

25 **Abstract**

26 Monitoring of wastewaters is crucial for the protection of surface waters and should contain quality and toxicity
27 analyses to ensure safety of aquatic organisms. In this study, the impacts of industrial and municipal wastewaters
28 were assessed by examining the responses of organisms from different trophic levels, *Pseudokirchneriella*
29 *subcapitata* (microalgae) and *Daphnia magna* (crustaceans), together with physical and chemical water
30 parameters and total metal(loid) concentrations, separately in wastewater lagoons and four nearby sites in the karst
31 Krka River in spring, summer and autumn. The sites in close proximity to the inappropriately treated wastewaters
32 exhibited diminished ecological status, especially regarding COD, nutrients, turbidity, mineral oils, and elevated
33 concentrations of metals (Cd, Co, Cu, Fe, Na, Ni, and Zn). Toxicity effects were confirmed for surface river water
34 near the municipal wastewater outlet (hazard class III) and for basins with industrial wastewater (hazard class IV).
35 Although such approach enabled determination of the toxic hazard of complex mixtures in aquatic environments,
36 literature overview by Cite Space showed that there is little data and that European countries dominate in this area
37 of research. In addition, multivariate statistical analysis confirmed association of water quality data and toxic
38 effects and the importance of microbiotests in assessment of ecologically relevant risks for aquatic organisms.

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41 **Keywords:** physical and chemical parameters; metal(loid) exposure; ecotoxicity; microbiotests; scientometric
42 analysis

43

44

45 1. INTRODUCTION

46 The karst environment is among the most fragile and vulnerable on Earth. In karst regions, water infiltrates rapidly
47 through a highly interconnected network of conduits, caves, and sinkholes formed within soluble carbonate or
48 evaporite bedrock (Parise et al., 2015; Ford and Williams, 2007). Even minor, diffuse inputs at the surface (such
49 as agricultural runoff, septic effluent, or accidental spills) can quickly propagate throughout the entire system,
50 making karst aquifers especially susceptible to contamination (White, 2002). However, many urban areas in karst
51 regions face water quality degradation due to limited or no sewer systems and wastewater treatment plants,
52 resulting in discharge of municipal and industrial wastewaters into karst streams without appropriate treatment
53 (Ford and Williams, 2007; Hillebrand et al., 2012; Malá et al., 2022). Given that karst groundwater supplies up to
54 25% of the world's drinking water, preserving its quality is of critical importance (Goldscheider and Drew, 2007).

55 The methods for assessing the quality of water systems provided in the Water Framework Directive (WFD,
56 Commission Directive 2013/39/ EU) mainly focus on single chemical analyses (Kortenkamp et al., 2019).
57 However, this approach is often insufficient for quality control purposes, since chemical compounds occur as
58 mixtures in the environment. Consequently, it is hard to predict physical, chemical and biological impact of
59 pollutants, especially due to their antagonistic and synergistic effects in mixtures (Mendonça et al., 2013). To
60 fully capture the integrated biological risks posed by these mixtures, there is growing recognition of the need for
61 ecotoxicity testing in karst rivers. In the ecotoxicological testing of mixtures, the contributions and interactions of
62 the individual mixture components are often investigated in the laboratory. However, it is strongly recommended
63 to complement this approach with whole effluent toxicity testing, which characterizes the ecotoxicity of an entire
64 mixture (including undetected and unmeasured substances) and provides an overall assessment of cumulative
65 biological effects (Maloney et al., 2023; Menghini et al., 2023). Although whole effluent toxicity testing is applied
66 in regulatory context, especially in the USA and Canada, linking toxic effects and environmental conditions is
67 still challenging (Vosylienė, 2007). Increasingly, it is proposed to combine multiple bioassays, include organisms
68 with different biological complexity and trophic roles, and expand the range of quantifiable endpoints (Menghini
69 et al., 2023; Vosylienė, 2007).

70 Algae form the base of aquatic food webs and are widely used in phytotoxicity testing due to their sensitivity to
71 chemical and biological changes in the environment (Burton et al., 2002). When compared to other species, algae
72 are more sensitive to a diverse range of potential contaminants, including metals and organic pollutants, and to
73 fluctuations in physical and chemical parameters (Tousova et al., 2018; Xin et al., 2021). Among aquatic

74 invertebrates, daphnids are commonly used in zootoxicity assays due to their broad distribution in a wide range
75 of habitats, sensitivity to numerous environmental contaminants, relatively small size, short life cycle and easy
76 maintenance in the laboratory (Persoone et al., 2009). Essentially, the algae *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata*
77 (Korshikov) F. Hindák, 1990 (initially named *Selenastrum capricornutum* Printz, 1914 and renamed *Raphidocelis*
78 *subcapitata* (Korshikov) Nygaard, 1987) and the crustacean *Daphnia magna* Straus, 1820 are among the most
79 frequently used and recommended species for freshwater toxicity testing, supported by standardized protocols and
80 extensive data on their responses to a range of contaminants (Radix et al., 2000; Weyers et al., 2000; Moreira-
81 Santos et al., 2004).

82 Although whole effluent toxicity assessment was developed in the 1950s, research combining tests on algae and
83 daphnids appears to have begun in the 1990s, partially due to the development of “Toxkit” microbiotests. Unlike
84 earlier bioassays, these commercially available tests contained dormant eggs of selected invertebrate species,
85 immobilized microalgae, or ciliate protozoans and were maintenance-free, resulting in high popularity among
86 researchers in many countries (Persoone et al., 2003). The majority of toxicity tests involving algae and daphnids
87 were conducted to determine the toxicity of a specific chemical substance or compound (Garric et al., 2007; Hund-
88 Rinke et al., 2018), while fewer studies were conducted using effluents or environmental water samples (Kusui et
89 al., 2014; Luan et al., 2020).

90 In order to estimate possible relation between the toxic effects of contaminants and their concentrations and
91 sources under the real environmental conditions, our study was performed in the karst Krka River. It is an ideal
92 environment for conducting such research due to the pristine water at the river source and the direct influence of
93 the mixtures of contaminants from industrial and municipal wastewaters downstream. As a result, ambient river
94 samples and wastewater outlet samples differ in their physical, chemical and organic water parameters, as well as
95 metal(loid) concentrations (Filipović Marijić et al., 2018; Sertić Perić et al., 2018; Mijošek et al., 2023). To assess
96 rapid and ecologically relevant evaluation of toxicity in complex environmental samples, we applied standardized
97 microbiotests using two aquatic species from different trophic levels: the green alga *Pseudokirchneriella*
98 *subcapitata* (primary producer) and the freshwater crustacean *Daphnia magna* (primary consumer). The main
99 objective was to compare experimental and environmental data, i.e. the results of toxicity tests on two species
100 with physical and chemical parameters and metal concentrations in surface freshwater and in wastewaters.
101 Possible relationship between the toxic effects and the effects of pollution on the living organisms in the complex
102 and sensitive karst ecosystem was estimated, thus providing new data expressing the causal relationship between
103 the mixture of pollutants and the toxic effects in environmental samples. To support and contextualize our

104 findings, we also conducted a scientometric analysis using CiteSpace software. This analysis aimed to identify
105 global research trends, major thematic clusters, and existing knowledge gaps in the field of ecotoxicological
106 assessments of wastewaters and surface waters, particularly with respect to studies using multiple test organisms
107 under environmentally relevant conditions. By integrating scientometric insights with original experimental data,
108 we provide both new ecotoxicological information for the Krka River and a broader perspective on how this
109 research contributes to the advancement of knowledge in karst aquatic ecosystems. Finally, assessed the potential
110 and limitations of microbiotests for the detection and quantification of exposure to environmental pollutants and
111 link toxic effects to their chemical causes.

112

113 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

114 **2.1. Sampling procedures**

115 Field research was conducted in the upper part of the Krka River, involving surface water at four localities along
116 the river watercourse. Additionally, industrial wastewater from the basins of the nearby screw factory was directly
117 sampled. Sampling was performed in spring (April 25-27), summer (July 20) and autumn (October 18-20) of
118 2021. Water samples and *in situ* measurements were taken at a depth of 0.1 m, approximately 1 m from the
119 riverbank, involving the source of the Krka River, considered as a reference station without direct anthropogenic
120 impact (KRS); Krka River watercourse downstream of the industrial wastewaters and along the municipal
121 wastewater discharge of the Town of Knin (KRK); tributary Orašnica, which passes along the lagoons with
122 industrial wastewater (TOR); tributary Butišnica, mainly influenced by agricultural runoff (TBU); lagoons with
123 industrial wastewater from the screw factory (IWW) (Fig. S1). Air distance from KRS was 2.8 km for TOR, 2.9
124 km for IWW, 3.7 km for KRK and 4.1 km for TBU. Detailed data on ecological status, long term trends in physical
125 and chemical water parameters and dissolved metal(loid) concentrations were recently described by Šariri et al.
126 (2024) and Mijošek et al. (2023).

127

128 **2.2. Analyses of the physical and chemical water parameters**

129 Measurements of the pH and total dissolved solids (TDS) were measured *in situ* using portable field meters
130 (Mettler Toledo), with exception of industrial wastewater, which was filtered in the laboratory prior to the
131 measurements of pH and TDS due to its extremely poor quality. Other physical and chemical parameters
132 (ammonia, nitrate, total nitrogen and phosphorus, turbidity, chemical oxygen demand (COD) and dissolved CO₂),

133 were analyzed in the laboratory using the respective standardized methods (Hach Lange GmbH, 2013; APHA,
134 2018) as described by Šariri et al. (2024), total organic carbon (TOC) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC)
135 according to HRN EN 1484 (Croatian Normative Document, 2002), while phenols and mineral oils according to
136 ASTM D 4763-6 (2020). Surface river water data were compared with the values outlined in the Directive on
137 water quality status issued by the Government of the Republic of Croatia (Official Gazette of the Republic of
138 Croatia NN 96/2019, 2019), which defines the limit values for the ecological status of various types of water
139 bodies, categorizing them as “very good”, “good”, or “below good”. The industrial wastewater data were
140 compared with the emission limit values defined by the Regulation on limit values for wastewater emissions
141 (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia NN 26/2020, 2020). The aforementioned documents convey the EU
142 Water Framework Directive (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia NN 96/2019, 2019; Official Gazette of
143 the Republic of Croatia NN 26/2020, 2020).

144

145 **2.3. Measurements of total metal(loid) concentrations in water**

146 Mijošek et al. (2023) provided a detailed description of water sampling, as well as the procedure we utilized for
147 the analysis of the total macro and trace elements in water samples using inductively coupled plasma mass
148 spectrometry (ICP-MS, Agilent 7500cx, Agilent Technologies, Tokyo, Japan). For the elements examined, the
149 limits of detection (LODs) varied from 0.0005 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for Cs to 30 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for K. As part of quality control, three
150 certified standard reference materials (NRCC SLRS-5, NIST SRM 1643e, and NIST SRM 1643f) were analyzed,
151 and the recoveries ranged from 92% (Ni) to 109% (Cd) (Table S1).

152

153 **2.4. Toxicity Tests**

154 The toxicity of the samples to aquatic organisms was tested using the Microbiotests Toxkits supplied by
155 MicroBioTestsInc. as Algaltokit FTM (2004) and Daphtokit FTM (2001), which follow the standardized methods
156 and ensure reliable and comparable results (Vosylienė, 2007). Each water sample was collected in 1 L glass bottle,
157 and then stored at 4 °C until the start of the experiments within 48 hours after the sampling. Based on estimation
158 on water quality of the river water samples and according to the kit manufacturer instructions (ISO standard 8692,
159 2012; ISO standard 6341, 2012) water from KRS and TBU was not additionally diluted (used as 100%
160 concentration), while other water samples were diluted with standard freshwater (used as algal culturing medium
161 and hatching medium for crustaceans and provided with necessary nutrients). They were applied in the following

162 concentration ranges: TOR as 100% and 50% concentrations, KRK as 100%, 50% and 25% concentrations and
163 IWW as 100%, 50%, 25%, 12.5% and 6.25% concentrations.

164 **2.4.1. Algal growth inhibition test**

165 The green microalgae were de-immobilized from alginate beads for determination of algal growth inhibition after
166 72 h, according to ISO standard 8692 (2012). The test vials were incubated under controlled conditions in an
167 incubator TC 135 S (Aqualytic, Germany) at 23 ± 2 °C with continuous illumination of 10,000 lx for 24, 48 and 72
168 h. Optical density (OD) was measured at wavelength of 670 nm by UV-Vis spectrophotometer DR6000 (Hach,
169 SAD), which was zero-calibrated with algal growth medium. The cell density of algal stock was adjusted to
170 approximately $1\cdot 10^6$ cells/ml, according to OD/N regression, and initial cell density in each test vial was $1\cdot 10^4$
171 cells/ml. The growth and inhibition rate were calculated using the data from OD measurement for every volume
172 of water sample and the control. Six replicates of controls (untreated) and three replicates of each test water
173 concentration were prepared and applied, followed by triplicate measurements. Potassium dichromate ($K_2Cr_2O_7$)
174 was used as positive control to ensure the validity of the test method. Since the industrial wastewaters were
175 colored, a dilution series without algae was prepared for the IWW samples and used to zero-calibrate the
176 spectrophotometer prior to the daily measurement of OD in the algae-IWW dilutions to minimize interference.

177 **2.4.2. Daphnia immobilization test**

178 The toxicity tests on *D. magna* were carried following ISO 6341 standard method (2012). *D. magna* were hatched
179 from dormant eggs (ephippia) in three days under continuous illumination (6000 lx) at 20-22 °C. Neonates
180 (younger than 24 h) were exposed to the undiluted and diluted samples for 24 h and 48 h at a temperature of 20
181 °C in darkness. Twenty neonates were used for each sample in a series of four wells; each well contained 10 mL
182 of sample and 5 neonates. The toxicity of each sample was evaluated by the estimation of *D. magna*
183 immobilization rates based on the number of dead or immobilized water fleas compared to the number of active
184 organisms tested. Potassium dichromate ($K_2Cr_2O_7$) was used as positive control to ensure the validity of the test
185 method.

186 **2.4.3. Toxicity evaluation**

187 Toxicity was evaluated by means of toxicity effect and the effective concentration. The toxicity effect was
188 expressed as percentage of mortality/immobilization (*Daphnia* test) or inhibition (Algae test), depending on the
189 effect criterion of the respective assay. The effective concentration (EC_{50} , % v/v), causing immobilization or
190 inhibition in 50% of the tested population, was calculated using nonlinear regression analysis (ISO Standard 8692)

191 and performed with software for automated data analysis of *Algaltokit* and *Daphtokit* results, provided by the
192 kit manufacturer MicroBio Tests Inc. All results are presented as mean \pm S.D. The toxicity data were also
193 classified according to the hazard classification system as shown in Table S2 (Persoone et al., 2003), by using the
194 equation $TU = 100/EC_{50}$ to transform toxicity values (EC_{50}) into Toxic Units (TU).

195

196 **2.5. Statistical and scientometric analysis**

197 **2.5.1. Statistics**

198 Statistical analyses and calculations were done using SigmaPlot 11.0 (Systat Software, USA), and SPSS Statistics
199 20.0 (IBM). Total metal(loid) concentrations are presented as mean \pm standard deviation (S.D.). Variability of
200 total metal(loid) concentrations in water samples between the sites and seasons was performed using two-way
201 ANOVA and Holm-Sidak test. Statistically significant differences between sites in each season are marked with
202 different numbers: 0 – significantly different site from all other sites; 1-5 - significantly different site from the
203 sites indicated by specific number as follows: 1- KRS; 2- TOR; 3- KRK; 4- TBU; 5- IWW; differences between
204 seasons for each location are marked with different letters or asterisk: * - significantly different season from all
205 other seasons; a-c - significantly different season from the seasons indicated by specific letter as follows: a –
206 spring; b - summer; c - autumn. Reduction of dimensionality of a multivariate data set was performed by the
207 Principal Component Analysis (PCA).

208 **2.5.2. Scientometric analysis by CiteSpace**

209 The scientometric analysis of the literature on testing the toxicity of effluents with algae and crustaceans was
210 performed using CiteSpace 6.1.R6 (Basic). CiteSpace is a Java application for analyzing and visualizing scientific
211 literature developed by Dr. Chaomei Chen and is increasingly used to identify trends and provide an objective
212 overview of a state of the art. Based on a set of publications, it can create various types of visual analysis maps in
213 which the objects of analysis (e.g., cited references, countries, keywords, etc.) are represented as nodes of a
214 network and linked based on the relationships between them (co-citation, collaboration, co-occurrence, etc.). The
215 importance of each node in a network is proportional to its Betweenness Centrality (BC) value, while Citation
216 Burst (CB), representing an increase in the citation frequency of a node (i.e., a keyword) in a short period of time,
217 can indicate an increase in interest in a particular topic within a research area (Chen, 2006). The burst strength,
218 calculated using Kleinberg's algorithm, quantifies the intensity of this increase, helping to identify emerging
219 trends or influential topics in a research field (Kleinberg 2002).

220 In this study, a dataset was created by searching the topics "alga" AND "daphnia" AND "effluents" AND
221 "toxicity" in the Web of Science Core Collection (WoS), to collect scientific literature combining the whole
222 effluent toxicity testing using both organisms. WoS was used because it proved to be the best data source for the
223 CiteSpace analysis (Mostafaie et al., 2021). The document types and time of publications were not specified. A
224 total of 125 publications from 1992-2022 were found and stored as complete records and cited references. To
225 analyze the collaborations and identify the most important countries in this research domain, a network was
226 created with node type = country, time slice = one year, scale factor k = 15, and node rendering mode = tree ring
227 history. For the same dataset, keyword co-occurrence analysis, clustering, and burst detection were also used to
228 identify the most active topics in the research domain. Accordingly, the node type was changed to keyword, and
229 the other parameters remained the same. After clustering the network nodes, cluster labels were determined based
230 on the title words using the log-likelihood ratio (LLR) algorithm.

231

232 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

233 Karst catchments are vulnerable areas due to the porous nature of karst landscapes which can lead to the pollution
234 of surface and groundwater sources, representing a threat to drinking water supplies. For this reason, the
235 monitoring of water's physical and chemical factors holds great importance, as they serve as reliable indicators
236 of the overall condition. However, it is also beneficial to involve organisms, as they can predict potential threats
237 to aquatic species (Blanck et al., 1984).

238 ***3.1. Trends of the physical and chemical water properties***

239 Detailed characterization on physical and chemical conditions of the Krka River and adjacent industrial
240 wastewaters were previously published by Šariri et al. (2024), so in this study we focused on varying degrees of
241 anthropogenic influence among four sampling locations of the Krka River and assessed the conditions of industrial
242 wastewaters (Table 1). According to limit values for surface water bodies categorized in the Directive (Official
243 Gazette of the Republic of Croatia NN 96/2019, 2019), only water from the reference site, KRS, could be regarded
244 as water of "very good" quality in all seasons, except ammonium concentrations, which were in "good" quality
245 range. When compared to other locations, KRS exhibited the highest level of clarity and the lowest concentrations
246 of TDS, ammonium, nitrogen, nitrates and phosphorus in all seasons. Most parameters at TOR and KRK
247 frequently exceeded the limit values and did not meet the desired quality standards, especially during summer and
248 autumn, while TBU water was of "very good" or "good" quality according to the regulations. This confirmed

249 deteriorated environmental conditions in tributaries which are directly influenced by wastewaters (Table 1). Based
250 on the physico-chemical characterization, the ecological water status in the upper course of the Krka River
251 generally adhered to the following order: KRS>TBU>TOR>KRK.

252 Physical and chemical properties of IWW exceeded emission limit values for many parameters set up for
253 wastewaters (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia NN 26/2020, 2020). Organic parameters were the highest
254 in IWW, but their higher levels were reflected in surface waters of KRK and TOR, which are located in the vicinity
255 of municipal and industrial wastewater discharges, respectively. Therefore, contrary to physical and chemical
256 parameters, concentrations of mineral oils, TOC, DOC and dissolved CO₂ tended to be higher at KRK than TOR,
257 suggesting municipal wastewaters as the primary source of organic compounds in the Krka River (Table 1).

258 Table 1. Physical, chemical and organic parameters of surface waters of the Krka River (sampling sites 1 – 4) and of industrial wastewater (sampling site 5) in three sampling
 259 seasons (spring, summer and autumn) of 2021. According to the limit values for surface water bodies (sampling sites 1-4), those parameters which are categorized in the
 260 Directive (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia NN 96/2019, 2019) are presented as italic for “very good”, underlined for „good“ and bold for „bellow good“ ecological
 261 status, while parameters above emission limit values set for wastewater (sampling site 5) emissions (Official Gazette of the Republic of Croatia NN 26/2020, 2020) are presented
 262 as bold/underlined.

Sampling	Spring (25.-27.4.2021)					Summer (20.7.2021)					Autumn (18.-20.10.2021)				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Parameters	KRS	KRK	TOR	TBU	IWW	KRS	KRK	TOR	TBU	IWW	KRS	KRK	TOR	TBU	IWW
Turbidity / FAU	0	4	8	3	2355	0	4	3	4	35	0	5	2	1	15
Total dissolved solids (TDS) / mg L ⁻¹	193.9	215	564	440	1642	226	291	320	440	2750	216	291	403	478	5290
pH	7.54	7.97	7.61	8.20	7.32	7.58	7.92	7.48	8.20	7.75	7.51	7.78	7.54	8.10	7.89
Dissolved CO ₂ / mg L ⁻¹	4.7	31	2.7	1.1	14.01	4	4.1	1.7	1.6	8.8	5.7	3.6	2	4.9	9.1
Chemical oxygen demand (COD) /mg O ₂ L ⁻¹	0.19	8.83	11	4.6	3030	0.72	165.5	<u>3.02</u>	4.41	2770	0.98	4.18	1.74	<u>3.11</u>	101.7
Ammonium / mg N L ⁻¹	<u>0.02</u>	<u>0.04</u>	0.19	<u>0.02</u>	7.88	0.01	4.6	<u>0.02</u>	<u>0.05</u>	21	<u>0.02</u>	0.09	0.07	<u>0.03</u>	2.4
Total nitrogen / mg N L ⁻¹	0.1	<u>0.8</u>	1.9	0.6	21.2	0.2	6.5	0.5	<u>0.8</u>	60	0.3	3	1.8	<u>0.8</u>	69
Nitrate / mg N L ⁻¹	0.08	0.15	0.22	0.11	7.09	0.04	0.41	0.02	0.1	3.07	0.11	0.21	0.25	0.03	3.07
Total phosphorus / mg P L ⁻¹	0.009	0.084	<u>0.053</u>	0.012	2.21	0.003	0.89	0.086	0.014	8.54	0.004	0.087	0.017	<u>0.037</u>	1.3
Mineral oils / µg L ⁻¹	< 5	< 5	56.7	< 5	38177	< 5	1863	380	< 5	24902	< 5	1787	540	< 5	56811
Phenols / µg L ⁻¹	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	46.8	< 5	< 5	< 5	< 5	182
Total organic carbon (TOC) / mgL ⁻¹	1.476	1.552	4.321	1.694	100.0	1.064	6.783	6.042	2.798	22.82	1.557	8.164	1.775	2.468	21.18
Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) / mgL ⁻¹	1.381	1.496	3.519	1.272	76.36	0.876	5.483	2.517	1.272	11.97	0.268	7.794	1.535	1.021	20.36

263

264 **3.2. Trends of the total metal(loid) concentrations in water**

265 The average total concentrations of almost all elements were the highest in basins of IWW, even significantly
266 higher compared to the other sites in the Krka River in all seasons (Table S3). Levels of Fe, Zn, Cs and Co were
267 up to 1778 times, 1207 times, 450 times and 450 times higher at IWW than at TBU and KRS, respectively. Such
268 trend is consistent with the “good” to “very good” ecological status of TBU and KRS (Table 1). Moreover,
269 concentrations of several metal(loid)s at IWW were higher than at TOR (Cs: 91x, Zn: 65x, Cu: 63x, As: 30x), the
270 site nearest to basins with industrial wastewater and characterized as having a “below good” ecological status in
271 the Krka River (Table 1). Given the widespread industrial application of the aforementioned elements, particularly
272 Fe and Cu in a screw production, it is evident that the IWW has a strong influence and presents a potential danger
273 for aquatic organisms in the Krka River (Filipović Marijić et al., 2018; Mijošek et al., 2023).

274 The differences among the sampling sites in the Krka River, excluding IWW, mostly were not statistically
275 significant and were still rather low and typical for karst ecosystems (Table S3), suggesting the efficiency of self-
276 purification process (Filipović Marijić et al., 2018; Cukrov et al., 2008). Nevertheless, average concentrations of
277 As, Cd, Co, Cu, Fe, Na, Ni, and Zn were clearly higher at TOR and KRK, influenced by wastewater discharges,
278 than at KRS and TBU (Table S3).

279 Seasonal patterns for the majority of elements showed higher levels in summer than in other two seasons, probably
280 as a consequence of low water levels during summer months. A similar trend was not seen in IWW, where
281 metal(loid) concentrations (particularly As, Cu, Fe, and Ni) (Table S3) and organic matter (Table 1) peaked in
282 spring, probably signifying the moment of wastewater discharge (Šariri et al., 2024). Similar patterns of increasing
283 metal(loid) concentrations and higher TOC and DOC values were also noted at other locations, mostly in the
284 summer (Table S3).

285

286 **3.3. Toxicity evaluation**

287 In addition to the analysis of physical, chemical and organic parameters and total metal(loid) concentrations,
288 which provide an assessment of the present conditions and require long-term monitoring, biological analyses can
289 give insight in potential toxicity and anthropogenic impact on the aquatic organisms within the sensitive karst
290 ecosystem. Moreover, the inclusion of toxicity biotests has become increasingly important for potential hazards
291 evaluation (Wolska et al., 2007).

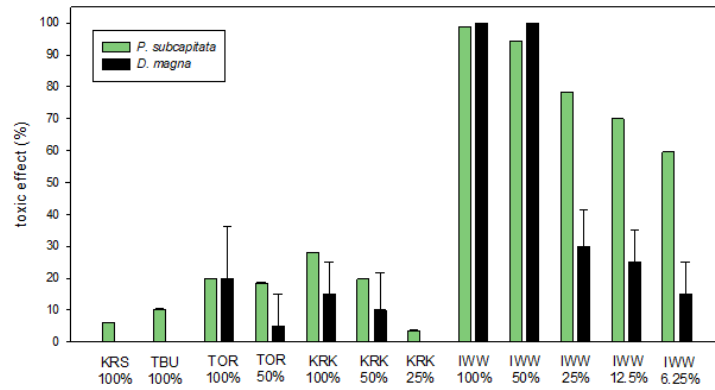
292 **3.3.1. Toxicity effects**

293 The samples of surface Krka River water (sites KRK, TBU, TOR and KRK) mostly did not show toxic effect
294 regarding *Daphnia* toxicity test (0-20% immobilization in all sites and seasons of 2021). Slightly higher toxic
295 effect was observed at TOR and KRK than at other sites, probably confirming impact of industrial and municipal
296 wastewaters at these locations (Fig. 1). Inhibition of algae growth varied more among sites and seasons than
297 immobilization of daphnids, also indicating marginal effects in undiluted water samples from TOR (26.7% in
298 autumn, Fig. 1c) and KRK (46.0% in summer and 82.7% in autumn, Fig. 1b, 1c). In spring, toxic effects on algae
299 were less pronounced, but still detected at all locations (6.08-28.0%, Fig. 1a). Contrary, the wastewater at IWW
300 exhibited high toxicity in both tests. During the spring, the toxic effect of undiluted and 50%-diluted IWW samples
301 was confirmed by the 94.4% to 98.9% inhibition of phytoplankton growth and the 100% immobilization of *D.*
302 *magna* (Fig. 1a). Industrial wastewaters showed lower toxic effects in summer than in spring (84.6% inhibition
303 of algae growth; 20% immobilization of *D. magna*, Fig. 1b), which coincides to lower levels of metal(loid)s and
304 some physical and chemical water parameters at that location (Table 1, Table S3).

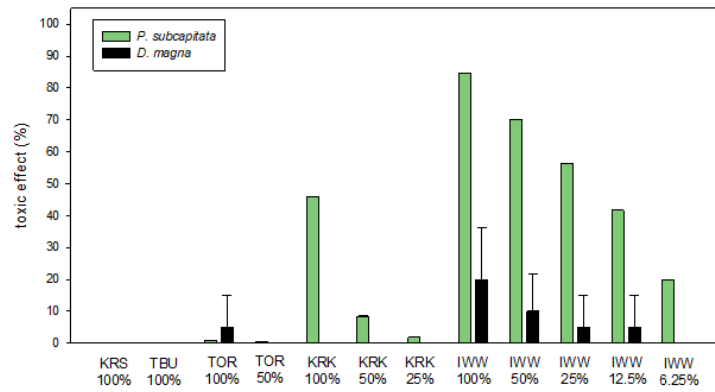
305 Differences between seasons were more pronounced in *Daphnia* test, where the toxic effect recorded for IWW in
306 summer was 5 times lower than in spring (Figs. 1a, 1b). In autumn, the inhibition of algae growth was 98.3% and
307 immobilization of *D. magna* 100% (Fig. 1c), which corresponded to the maximum levels of phenols, mineral oils,
308 total nitrogen and TDS compared to spring and summer (Table 1). Overall, impact of physical and chemical
309 disturbances and contaminant mixtures resulted in the highest toxicity observed at IWW, but also toxic effects
310 were recorded at locations near wastewater outlets in the Krka River (Fig. 1). Comparison of the two testing
311 organisms, primary producer and primary consumer, indicated that algae *P. subcapitata* was more sensitive to
312 pollution than *D. magna*, with a higher percentage of toxic effect evident in all seasons (Fig. 1). In addition, water
313 from KRK and TOR had a discernible effect solely on algae, with the exception of spring when minor effects
314 were observed on both algae and daphnids (Fig. 1a). These findings are consistent with previous studies, reporting
315 that among four toxicity tests to 16 chemicals algae were more sensitive compared to bacteria, rotifers and *D.*
316 *magna* (Radix et al., 2000), and that *P. subcapitata* was shown as very sensitive to herbicides and fungicides (Yeh
317 and Chen, 2006), both of which may be present in the area of the Town of Knin due to agricultural practices. Still,
318 the proposed limitation of algae as primary producers is their inability to predict chronic toxicity to higher
319 organisms, necessitating the further use of invertebrates like *D. magna*.

320

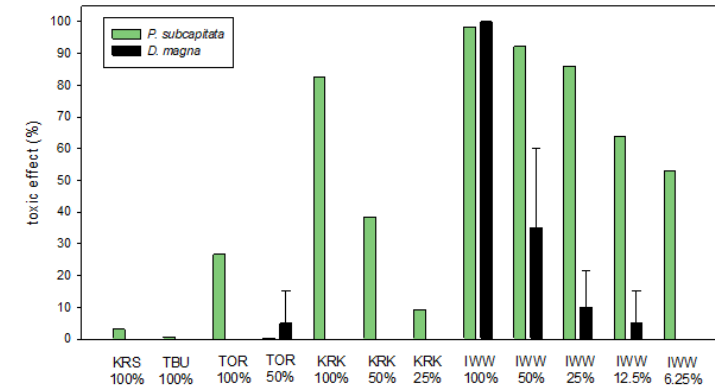
a)



b)



c)



321

322 Fig. 1. Toxic effects (%) on *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata* and *Daphnia magna* using dilution series of river
 323 water (sampling sites: KRS, TBU, TOR, KRK- 25; 50; 100%) and wastewater (sampling site: IWW- 6.25; 12.5;
 324 25; 50; 100%) sampled in: a) spring; b) summer; c) autumn of 2021. The values of the standard deviations range
 325 from 0.02% to 0.18% for the growth inhibition of *P. subcapitata* and from 0.00% to 25.17% for the immobilization
 326 of *D. magna*.

327

328 **3.3.2. Hazard toxicity classification**

329 Based on hazard classification system (Table S2) (Persoone et al., 2003), only KRK water showed acute toxicity
 330 (TU = 2, hazard class III) for both tested species when surface river water was considered, indicating high
 331 sensitivity of the karst river water to the pressure of organic compounds. Industrial wastewater was classified as
 332 high acute toxicity (TU = 18 for daphnids and 32 for algae, hazard class IV) (Table 2). Generally, our results
 333 confirmed toxic effects of water from sites with direct influence of municipal (KRK) and industrial (IWW)
 334 wastewaters. Calculated EC₅₀ (% v/v) for KRK river water was 50 for both testing organisms and for IWW 5.55
 335 for *D. magna* and 3.125 for *P. subcapitata* (Table 2). In summary, the increase in toxicity of the analyzed river
 336 and wastewater samples follows the order: KRS ≤ TBU < TOR < KRK < IWW.

337

338 Table 2. Toxicity classification for analyzed samples of the river water and wastewater from the Krka River
 339 catchment

Sampling sites	Testing organism	EC ₅₀ % (vol/vol)	Toxicity unit (TU)	Hazard class	Toxicity
KRS	<i>D. magna</i>	> 100	< 0,4	I	No acute toxicity
	<i>P. subcapitata</i>	> 100	< 0,4	I	No acute toxicity
TBU	<i>D. magna</i>	> 100	< 0,4	I	No acute toxicity
	<i>P. subcapitata</i>	> 100	< 0,4	I	No acute toxicity
TOR	<i>D. magna</i>	> 100	< 0,4	I	No acute toxicity
	<i>P. subcapitata</i>	> 100	< 0,4	I	No acute toxicity
KRK	<i>D. magna</i>	50	2	III	Acute toxicity
	<i>P. subcapitata</i>	50	2	III	Acute toxicity
IWW	<i>D. magna</i>	5.55	18	IV	High acute toxicity
	<i>P. subcapitata</i>	3.125	32	IV	High acute toxicity

340

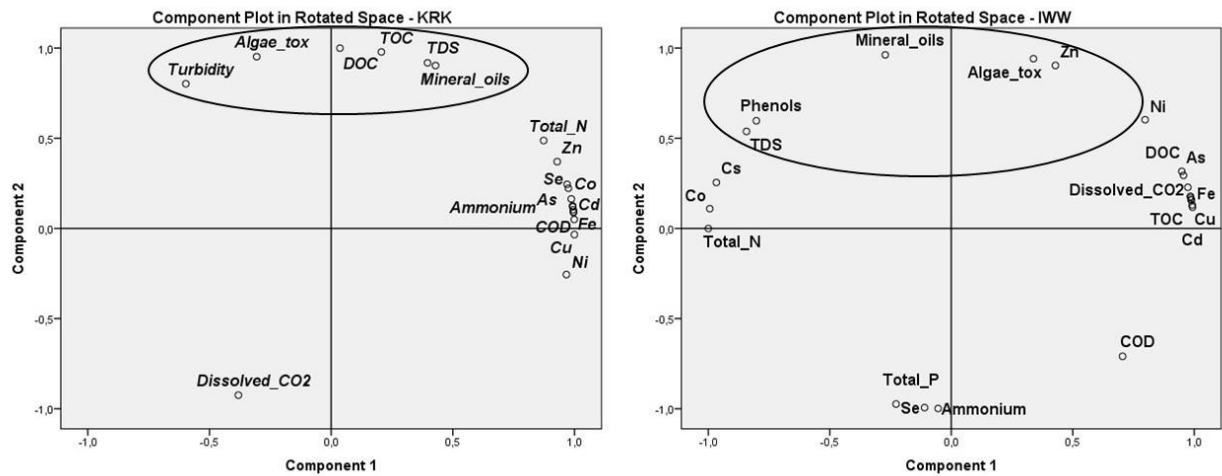
341

342 **3.4. Association of water quality and toxic effects on aquatic organisms**

343 Our results pointed to the toxic effects recorded at site of the Krka River directly influenced by municipal
344 wastewaters (KRK). Although situated in the vicinity and under the influence of IWW, site TOR was not classified
345 as being acutely toxic (Table 2), indicating a higher sensitivity of the karst river water to the pressure of organic
346 compounds, which are usually abundant in municipal wastewaters (KRK), rather than to the higher metal
347 concentrations resulting from IWW. However, due to the complexity of the environmental conditions and physical
348 and chemical matrix, it is extremely challenging, if not impossible, to establish a complete link with their
349 respective degrees of toxicity. This is also in agreement with reports from similar studies on complex samples in
350 which no clear relationship between the ecotoxicological findings and the results of the chemical analyses could
351 be established (Persoone et al., 2003).

352 Accordingly, we performed Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to correlate results obtained by microbiotests
353 (toxicity) with chemical analyses (metal(loid) levels and physical and chemical parameters), considering the sites
354 with the highest hazard toxicity class, and one of them belonging to the Krka River watercourse (KRK) and the
355 other to the basins with industrial wastewater (IWW). Two components, using Varimax rotation with Kaiser
356 Normalization, were extracted explaining 66.7% of variance at KRK and 65.7% at IWW (Fig. 2). At both
357 locations, association among different metal(loid)s was specific for the first component, while most of the organic
358 parameters and data on toxic effects on algae were associated in the second component. Specifically, at KRK in
359 the first component all metal(loid)s with COD, total N, total P and ammonium were extracted, while second
360 component combined toxic effect on algae with TDS, turbidity, TOC, DOC and mineral oils. At IWW the first
361 component combined metal(loid)s, dissolved CO₂, COD, TOC, DOC and nitrates, while in the second component
362 toxic effects on algae were linked with TDS, mineral oils, phenols, but also Zn and Cs (Fig. 2). Such integrated
363 approach confirmed municipal wastewaters as the primary source of organic compounds in the Krka River, with
364 the highest influence on toxic impact on algae inhibition growth. Also, previous conclusion on seasonal variability
365 of parameters at KRK showed the same patterns of toxic effects with TOC and DOC, mineral oils, nitrates,
366 ammonium, nitrogen and TDS, but most of the metal(loid) concentrations did not show similar pattern among
367 seasons (Table 1, Table S3), what was reflected in multivariate analysis. On the other hand, the relationship
368 between physical and chemical variations and toxic effects was probably more specific in the basins into which
369 wastewater is directly discharged (IWW), due to the lack of natural seasonality, circulation and self-purification,
370 as well as the specific composition (metal(loid)s used in industry) and timing of wastewater discharge (Šariri et
371 al., 2024).

372



373

374 Fig. 2. Principal component plot using Varimax rotation for toxic impact observed on algae (Algae_tox) and
375 physical and chemical parameters at site under the direct influence of municipal wastewaters (KRK) and industrial
376 wastewater from the basins of the screw factory (IWW), showing association of parameters in two principal
377 components (circled parameters are associated with toxic effects on algae).

378

379

380 3.5. CiteSpace analysis of the literature data

381 A comprehensive search of the WoS database revealed that 125 publications were published worldwide between
382 1992 and 2022 using a combination of the terms "alga," "daphnia", "effluents", and "toxicity", presenting a
383 relatively small number. Nevertheless, the number of publications in this research domain is increasing, with the
384 majority of publications from our dataset published in recent years (41% between 2016 and 2022), highlighting
385 both the current relevance of the topic and the continued scarcity of experimental data, such as the toxicity
386 assessment of the Krka River presented above (Fig. S2).

387 3.5.1. The country collaboration analysis

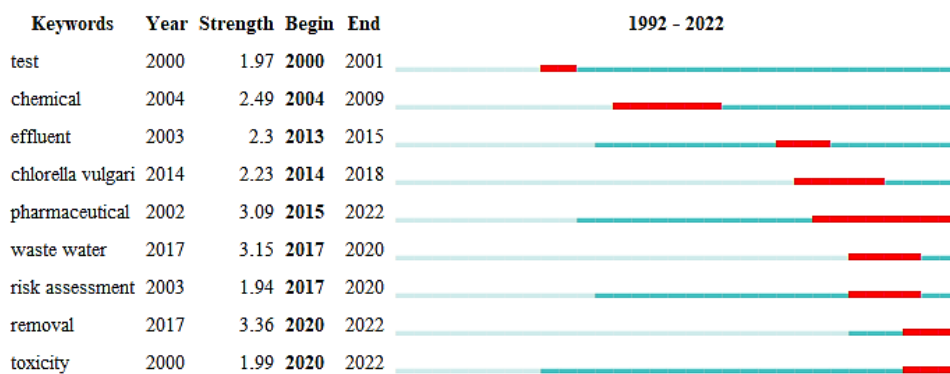
388 Research connecting terms "alga," "daphnia", "effluents" and "toxicity" was conducted in a total of 37 countries,
389 with most articles published by authors from Germany (13), Italy (13), the United States (13), England (12), and
390 Portugal (12) (Fig. S3). However, it contained only 65 links between nodes and 57% of the included countries
391 had a BC of 0.00, showing the significant lack of international collaborations in this research domain. Similar to

392 the number of publications, the highest BC values were found in European countries, namely Germany (0.44),
 393 Belgium (0.27), England (0.19), Italy (0.17), and Portugal (0.13), probably due to common project funding
 394 opportunities and similar environmental standards and regulations related to biomonitoring and effluent toxicity
 395 control. Among non-European countries, the United States and Japan had the highest BC.

396 **3.5.2. The keyword co-occurrence analysis**

397 Apart from the basic keywords "toxicity" and "effluent", the top three keywords in terms of frequency and
 398 centrality were "*Daphnia magna*" (43 occurrences, centrality of 0.77), followed by "pharmaceutical" (15
 399 occurrences, centrality of 0.18), and "acute toxicity" (12 occurrences, centrality of 0.19). Burst detection of
 400 keywords, as indicators of emerging trends, showed that the keywords "test" and "chemical" appeared more
 401 frequently in the papers published in the early 2000s, while more keywords started to burst since 2013 (Fig. 3).
 402 Although our dataset contained the papers published in 1992–2022 period, no significant trend keyword was
 403 observed until 2000. The keywords with the most recent bursts were "removal", "waste water", "pharmaceutical",
 404 "toxicity" and "risk assessment". Among them, "pharmaceutical", "toxicity" and "risk assessment" were used in
 405 the early 2000s but gained more attention after 2015, 2017 and 2020, respectively. On the other hand, "removal"
 406 and "waste water" appeared in publications for the first time in recent years and bursted shortly after. These are
 407 also two keywords with the highest burst strength (3.36 and 3.15). Although our experimental study does not fall
 408 under the currently prominent topic of contaminant removal, such as the elimination of pharmaceuticals from
 409 wastewater, keyword burst detection confirmed that toxicity testing and the environmental risk assessment of
 410 wastewater remain highly relevant. A distinctive contribution of our research lies in the assessment of surface
 411 waters within a karst ecosystem and the integration of toxicity results with environmental data—both of which
 412 are relatively understudied areas not reflected among the most frequently cited keywords.

Top 9 Keywords with the Strongest Citation Bursts



413

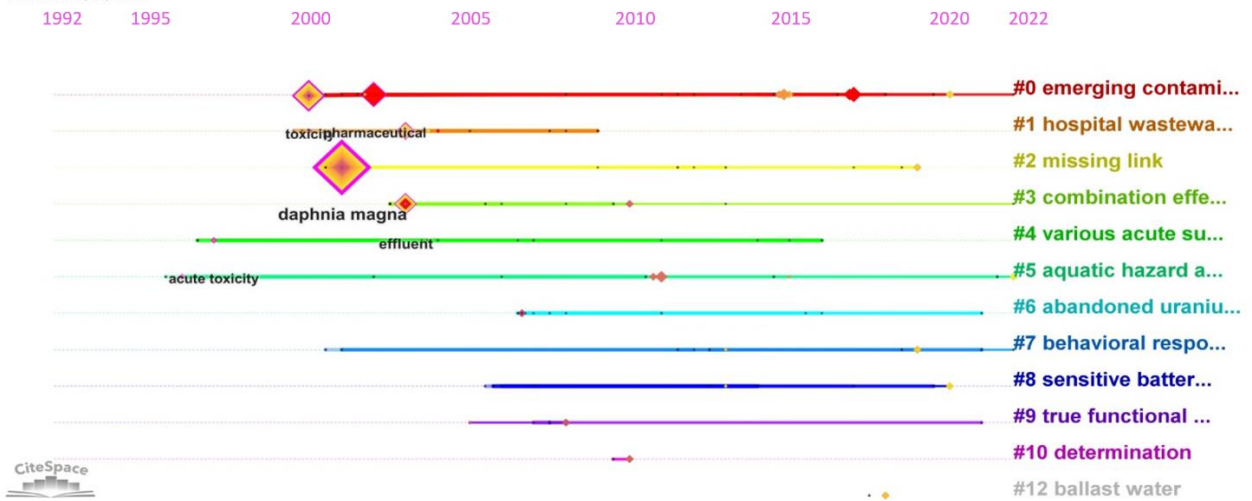
414 Fig. 3. Keywords indicating the major trends in research connecting topics "alga", "daphnia", "effluents" and
415 "toxicity" from 1992 to 2022. The period in which each keyword occurs most frequently in the analyzed
416 literature is highlighted in red.

417

418 The network of keywords was divided into 12 clusters (Fig. 4). The largest cluster, resulting from this analysis,
419 labeled as "#0 emerging contaminant" (size 46, silhouette 0.752), contained many more members than other
420 clusters. The size of the second largest cluster, labeled as "#1 hospital wastewater" (silhouette value 0.906), was
421 29. Both of them contained research papers that used a battery of toxicological tests, primarily to assess the toxicity
422 of pharmaceuticals, but also disinfectants, illicit drugs, pesticides and persistent organic pollutants from
423 wastewater and diffuse pollutant sources. However, cluster #1 contained much older publications (mean year
424 2005) than cluster #0 (mean year 2013).

425 Based on the mean years of publications in the obtained clusters, studies have previously been focused on
426 assessing toxicity of environmental samples (#3 combination effect (2007)) and effluents from hospitals,
427 industries and mines (#1 hospital wastewater (2005), #10 determination (2010), #6 abandoned uranium mine
428 (2010)), but also of specific contaminants in environmental samples (#1 hospital wastewater (2005), #5 aquatic
429 hazard assessment (2009), #9 true functional environmental genomics (2009)), shifting from acute to sublethal
430 toxicity indicators and linking laboratory and field effects (#4 various acute sublethal (2005), #2 missing link
431 (2008), #9 true functional environmental genomics (2009)). Research on effluent toxicity to algae and daphnids
432 has increased over the past decade, and recent studies have focused on assessing the effects of exposure to
433 emerging contaminants and metals using the battery of toxicity tests (#0 emerging contaminant (2013), #8
434 sensitive battery (2013)), the use of sublethal endpoints in toxicity tests (#0 emerging contaminant (2013), #7
435 behavioral responses (2014)), and the effects of water treatment methods prior to discharge to the environment on
436 its toxicity (#0 emerging contaminant (2013), #7 behavioral responses (2014), #12 ballast water (2018)).

CiteSpace, v. 5.1.R6 (64-bit) Basic
 February 2, 2023 at 3:18:54 PM CET
 WoS: C:\Users\isaras\Documents\CiteSpace\toxicity_test\alga daphnia effluents toxicity\data
 Timespan: 1992-2022 (Slice Length=1)
 Selection Criteria: g-index (q=1), LRF=3.0, L/N=10, LBY=50, e=50.0
 Network: N=297, E=1148 (Density=0.0261)
 Largest CC: 28 (9%)
 Nodes Labeled: 1.0%
 Pruning: None
 Modularity Q=0.6099
 Weighted Mean Silhouette S=0.852
 Harmonic Mean(Q, S)=0.7109



437

438

439 Fig. 4. Timeview of the clustered network of co-occurring keywords (diamonds) created from the literature linking
 440 the topics "alga", "daphnia", "effluents" and "toxicity".

441

442 Both the keyword burst detection and clustering results pointed to the same research trend over the last decade:
 443 the use of the battery of toxicity tests to evaluate the effects of mixtures of compounds present in wastewater
 444 effluents and, consequently, surface waters. This mainly included emerging contaminants, but also metals to a
 445 lesser extent. Since the results of toxicity tests of wastewaters were often highly variable due to their complex
 446 composition and different sensitivity of model organisms in bioassays, it was concluded that the use of a battery
 447 of toxicity tests with organisms of different trophic levels is a more effective approach (Liwarska-Bizukojc, 2022).
 448 In line with this current state of the art, our experimental study on the Krka River contributes novel data on a karst
 449 ecosystem by utilizing organisms from two distinct trophic levels, testing whole effluents and surface waters
 450 rather than isolated chemicals in laboratory settings, and linking observed toxic effects with metal contamination.

451 The clustering and burst detection results indicated that the toxicity of pharmaceuticals to aquatic ecosystems was
 452 recognized as an important research topic in early 2000s (leading to the discovery of other similarly hazardous
 453 compounds in wastewater effluents) and continues to be studied in recent years under the group term “emerging
 454 contaminants”. Emerging contaminants are diverse chemical compounds (pharmaceuticals, illicit drugs, personal
 455 care products, etc.) that often enter surface waters with wastewater, for which there are no environmental

456 monitoring regulations, and which have recently been recognized as concerning aquatic pollutants due to their
457 adverse effects on the endocrine system of humans and wildlife. Since only few of these compounds have been
458 toxicologically evaluated and there are ongoing policy initiatives to standardize their research and propose
459 regulations, it is understandable that research on effluent toxicity to algae and daphnids has prioritized “emerging
460 contaminants” in recent years (Petrie et al., 2015). Although emerging contaminants were not included in the
461 present toxicity study on the Krka River, we plan to address this in the future research by investigating
462 microplastics—highly prevalent wastewater-related contaminants whose toxic effects remain largely unknown.
463 This planned work will further enhance our understanding of pollution-related risks in karst aquatic ecosystems
464 and contribute to more comprehensive environmental monitoring strategies.

465

466 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

467 Based on the physical and chemical thresholds set in the Croatian Regulation, poor water quality was found in the
468 basins with wastewater from the screw factory (IWW) and downstream in the Krka River, especially at the site
469 directly exposed to the municipal wastewater outlets (KRK). Higher concentrations of mineral oils, TOC, DOC
470 and dissolved CO₂ at KRK indicated municipal wastewaters as the primary source of organic compounds, while
471 concentrations of total metal(loid)s in water confirmed IWW as an important source of pollution in the Krka River,
472 especially of metal(loid)s used in industry (Cr, Cu, Fe, or Ni).

473 Generally, toxic effects on *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata* and *Daphnia magna* were consistent with the
474 chemical data recorded in the Krka River, resulting in acute toxicity (TU = 2, hazard class III) at KRK, which is
475 contaminated by organic compounds. Moreover, high acute toxicity was found at IWW (TU = 18 for daphnids
476 and 32 for algae, hazard class IV), basins with industrial wastewater. Algae were shown to be more sensitive to
477 wastewater pollution than crustaceans. Moreover, integral view on ecotoxicological effects and physical and
478 chemical parameters based on multivariate PCA analysis confirmed stronger association of certain organic
479 compounds with the toxic effects on algae than of metal(loid) concentrations.

480 CiteSpace, a scientometric analysis tool applied to global publications on effluent toxicity, has shown that research
481 on algae and daphnids has increased over the past decade, focusing on emerging contaminants (mainly
482 pharmaceuticals and metals) using the battery of toxicity tests. Based on the Betweenness Centrality, European
483 countries play the key role in these scientific topics. These findings indicate that our study is among the few that
484 presents a holistic assessment of the mixture of contaminants and their toxicity. While incorporating current

485 recommendations and aligning with recent research trends identified through CiteSpace, our work provides a
486 comprehensive and ecologically valuable evaluation of the effects of toxic compounds and the relationship
487 between water quality parameters and toxicity in a complex and vulnerable karst river system, which is an
488 ecosystem that remains underrepresented in toxicity studies.

489

490

491 **Statements and Declarations**

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498 **Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
499 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

500 **Data availability:** The authors declare that the data supporting the findings of this study are available within the
501 paper and its Supplementary Information files. Should any raw data files be needed in another format they are
502 available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

503 **Author contributions:** Sara Šariri - Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing – original draft, Writing – review &
504 editing; Želimira Cvetković - Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Supervision, Writing – original draft,
505 Writing – review & editing; Tatjana Mijošek - Formal Analysis, Investigation, Writing – original draft, Writing –
506 review & editing; Zorana Kljaković-Gašpić - Formal Analysis, Investigation, Writing – review & editing; Damir
507 Valić – Investigation; Tomislav Kralj - Investigation; Amalia Brkić - Formal Analysis, Writing – review & editing;
508 Vlatka Filipović Marijić – Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Project administration,
509 Resources, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. The first draft of the manuscript was
510 written by Sara Šariri and all authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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