI: -0.123
208 to 0.393 ; Fig. 1a). In contrast, there was a positive relationship with median wastewater
209 concentrations ($\beta = 0.665$, 95% CrI: 0.505 to 0.823 ; Fig. 1b), where a 1% increase in
210 environmental concentration corresponded to an average 0.67% increase in tested
211 concentration, after controlling for publication year. In both models, tested concentrations

212 declined significantly over time. For surface water and wastewater models, tested
213 concentrations in the behavioural ecotoxicology literature decreased by an average of 10.4%
214 ($\beta = -0.110$, 95% CrI: -0.173 to -0.046) and 12.2% ($\beta = -0.130$, 95% CrI: -0.189 to -0.070)
215 per year, , respectively (Fig. S2 and S4).

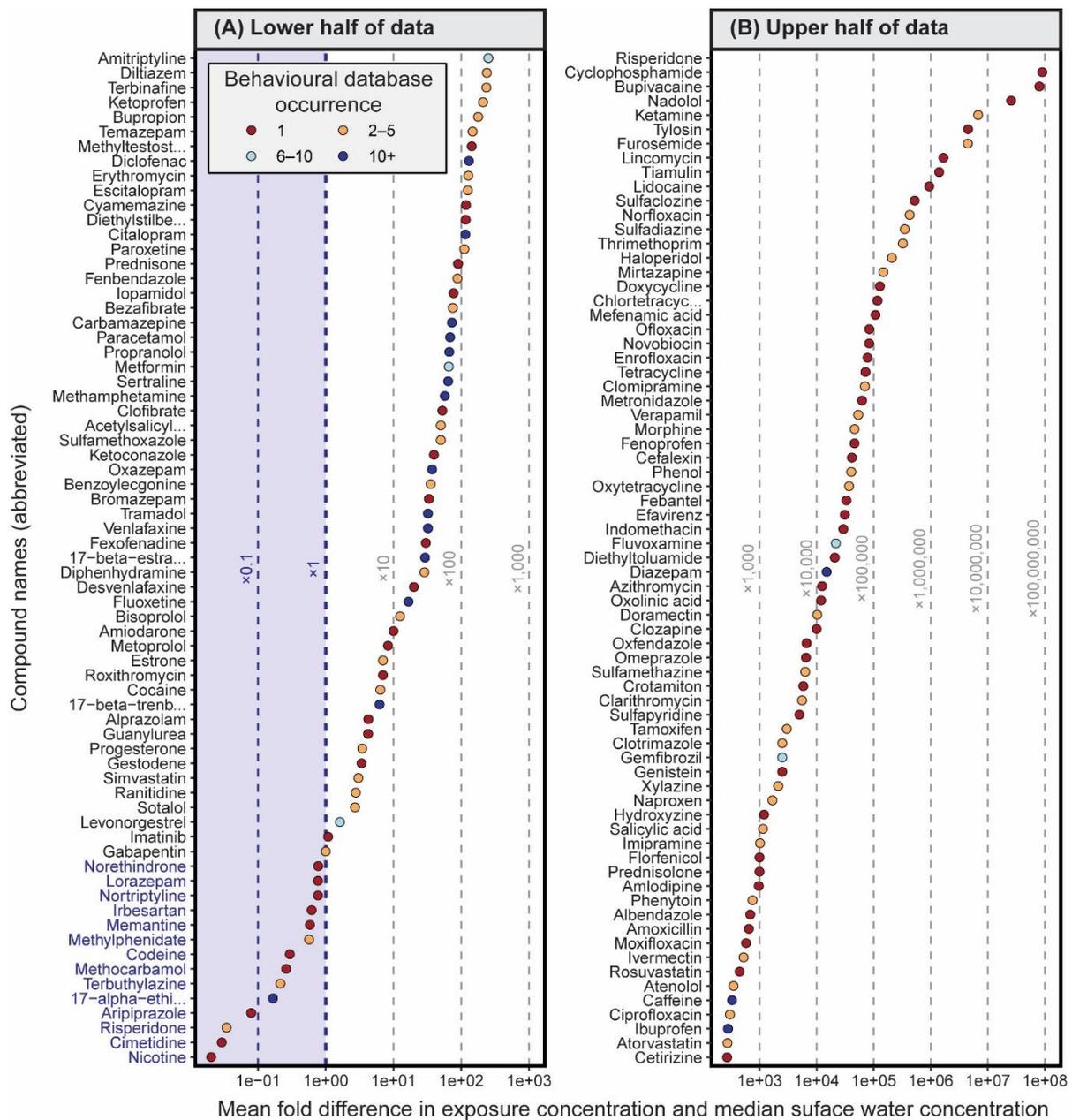


216

217 **Figure 1.** Relationship between environmental concentrations and tested concentrations in behavioural
218 studies. **(A)** Median surface water concentrations vs. minimum tested concentrations in behavioural
219 ecotoxicology; **(B)** median wastewater concentrations vs. minimum tested concentrations in behavioural
220 ecotoxicology. All concentrations are reported in micrograms per litre (µg/L) and plotted on a log scale
221 for interpretability. Lines represent Bayesian log–log linear regression estimates.

222

223 Across 706 compounds with both behavioural and surface water data, only 19% of behavioural
224 studies used concentrations below the median environmental level, and 38% fell below the
225 upper 95% credible interval (CrI; Table S2). For wastewater (714 matched cases), just 23.4%
226 of behavioural studies used concentrations below the median, and 53.1% were below the
227 upper 95% CrI. On average, concentrations used in behavioural studies were 43 times higher
228 than median surface water levels (Fig. 2) and 10 times higher than median wastewater levels
229 (Fig. S5). Overall, 50.4% of compounds (70 of 139) were never tested at concentrations below
230 the high end of surface water levels, and 44.6% (66 of 148) were never tested below the high
231 end of typical wastewater levels (defined as the upper 95% CrI).



232

233 **Figure 2.** Fold difference between tested concentrations and median surface water concentrations for 139
 234 pharmaceutical compounds. **(A)** Compounds in the lower half of fold differences; **(B)** compounds in the upper half.

235 Blue shading in (A) highlights compounds with mean exposure concentrations in behavioural ecotoxicology
 236 studies equal to or below environmental levels (i.e. fold difference ≤ 1). Point colour indicates compound
 237 frequency in the behavioural database.

238

239 There was a weak positive relationship between the number of behavioural exposure assays
 240 per compound (EIPAAB) and the total number of environmental detections (i.e., samples
 241 above detection limits) across the environmental databases (Bayesian Negative Binomial

242 Regression: $\beta = 1.11 \times 10^{-4}$, 95% CrI: 4.24×10^{-5} to 1.90×10^{-4} ; Fig. 3a). Each additional
243 environmental detection increased the expected number of behavioural assays by just 0.01%
244 (Fig. S10). A similarly small positive effect was observed for the percentage of environmental
245 samples testing positive ($\beta = 0.011$, 95% CrI: 0.001 to 0.022), where each 1% increase in
246 detection frequency corresponded to a 1.15% increase in EIPAAB assay count (Fig. S11).
247 These results are further discussed in Supplementary File 1.

248

249 Discussion

250 With pharmaceutical pollution as a case study, we evaluated whether the concentrations and
251 compounds tested in behavioural ecotoxicology align with those most commonly found in
252 aquatic environments. By integrating over 10 million global environmental concentration
253 records with 767 behavioural exposure assays, we reveal a substantial disconnect between
254 tested concentrations and environmental reality, with the minimum tested concentrations in
255 behavioural studies being, on average, 43 times higher than median surface water
256 concentrations and 10 times higher than median wastewater concentrations. Over half of all
257 compounds were never tested at concentrations below the upper 95% credible interval (i.e.,
258 likely maximum value) for their concentrations in wastewater.

259 We propose that the misalignment between tested and observed concentrations may, in
260 part, be a result of temporal shifts in the availability of relevant environmental concentration
261 data and the precision with which we can measure these types of compounds. Improvements
262 in analytical chemistry have lowered detection limits and enabled broader contaminant
263 screening capabilities [22], while inclusion of select pharmaceuticals on regulatory monitoring
264 lists, such as the EU Watch List (starting in 2015 with the Commission Implementing Decision
265 (EU) 2015/495) and NORMAN Network Suspect & Monitoring Lists (starting 2007, with formal
266 use by the European Commission from 2015), has also increased monitoring efforts—resulting
267 in a clear picture of which pharmaceuticals are present in surface waters, and at what
268 concentrations. This is generally supported by annual trends observed in the PHARMS-UBA
269 database—the database for which we have the best temporal distribution—for both total
270 sampling effort (Figure S10) and the cumulative number of pharmaceuticals reported (Figure
271 S11). Thus, we acknowledge that older behavioural studies may have been designed with
272 limited reference points for environmental relevance. Indeed, we found that tested
273 concentrations have been reducing by approximately 10% annually, reflecting a broad
274 movement towards more environmentally realistic exposures.

275 With this said, when controlling for study year, we detected a positive association
276 between the minimum test concentrations in behavioural studies and median observed
277 wastewater concentrations. However, there was no strong support for an association between
278 test concentrations and surface water concentrations. This may reflect the desire of
279 researchers to replicate the more extreme scenarios of environmental pollution—such as
280 effluent-dominated systems—as a basis for study design, either by using direct effluent
281 concentrations or selecting more extreme concentrations from surface water reports as their
282 minimum dose.

283 To our knowledge, our study is the first to perform a cross-database quantitative
284 comparison of tested to field-observed concentration on this scale. We are aware of only a few
285 other attempts to compare tested concentrations with environmental observation
286 concentrations in ecotoxicology, but for those that do exist, our findings seem to align [23,24].
287 For instance, Wolf and Segner (2023) [23] reviewed 50 ecotoxicology studies spanning various
288 chemicals (e.g. pesticides, heavy metals, pharmaceuticals) and showed that the majority of
289 toxicologically tested concentrations far exceeded those found in nature, with little justification
290 for their selection. Similarly, Mills et al. (2023) [24] reported that rodent toxicology studies on
291 microplastics used doses hundreds of thousands of times higher than those found in terrestrial
292 soils. Although studies like these are few, the patterns suggest a potentially widespread trend
293 across ecotoxicology: a tendency to prioritise proof-of-concept effects over environmentally
294 realistic scenarios.

295 Failing to incorporate environmentally realistic doses is particularly pressing for studies
296 assessing sublethal endpoints, such as behaviour, which can be highly sensitive to very low
297 concentrations of contaminants [3,6]. Unlike traditional apical endpoints (e.g. survival or
298 growth), behavioural traits often respond to subtle (neuro)physiological or hormonal disruptions
299 that can occur well below concentrations typically associated with overt toxicity [4]. In such
300 cases, omitting low, environmentally relevant doses may obscure real-world risks.
301 Furthermore, many pharmaceuticals—including endocrine disruptors, anxiolytics, and
302 antidepressants—exhibit non-monotonic dose–response relationships, where the effect size
303 does not consistently increase with concentration [25,26]. In such scenarios, key biological
304 effects may only emerge at low or intermediate doses, while higher doses may produce
305 diminished or qualitatively different effects. Failure to include environmentally realistic
306 concentrations in the experimental design may therefore miss ecologically relevant responses
307 or lead to misleading conclusions about a compound's potency or mode of action.

308 More broadly, the absence of low-dose testing hinders the field's ability to inform
309 ecologically meaningful thresholds, complicates the derivation of risk-based benchmarks, and

310 limits the use of behavioural data in regulatory contexts, where environmental realism is a
311 growing expectation. In summary, we recognise that it is still important to include doses that
312 exceed typical environmental doses to identify thresholds for effects used in chemical risk
313 assessment (e.g. predicted no effect concentrations [PNEC], effective concentrations [EC]), to
314 reveal potential dose-response relationships, and to include procedural treatments like positive
315 controls. With that said, we advocate for future studies assessing the effects of
316 pharmaceuticals on animal behaviour—and ecotoxicological studies more broadly—to
317 leverage the large quantity of environmental concentration data now available and include a
318 median environmental concentration within the tested dosage range.

319

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326 and reminded us of the importance of working toward a sustainable future.

327

328 **Data and code availability**

329 All R scripts used for data cleaning, filtering, and analysis are available on the corresponding
330 author's GitHub repository: <https://github.com/JakeMartinResearch/field-vs-lab-doses>. A
331 rendered HTML version of the full analysis workflow is accessible at:
332 <https://jakemartinresearch.github.io/field-vs-lab-doses/>. All datasets used in this study are
333 openly available on the Open Science Framework (OSF) under the DOI:
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335

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