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1 **Landfills' Environmental Impacts: Perspectives on Biomonitoring**

2

3 Magdalena Daria Vaverková^{1*}, Evan K. Paleologos², Venkata Siva Naga Sai Goli³, Eugeniusz4 Koda⁴, Arif Mohammad⁵, Anna Podlasek⁶, Jan Winkler⁷, Aleksandra Jakimiuk⁸, Martin5 Černý⁹, Devendra Narain Singh¹⁰

6

7 ¹Professor, Institute of Civil Engineering, Warsaw University Life Sciences – SGGW, Warsaw,

8 Poland, Faculty of AgriSciences, Mendel University in Brno, Brno, Czech Republic;

9 <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2384-6207>10 ²Professor, College of Engineering, Abu Dhabi University, Abu Dhabi, UAE,11 <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3582-2288>12 ³Research Scholar, Department of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Bombay,13 Mumbai, India, <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1916-725X>14 ⁴Professor, Institute of Civil Engineering, Warsaw University of Life Sciences – SGGW,15 Warsaw, Poland, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3895-960X>16 ⁵Postdoc, Department of Civil Engineering, School of Engineering, Cardiff University, Cardiff,17 UK, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1815-5073>18 ⁶ Assistant Professor, Institute of Civil Engineering, Warsaw University Life Sciences –19 SGGW, Warsaw, Poland, <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0326-5672>20 ⁷Assistant Professor, Department of Plant Biology, Faculty of AgriSciences, Mendel University21 in Brno, Brno, Czech Republic, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5700-2176>22 ⁸PhD Student, Institute of Civil Engineering, Warsaw University Life Sciences – SGGW,23 Warsaw, Poland, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4444-2260>24 ⁹PhD Student, Department of Plant Biology, Faculty of AgriSciences, Mendel University in25 Brno, Brno, Czech Republic, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0651-4219>

26 ¹⁰D.L. Shah Chair Professor for Innovation, Department of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute
27 of Technology Bombay, Mumbai, India, <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3832-1507>

28

29 *Corresponding author: Magdalena Daria Vaverková, magdalena_vaverkova@sggw.edu.pl;
30 magdalena.vaverkova@mendelu.cz

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53 **Abstract**

54 Environmental regulations on landfills contain detailed instructions for the monitoring of
55 pollution from leachate on water, air, and soil. However, references to the impact of landfills
56 on the landscape and the need to monitor the surrounding vegetation are described only in
57 general terms. Studies have indicated that near-surface pollution events, which are not
58 necessarily captured by existing regulatory monitoring schemes, have affected the vegetation
59 in the vicinity of landfills. Indications for the effects of pollution emanating from landfills
60 include the retreat of sensitive and native plant species, the abundance of halophytes or
61 nitrophilous plants, and the prevalence of other invasive plant species, which can spread to
62 adjacent ecosystems. To the best of the authors' knowledge, a comprehensive synthesis of
63 landfill plant-based biomonitoring results has not yet been reported. The advantage of
64 biomonitoring lies in its ability to assess the quality of the environment as perceived by living
65 organisms. This would facilitate the determination of the response of plants to departures from
66 natural conditions, detection of trends occurring in ecosystems, and adoption of management
67 practices to prevent or mitigate degradation of the environment. Thus, to detect such effects on
68 the flora surrounding a landfill, this article recommends that biomonitoring is utilized in
69 environmental regulations to complement existing monitoring techniques.

70

71 **Keywords:** Landfills; Biomonitoring; Municipal solid waste regulations; Vegetation impacts
72 from pollution; Active biomonitoring; Passive biomonitoring

73

74 **1. Introduction**

75 Despite significant efforts to recycle and compost municipal solid waste (MSW) the amount of
76 MSW generated continues to increase globally. Although MSW management practices have
77 made significant progress over the last 60 years, the problem of MSW disposal, instead of being
78 alleviated, has become more severe. As indicated by [Paleologos et al. \(2016\)](#) this increase in

79 MSW over the years cannot be simply attributed to the population increase, but it is more
80 complex, the result of modern lifestyle factors. It is therefore apparent that although modern
81 MSW management practices can partially mitigate the effect of modern habits of consumerism,
82 to reverse the trends of increased MSW, a significant change in material utilization and waste
83 generation needs to take place, as envisioned by the circular economy approach. Given that
84 landfilling is still the prevalent way of disposing MSW in advanced countries, and the only way
85 of waste disposal in less developed ones, and the fact that existing landfilled waste will continue
86 to decompose for several decades, while engineered measures at the landfill will deteriorate,
87 and also that, globally, the generated per capita MSW rate is projected by the World Bank to
88 increase from 1.2 kg/person/day to 1.42 kg/person/day by 2025 (Hoornweg & Bhada-Tata,
89 2012), monitoring and taking measures to reduce the impact of landfills on the environment
90 becomes of paramount importance (Koda, 2012).

91

92 Municipal solid waste landfill facilities' (MSWLF) technical specifications, liability
93 requirements, protection of public health and the environment, monitoring, enforcement and
94 penalties, remediation, and post-closure care and redevelopment of landfilled sites have been
95 the focus of several laws, policies, regulations, and practices worldwide (Mohamed &
96 Paleologos, 2017; Vaverková, 2018; Koda et al., 2021). Enhanced landfill mining (LFM), the
97 utilization of generated residues, popularly known as landfill mined residues (LMRs), has
98 emerged as a practice to recover useful materials, such as landfill-mined-soil-like-fractions
99 (LFMSF), combustibles/synthetic polymers (plastics, textiles and rubber waste), and
100 recyclables, such as glass, metals, construction and demolition (C&D) waste, and wood waste
101 (Hernández Parrodi et al., 2018; Mohammad et al., 2021; Goli et al., 2022b).

102

103 Monitoring the ecological status of the area around a landfill has drawn little attention both in
104 the US and European landfill regulations. Given that the siting of a landfill follows the selection

105 of a site where an aquifer system is found at a depth, it cannot be argued that groundwater
106 monitoring wells can provide information on pollution incidents close to the ground surface,
107 which may affect the flora and fauna of the area surrounding the landfill. Additionally, ambient
108 air monitoring at landfills concentrates on CH₄, CO₂, non-methane organic compounds
109 (NMOC), volatile organic compounds (VOC), hydrogen sulfide, particulate matter (PM), and
110 emissions from combustion products of LFG (flares, engines, etc.), such as NO_x, and CO (EC,
111 1999, Annex III; US EPA, 1999, 2008). Although, there may exist toxicological and
112 epidemiological studies on the effects of several of those gases on human health, relationships
113 with the wellbeing, growth, and development of plants are at best tentative. Finally, despite
114 measures, precipitation and lateral water inflows enter a landfill body hence, they contribute to
115 pollutant migration through the unsaturated zone. **Figure 1** from MSWLF sites clearly shows
116 the presence of vegetation at these locations and summarizes also the threats from landfills to
117 the environment. It seems that biomonitoring - the practice of monitoring the impact of landfills
118 on the health of organisms and ecosystems, as well as the structure and function of the
119 surrounding landfill landscape - is an area where current landfill regulations need to be updated
120 (Vaverková, 2019; Vaverková et al, 2019 a, b; Vaverková et al., 2020; Vaverková et al., 2022).

121

122 The development of bioindication methods dates to the beginning of the 20th century. In the
123 1960s, interest of the scientific community in issues related to the reactions of living organisms
124 to pollutants increased (Pott & Turpin, 1996; Holt & Miller, 2011). The use of bio-indicators
125 has emerged as a valuable tool for assessing the impact of landfills and other pollution sites on
126 the environment. Bio-indicators are identified through differentiation of response methods,
127 such as changes in color, shape, and size of the organism, initial reaction to pollution, and
128 correlation of population size with type of pollutant (Mahmood et al., 2019; Korbut et al., 2021).

129

130 Although bioindicators are used to assess the quality of air, soil, and water in many scientific
131 publications, only few studies have focused on their application in landfills. The current article
132 addresses biomonitoring as a technique in the context of geoenvironmental pollution caused by
133 landfills by considering the principles, potential, and future perspectives of biomonitoring.
134 Emphasis is placed on the plant species that are used in environmental surveys to evaluate
135 anthropogenic pollution. Furthermore, this paper describes commonly used candidates for
136 biomonitoring in the field of environmental pollution, with a special emphasis on the landfill
137 environment. To the best of the authors' knowledge, no comprehensive review has been
138 published to date that would describe the biomonitoring of landfill vegetation. The current
139 article aims to close this research gap and to provide suggestions for amending monitoring
140 regulatory requirements.

141

142 **2. Bioindication and bioindicators**

143 Bioindication, the determination of changes in the environment by means of biological
144 indicators, which include plants (phytoindicators) or animals (zooindicators), or even whole
145 biocoenoses, is one of the methods used to monitor industrial pollution and environmental
146 contamination (Wolterbeek, 2002; Parmar et al., 2016; Al-Alam et al., 2019). Knowledge of
147 the life requirements of fungi, plants, and animals, as well as their tolerance to different external
148 factors, allows the study of the state of the environment (Begu, 2014; Parmar et al., 2016; Urvat
149 et al., 2004; Yu et al., 2018). Thus, the responses of living organisms to positive or negative
150 environmental changes can be used in environmental pollution assessments.

151

152 **2.1. Information value of plants (phytoindicaton)**

153 The earliest application of phytoindication as a diagnostic tool to assess the abiotic conditions
154 in an environment involved identifying the presence or absence of plant species with known
155 ecological and site-specific requirements (Zadorozhna, 2017; Kunakh & Fedayay, 2020). It has

156 been demonstrated that the ecological amplitude (range of tolerance) of plant communities is
157 as a rule greater than that by individual species. Thus, several studies (e.g., [Zverev, 2014](#); [Holyk
& Goncharenko, 2017](#)) have indicated that communities appear to be more sensitive indicators
158 of environmental conditions than are individual species.

160

161 Phytoindication employs plants as bioindicators to track alterations in the environment, serving
162 not only to diagnose habitat conditions (including climate, soil factors, and hydrological
163 conditions) but also to determine the type and intensity of human activities affecting such
164 plants, such as the presence of landfills ([Zhukov and Potapenko, 2017](#); [Glibovytska &
Mykhailiuk 2020](#)). Phytosociological analysis (analyzing plants) in a certain area is important
165 when studying the environment on a large scale, such as whole landscapes or ecosystems
166 ([Gianguzzi and Bazan, 2020](#); [Ighbareyeh et al., 2021](#)).

168

169 Existing scientific work has primarily focused on the relationship between vegetation and
170 environmental conditions that are not influenced by human activities. However, environmental
171 conditions may gradually change due to human activities, resulting in the entry of a wide range
172 of pollutants into the environment and leading to changes in living conditions ultimately
173 affecting vegetation. Plants have several mechanisms for adapting to anthropogenic pollution
174 ([Winkler et al., 2022](#); [Winkler et al., 2023](#)). Vegetation responds to pollution first by retreating
175 sensitive plant species, and then by new species, which are resistant to the presence of
176 pollutants, penetrating the vegetation over time. Vegetation responds to the degree of toxicity
177 by changing its species composition ([Koda et al., 2022](#)). The effects of anthropogenic pollution
178 on vegetation is complex. The influence of diverse pollutants on plants and the synergistic and
179 antagonistic relationships between different chemicals make the interpretation of the results
180 problematic. The changes in the species composition of vegetation in the vicinity of a landfill
181 is the first sign that indicates the presence and degree of toxicity of pollutants.

182

183 Landfill sites with leachate seepage are characterized by high salinity. Biomonitoring of plant
184 communities in leachate seepage points represent a new approach to the assessment of the actual
185 condition of a landfill (Koda et al., 2022). The presence of pollutants in leachate increases soil
186 salinity, which translates to a higher abundance of halophytes (plants that naturally inhabit
187 saline environments, such as salt marshes, salt flats, and steppes) in the vegetation (Ellenberg
188 et al., 1991; Chytrý et al., 2018; Koda et al., 2022).

189

190 N compounds and other nutrients (P, K, Mg, etc.) are also released from MSW at high rates, as
191 reported by Ellenberg et al. (1991) and Chytrý et al. (2018). Elevated N and other nutrient
192 contents were reflected by the presence of a higher proportion of nitrophilous plant species. The
193 abundance of readily available nutrients leads to a higher proportion of species employing
194 ruderal life strategies. The rate of change in the environment due to the presence of pollutants
195 here is indicated primarily by the abundance of diaspores of nitrophilous species in the vicinity
196 of the pollution.

197

198 **2.2. Screening of living organisms used as bioindicators**

199 Biological indicators have been widely used to assess the degree of environmental pollution
200 (Wolterbeek, 2002; Holt and Miller, 2011; Parmar et al., 2016; Adams et al., 2018; Azizi et al.,
201 2018; Al-Alam et al., 2019). The criteria that can facilitate the suitability of living organisms
202 as bioindicators are as follows: (i) relatively sedentary lifestyle (stationary) of selected
203 organisms to meet the requirement of representativeness of the studied ecosystem (collecting
204 specimens); (ii) wide geographical distribution for easy identification and collection of samples;
205 (iii) potential to collect a representative sample of material; (iv) a certain tolerance of the
206 selected organisms to pollutants (heavy metals (HM), organic compounds); (v) easy transport
207 of organisms to the laboratory, and (vi) stability of the population of the selected organisms,

208 which would allow repeated sampling during a long period of time (research of trends) (Farias
209 et al., 2018; Fossi et al., 2018; Vitanović et al. 2018; Manickavasagam et al., 2019; Puig-
210 Gironès and Real, 2022). The advantages and disadvantages of using plants as bioindicators are
211 summarized in S1.

212

213 The use of vegetation in biomonitoring is limited mainly by the slowness in species composition
214 changes compared to animals or microorganisms. The analysis can be further complicated
215 because the variety of waste and pollutants affect vegetation by acting as polyfunctional factors
216 with complex inter-relationships. Nevertheless, there are opportunities to use vegetation around
217 an MSWLF to identify leachate infiltration sites (Koda et al., 2022), while Winkler et al. (2021)
218 have pointed out that soil degradation can be inferred from the composition of vegetation
219 growing in MSWLF. Changes in conditions on the surface and inside the landfill present a
220 significant challenge for vegetation, which must respond accordingly during succession
221 (Álvarez-López et al., 2020).

222

223 Winkler et al. (2021) have noted that certain nitrophilous plant species, such as *Atriplex*
224 *sagittata*, *Chenopodium album*, *Setaria viridis*, *Apera spica-venti*, *Urtica dioica*, *Sambucus*
225 *nigra*, *Phragmites australis*, *Rubus* sp., *Elytrigia repens*, *Lolium perenne*, *Bromus inermis*, and
226 others, are permanent members of landfill vegetation. Moreover, there is a notable trend
227 towards an increase in the total number of species in landfill environments, driven in part by
228 the growing prevalence of invasive species and neophytes, such as *Calamagrostis epigejos*,
229 *Acer negundo*, *Conium maculatum*, *Solidago canadensis*, and others. Additionally, there is a
230 trend of hydrophilous plant species such as *Phalaris arundinacea*, *Alnus glutinosa*, *Salix alba*,
231 *Typha latifolia*, *Populus canescens*, *Typha angustifolia*, and others, being withdrawn from these
232 environments (Winkler et al., 2021).

233

234 Vaverková and Koda (2023) focused on the geological, environmental, and ecological impacts
235 of landfills. Plants, especially invasive plants, have the potential to adapt to various and ever-
236 changing environmental conditions, as noted also by Winkler et al. (2023). The composition of
237 vegetation on landfill surfaces often reflects the soil degradation caused by a landfill (Mao et
238 al., (2018)). Landfill sites tend to harbor a diverse range of plant species, which are not
239 commonly found in native vegetation, and are dominated by synanthropic flora, plant species
240 that thrive in association with human activities (Koda et al. (2013), Bryant et al. (2017),
241 Vaverková et al. (2019a)). Thus, development of new plant communities, consisting mainly of
242 neophytes and invasive plant species, is favored by the anthropogenic conditions of landfills
243 (Wania et al. (2006), Vaverková et al. (2019a) and Winkler et al. (2021), Vaverková and Koda
244 (2023)).

245

246 **2.3. Bioindicators classification**

247 Plant indicators are classified into several groups: passive, active (exposure), accumulation, and
248 reactive. In order to identify and quantify species composition of vegetation sampling is done
249 with the following approaches. Transect sampling involves laying out a linear transect across
250 the study area and recording all plant species and their abundance along the transect. This allows
251 for the identification of changes in species composition across a gradient. Phytocenological
252 relevés (vegetation plot) is a standardized method used to record and describe the plant species
253 and their abundance in a specific area. It involves selecting a representative sample area and
254 systematically recording the species and their cover or abundance. The information collected
255 through phytocenological relevé can be used to identify the plant community, estimate species
256 diversity and richness, assess vegetation dynamics, and compare vegetation composition among
257 different sites. Finally, collected field specimens can be analysed using various analytical
258 techniques, depending on the specific biomarker of interest. These include spectroscopy,
259 chromatography, elemental analysis, and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. After

260 quantification, the data are analyzed using statistical methods to determine the significance of
261 the biomarker and to identify correlations between biomarkers and environmental pollution.

262

263 Passive bioindication use the ability of selective damage to a plant's parts (reaction
264 bioindicator), or an accumulation of some substances in selected plants (accumulation
265 bioindicator). This type of monitoring uses both cultural crops (*Brassica juncea*, *Brassica*
266 *nigra*, *Helianthus annuus*, *Sinapis alba*, *Triticum aestivum*) and wild plants growing naturally
267 in the area of interest (*Achillea millefolium*, *Daucus carota*, *Phragmites australis*, *Urtica*
268 *dioica*, *Taraxacum officinale*, *Tanacetum vulgare*) (Polechońska et al., 2018; Benítez et al.,
269 2019; Turkeyilmaz et al., 2019; Mishra & Farooq, 2022).

270

271 Active monitoring is widely used throughout Europe to assess the pollution associated with
272 heavy metals, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), and other organic pollutants (Kosior
273 et al., 2010; Świsłowski et al., 2021). Active biomonitoring is a process by which bioindicators
274 are collected from relatively pristine habitats, transplanted into different environments, and
275 used to monitor pollution. This was done by deliberately exposing bioindicators to polluted
276 areas under study (Ndlovu et al., 2019). This method has been used in both urban and industrial
277 setups (Capozzi et al., 2016). The technique has several advantages, such as well-defined
278 exposure time, known elemental concentrations, flexibility in the choice of location and number
279 of sampling sites, and homogeneity of the trapping area. The main limitation of this method is
280 that the accumulation efficiency of bioindicators for different contaminants is unknown (Aničić
281 et al., 2009).

282

283 Still, some other methods combine passive and active bioindication procedures (Parmar et al.,
284 2016; Cozea et al., 2018; Świsłowski et al., 2021). For example, plots can be established with
285 detailed physical and chemical soil analyses on which the selected susceptible plants are grown.

286 Such a procedure is particularly appropriate for capturing the movement of monitored
287 substances in the atmosphere – soil – water complex.

288

289 Accumulation bioindicators can store contaminants in their tissues, and the extent of such
290 storage can be used to measure the concentration of contaminants in the environment (Abas,
291 2021). Finally, reactive bioindicators take advantage of the fact that the physiological reaction
292 of a plant to the action of a given factor is demonstrated in functional disorders, such as
293 restricted flowering, dieback of some organs, reduction of overall plant life, or limitation of the
294 most important life processes (Fränzle, 2006; Khalid et al., 2019; Veskoukis et al., 2019;
295 Martínez and Barrera, 2021). Thus, reactive biomarkers indicate environmental changes or
296 exposure to certain pollutants. For example, changes in flower colour or morphology can
297 indicate exposure to air pollution or heavy metals. Changes in flower scents can indicate
298 exposure to organic pollutants. Some plants may also produce fewer or no flowers in response
299 to environmental stressors such as drought or soil pollution. The types and descriptions of plant
300 bioindicators are summarized in S2.

301

302 The indication capacity of plants relates to excitations from elements of the environment that
303 are ecologically relevant. Thus, climatic conditions, such as, light intensity affects the species
304 *Asclepias syriaca*, *Helianthus annuus*, and *Pteridophytes*; air temperature affects *Artemisia*
305 *tridentata*, and *Poaceae*, and the degree of continentality influences *Echinacea purpurea*, and
306 *Rudbeckia hirta*. Soil characteristics, such as moisture content would provide excitations to
307 *Asclepias incarnata*; acidity to *Vaccinium spp.*, and *Vaccinium macrocarpon*; and nitrogen
308 content affects *Fabaceae*; *Trifolium spp.*, and *Urtica dioica*. Finally, fertility, pH, CEC, and
309 nutrient retention capacity directly affect plants, which can be excellent indicators of these
310 factors (Plit & Roo-Zielińska, 1990; Bazanov et al., 2009). For example, wildflowers occurring
311 spontaneously at landfill sites such as lupines (*Lupinus spp.*), prefer well-drained, slightly acidic

312 soils, whereas ferns (*pteridophytes*) prefer moist, acidic soils with high organic matter content.
313 It follows that knowledge of the structure of plant coverage, spatial distribution, and the
314 quantitative and qualitative composition of plant species allows not only the determination of
315 the actual conditions at a site, but also the environmental components that are ecologically
316 important to them.

317

318 The bioindication function of plants is also increasingly being used to check the changes caused
319 by environmental contamination. The most used bioindicators are called indication species, that
320 is species with a very specific range of tolerance to certain ecological factors ([Mahapatra et al.,
321 2019](#); [Nasser et al., 2020](#); [Bayouli et al., 2021](#); [Garg et al., 2022](#)). For example, *Epilobium*
322 *angustifolium* is a plant species that is tolerant to heavy metals and nitrogen, which makes it a
323 useful bioindicator of soil contamination. *Taraxacum officinale*, which is a common weed
324 occurring at landfill sites, is sensitive to soil pH, making it a useful bioindicator of soil acidity.
325 Another example is *Viola odorata*, which is sensitive to soil moisture and pH and can be used
326 as a bioindicator for changes in water quality and soil acidity. These are examples of plant
327 species that can be used as bioindicators of landfill conditions owing to their specific range of
328 tolerance to certain ecological factors.

329

330 Vegetation can express the variability of environmental conditions from local through zonal
331 differentiation, and can therefore be used as an indicator in a wide range of situations,
332 depending on needs. In places with disturbances from anthropogenic activities, studies need to
333 concentrate on the effects not only on vegetation but also on the soil profile and the overall
334 environment to obtain a holistic picture of the environmental effects of pollution events ([Herben
335 et al., 2016](#); [Winkler et al., 2022](#)).

336

37 3. Biomonitoring assessment of landfills environmental impacts

378 The environmental impact of landfills has been studied using phytosociological analyses that
379 allow proper characterization of vegetation communities and linkages of habitat-environmental
380 factors and environmental valorization (Vaverková and Adamcová, 2012; Vaverková et al.
381 2012 a, b). In the scientific literature, the biomonitoring of landfills has focused primarily on
382 lichens. Lichens are symbiotic organisms composed of green algae and fungi. Their metabolism
383 depends on mineral uptake from the atmosphere; therefore, these organisms effectively trap
384 trace elements from the surrounding environment. They grow very slowly, do not have stomata
385 or cuticles regulating air exchange, and accumulate contaminants over the entire surface (Paoli
386 et al., 2015). Epiphytic lichens have been used as indicators of environmental quality because
387 they obtain water and essential nutrients mainly from the atmosphere and not from the soil
388 (Sujetovienė et al., 2019). Lichens are effective accumulators of pollution over an entire
389 surface. Species diversity, bioaccumulation, and physiological status are indicators of air
390 quality and pollution. Epiphytic lichens are used to assess air pollution around landfills (Paoli
391 et al., 2012; Nannoni et al., 2015; Paoli et al., 2015; Sujetovienė et al., 2019), but they do not
392 reflect the entire state of the environment in the vicinity of landfills.

393

394 Loppi et al. (2021) assessed the utilization of lichens (*Flavoparmelia caperata*) as
395 bioaccumulators of air-borne microplastic materials. Higher plants for biomonitoring
396 environmental pollution, namely pollution from MSWLF, are used less than lichens. In this
397 context, Vaverková et al. (2012a, b) performed floristic research and established a list of
398 vascular plants occurring around a landfill in the Czech Republic (CR). The purpose of study
399 performed by Vaverková et al. (2019a) was the long-term monitoring of the plant community
400 (floristic survey) on a MSWLF, the identification of changes in species composition, and the
401 evaluation of the significance of the identified plant species for the surrounding ecosystem and
402 the assessment of the landfill's safety. It was concluded that MSWLF create a distinct and

363 specific environment that affects the composition of plant species present. The results indicated
364 that the vegetation on MSWLF is unstable and undergoes specific plant succession. As a result,
365 continuous monitoring is necessary to track changes in species composition and to assess the
366 impact of MSWL on the environment.

367

368 Biomonitoring also helps to assess the efficiency of stabilization processes, as reported by
369 [Zapata-Carbonell et al. \(2019\)](#), where a study site was subjected to tests for the stabilization of
370 topsoil *in situ* using white birch. The goal of the reclamation work was to create a landscape
371 that would be ecologically well-balanced, economically valuable, and socially acceptable. In
372 study by [Xiaoli et al. \(2011\)](#), it was concluded that emissions of CH₄ and CO₂ from soil covered
373 by vegetation were lower than those from soil not covered by vegetation. This not only confirms
374 that efficient and proper biological reclamation is important to mitigate the impact of landfills
375 on the environment but also the significance of plants in biomonitoring. [S3](#) summarizes recent
376 biomonitoring studies on the effects of landfills on the geoenvironment.

377

378 [Vaverková et. al. \(2022\)](#) recommended that landfills, in addition to the mandatory monitoring
379 of groundwater, surface waters, and of leachate and landfill gas, should be subjected to regular
380 biomonitoring of vegetation species' composition. A difficulty in such a task is that vegetation
381 in the area near landfills is not stable in terms of species composition, and hence should be
382 continually monitored. Landfills have a high potential to promote the expansion of invasive
383 plant species, altering the species composition of vegetation in the surrounding ecosystems.
384 These authors focused their study on the effects of management methods and environmental
385 risks at two landfills in the CR. The vegetation in these two landfills was subjected to long-term
386 monitoring. The vegetation analysis showed significant differences between the landfills, with
387 the vegetation of a site showing a high prevalence in neophytes, invasive and expansive
388 species.. This could be attributed to climatic and geomorphological differences between the two

389 landfills, but also to differences in landfill management. These ecologically problematic species
390 can spread from landfills to adjacent ecosystems, gradually eliminating native plant species and
391 degrading adjacent farmlands. The research data suggested that landfills should be regularly
392 subjected to vegetation biomonitoring. Landfill management methods should focus on the
393 regulation of undesirable plant species, creating conditions that would be favorable to native
394 plant species, and providing for the restoration of filled landfill cassettes as soon as possible.

395

396 Some of the species identified by [Vaverková et al. \(2022\)](#) at the landfill sites, which are
397 problematic to surrounding farmland include *Arrhenatherum elatius*, *Calamagrostis epigejos*,
398 *Impatiens parviflora* and *Tanacetum vulgare*. In addition, at the landfill site that exhibited a
399 large number of invasive plants, observed species included *Erigeron annuus*, *Reynoutria*
400 *japonica*, *Robinia pseudacacia*, *Senecio inaequidens*, and *Oenothera fallax*. Attention should
401 be paid to the species composition of landfill vegetation or to the disappearance of some species.

402

403 As pointed out by [Vaverková et al. \(2019b\)](#), reclamation of MSWLF is a necessary step to
404 return the area back to the landscape. Grass species are often used for re-vegetation because of
405 their low cost (e.g., *Lolium perenne*, *Festuca rubra*, *Festuca ovina*, *Festuca pratensis*,
406 *Arrhenatherum elatius*, *Poa pratensis*, *Cynosurus eristatus*, *Bromus inermis*, and *Bromus*
407 *erectus*). However, plants can be a significant source of air pollution, mainly because of
408 allergenic pollen. Long-term monitoring was conducted at three landfill sites in the CR from
409 2008 to 2018, where 298 plant species producing allergens were identified. Most allergenic
410 pollen-producing species were common to all studied sites, demonstrating that landfill
411 vegetation can be a significant source of allergenic pollen. It was also shown that plants
412 appearing in landfills could be used for biomonitoring of air quality and its impact on human
413 health.

414

415 [Koda et al. \(2022\)](#) studied the relationship between vegetation composition and leachate
416 seepage points to determine the potential for the utilization of certain species in the assessment
417 of the applied mineral sealing on landfill surfaces. The results confirmed that the presence of
418 leachates altered plant species composition, increasing the representation of species tolerant to
419 salinization, and decreasing the share of glycophytes in the leachate seepage points. Based on
420 the relationship between glycophytes and salinization-tolerant plant species, a work procedure
421 and index of leachate vegetation were created, which provided rapid identification of leachate
422 seepage points. The results of these studies can be applied to reclamation works on landfills.

423

424 Plant indicators can be helpful in determining local environmental conditions and the optimum
425 use of land resources for forests, pastures, and agricultural crops. The occurrence, nature, and
426 behavior of plants are indicators of the combined effects of all factors in a habitat. It should be
427 emphasized that plants are inappropriate quantitative tools. Based on bioindicators, it is not
428 possible to determine the absolute value of a particular variable of the environment; however,
429 bioindicators can draw attention, for example, to the need to enhance the availability of nutrients
430 or the occurrence of pollutants at first sight. The advantages and disadvantages of plant
431 bioindicators are that they provide an expression of the complex interaction of multiple
432 environmental factors, and usually after a prolonged period of exposure.

433

434 **4. Biomonitoring of landfill gas emissions and of mined waste**

435 The appropriateness of a landfill for mining, which requires waste stabilization ([Mohammad et](#)
436 [al., 2021](#)), control of landfill gas releases, such as CH₄, and of the concentrations of ammonia
437 in leachates ([Lubberding et al., 2012](#)) needs to be established first because LFM can lead to
438 excessive release of several pollutants, such as NH₃, CS₂ ([Wang et al., 2021](#)), and greenhouse
439 gases (such as CH₄ and CO₂) ([Raga et al., 2015](#)), as well as leachate leakage ([Moretto et al.,](#)
440 [2017; Weng et al., 2015](#)).

441

442 Thus, monitoring of CH₄ and NH₃ in the air near landfills and NH₄⁺ concentrations in the
443 leachate, as promulgated by the US and EU landfill regulations, is recommended. [Pieri et al.](#)
444 [\(2015\)](#) found an inverse relationship between the lichen's biodiversity index and NO_x and
445 ozone concentrations in the atmosphere. It was also observed that the lichen communities were
446 restricted by the presence of calcareous dust. Furthermore, the investigation carried out by [Frati](#)
447 [et al. \(2007\)](#) revealed that NH₃ presence in the atmosphere near pig stock farms caused a shift
448 in the neutro-nitrophytic to nitrophytic species. The growth of *physconia grisea*, a nitrophytic
449 lichen, is positively correlated with airborne NH₃, indicating that this species could be a useful
450 bioindicator for assessing NH₃ emissions from landfills.

451

452 However, it appears that biomonitoring of landfill gas emissions and leachate releases during
453 LFM or LFMSF, which have the potential to decompose and release gases during their
454 utilization as landfill biocover and geotechnical fill materials, has not attracted much attention.
455 The long-term monitoring of LFMSF performance with lichen plant species, when LFMSF is
456 utilized as a geotechnical fill material has the potential to be a cost-effective monitoring system
457 for decomposition-induced settlements. In addition, several studies have revealed that landfills
458 are sinks for micro/nano plastics (MNPs) ([Wowkonowicz et al., 2021](#); [Goli et al., 2022a](#));
459 hence, LFM activity can act as a pollution source for MNPs ([Su et al., 2019](#); [Goli & Singh,](#)
460 [2023](#)). MNPs can be adsorbed by vascular plants, exhibiting phytotoxic effects such as
461 oxidative stress, while disturbing plant growth and photosynthesis ([Yin et al., 2021](#)). Such
462 plants can be investigated for their suitability as species for conducting bioindication studies
463 while evaluating the effect of MNPs present in LMRs on their post-mining utilization. [Orupöld](#)
464 [et al. \(2022\)](#) conducted germination tests using lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*), perennial ryegrass
465 (*Lolium perenne*), and timothy (*Phleum pratense*) seeds to evaluate the phytotoxicity of
466 leachates from LFMSF of size <10 mm. This study concluded that timothy seeds are more

467 sensitive to LFMSF. Masi et al. (2014) conducted germination and root elongation tests using
468 *Lepidum Sativum* and *V. faba*, respectively, to evaluate the phytotoxicity of LFMSF. It was
469 observed that the LFMSF did not adversely influence the growth of *L. sativa*, whereas *V. faba*
470 got negatively affected with an increase in the dosage. Hence, these seeds or associated plant
471 species show potential as biomonitoring sites where LFMSF is applied.

472

473 5. Conclusions

474

475 Landfill monitoring constitutes an integral part of global environmental regulations. Although
476 groundwater, surface water, and air monitoring have received special attention, little emphasis
477 has been placed on the effects of landfills on the vegetation surrounding a landfill's
478 environment. Pollution events taking place at or near a landfill's ground surface and in close
479 proximity to it do not appear to be captured by existing landfill monitoring schemes that either
480 sample deep aquifers, or relatively distant surface water systems.

481

482 This article focuses on the utilization of bioindicators to assess the impact of landfills on their
483 surrounding vegetation, which can also be used as a visual representation and warning signal
484 of near-surface pollution incidents from landfills. Research in this area, in which the authors of
485 this paper have been active participants, has provided fruitful insights, and the major
486 conclusions are summarized as follows.

487

- 488 (i) Vegetation responds to pollution first by retreating sensitive plant species, and then
489 by new species, which are resistant to specific pollutants dominating the vegetation.
- 490 (ii) The increase in soils salinity translates to a higher abundance of halophytes.
- 491 (iii) High nitrogen and other nutrient contents were reflected by the presence of a higher
492 proportion of nitrophilous plant species in the landscape.

- 493 (iv) Vegetation responds to the degree of toxicity by changing its species composition.
494 This change in vegetation species composition near a landfill is the first sign that
495 indicates the presence and degree of toxicity of pollutants.
- 496 (v) Epiphytic lichens, which primarily obtain water and essential nutrients from the
497 atmosphere, have proven to be good indicators of air pollution from landfills.
- 498 (vi) Landfills have a high potential to promote the expansion of invasive plant species,
499 altering the vegetation species composition in the surrounding ecosystems.
- 500 (vii) Ecologically problematic species can spread from a landfill to adjacent ecosystems,
501 gradually eliminating native plant species and degrading nearby farmland.
- 502 (viii) Plant communities appear to be more sensitive indicators of environmental conditions
503 than individual species.

504

505 Extensive studies, as those presented here, and the decades-long experience of the authors of
506 this article make it evident that landfills should be regularly subjected to vegetation monitoring.
507 Vegetation species' changes can assist in early detection of pollution events at a landfill,
508 potentially identifying even preferential pollution directions, and thus helping to direct more
509 focused sampling campaigns. The predominance of certain plant species, as reported herein,
510 can provide a strong indication of the type of chemical pollutant that has leaked and hence assist
511 in the selection of appropriate remediation technologies. In addition to pollution detection,
512 biomonitoring can act as a warning sign to near-a-landfill farming activities by indicating the
513 spread of invasive and problematic species that may end up dominating and replacing
514 productive crops. Thus, landfill management methods should focus on controlling undesirable
515 plant species, creating favorable conditions for native plant species, and providing early
516 restoration of closed landfill cells. Finally, biomonitoring presents the potential for the study of
517 vegetation at sites other than landfill-polluted sites, such as degraded land areas or urban
518 brownfields. The ample evidence of the utility of landfill biomonitoring makes it advisable to

519 include it in municipal waste monitoring regulations, an act that will also give the impetus for
520 the development of more targeted detection biomonitoring techniques.
521

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963 **Figures Captions**

964 **Figure 1.** Vegetation at municipal solid waste sites.

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966 **List of Supplementary Material**

967 **S1.** Advantages and disadvantages of plants as bioindicators (Markert et al., 2003; Conti, 2008).

968 **S2.** Types and description of plant bioindicators.

969 **S3.** Summary of recent biomonitoring studies regarding the effects of landfills on the
970 geoenvironment.

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975 **S1.** Advantages and disadvantages of plants as bioindicators (Markert et al., 2003; Conti,
976 2008).

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Advantages	Disadvantages
Potential of sampling over a long time period	Necessity to consider the seasonal effect of the growth of plants
Low cost of sampling process	Growth can be disturbed by a large number of environmental parameters
Easy determination of relationship between the concentration in tissues and depositions (mosses and lichens)	Impact of environment pollution on growth rate makes the interpretation of result difficult
Change in species composition in response to pollution	Slowness of change, lack of scientific knowledge about the causes of change in vegetation biodiversity
Effortless vegetation assessment process	Specific knowledge of plant species identification and phytocenology

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994 **S2.** Types and description of plant bioindicators.

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Type of indicator	Description	References
Biomarkers	Respond to subcellular biochemical, immunological and genetic changes (DNA modifications) with no visible morphological and physiological changes	(Dunham et al., 2019; Jmii and Dewez, 2021; Jaskulak and Grobelak, 2019)
Reaction biomarkers	Physiognomic degree of damage depending on the acting factor physiological reaction of plants to the action of the given factor shows in functional disorders such as restricted flowering, dieback of some organs, reduction of overall life or limitation of the most important life processes	(Fränzle, 2006; Khalid et al., 2019; Veskoukis et al., 2019; Martínez and Barrera, 2021).
Accumulation bioindicators	Accumulation in plant tissues diverse substances that can be valued quantitatively	(Hinojosa-Garro et al., 2020; Hernández-Moreno et al., 2021; Kaymak et al., 2021).

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1011 S3. Summary of recent biomonitoring studies regarding the effects of landfills on the geoenvironment.

Reference	Location	Duration	Purpose	Dominant species/bioindicators	Summary
(Paoli et al., 2012)	Central Italy	14 years	Detection of Cd, Cr, Fe, and Ni	lichens	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An increase in HM in lichens was noticed The diversity of lichen was reduced Improved the assessment of ecological impacts
Sujetovienė et al. (2019)	Central Lithuania	3.5 month	Detection of HM	lichens	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Accumulation of HM, except Cd, were almost the same in samples from landfill and control Potential quantum yield was less for samples located closer to the pollution source Lichens revealed sensitivity even to small changes in environmental conditions
Nannoni et al. (2015)	Cà Mascio landfill, Central Italy	4 months	Detection of air borne heavy elements	Lichens (<i>Evernia prunastri</i>)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lichens showed great sensitivity to serve as “early warning” indicators for even small environment changes Severe ($EC > 1.75$) and moderate ($1.25 < EC < 1.75$) accumulation of HM in lichens and damage to their cell membrane, as well as reduced photosynthetic efficiency.
Loppi et al. (2021)	Tuscany, central Italy	-	Detection of air borne microplastics	Lichen (<i>Flavoparmelia caperata</i>)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lichens collected near the landfill clearly accumulated the highest number of anthropogenic microfibrils (147 mp/g dw) and fragments (79 mp/g dw)
Vaverková et al. (2012a, b) Vaverková and Adamcová (2012) Vaverková et al. (2018)	Kojetín bioregion, Štěpánovice landfill Kuchyňky, CR	4, 6 and 8 years	Reclamation of landfill	Native Plants <i>Cladonia arbuscula</i> , <i>Juniperus communis</i> , <i>Epipactis helleborine</i> , <i>Populus tremula</i> , <i>Polygala chamaebuxus</i> , <i>Prunus spinosa</i> and <i>Crataegus</i> spp., <i>Rosa</i> spp.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> During the floristic research conducted in 2007 and 2010, 94 species and 88 plant species, respectively, were detected Any alarming symptoms, such as chlorosis or leaf area necrosis, were not noticed due to sanitary MSW landfill operation The floristic research made in 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2015 revealed respectively 88, 105, 105 and 195 vascular plant species that were compared with 94 plant species identified in 2007, which indicated that the impact of landfills on the environment can be minimized by appropriate management

					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health condition of plants occurring at the landfill was good, which in turn contributed to and indicated the health of the landfill site
Zapata-Carbonell et al. (2019)	Eastern part of France			<i>Betula pendula</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Despite the high abundance of some of the nutrients necessary for proper plant development, such as Ca, S, Mg, P and K, the substrate conditions of the landfill, such as high pH, limited nutrients' access to plants • The physical and chemical properties of the waste stored on the investigated landfill, such as fine texture, high mechanical impedance, extreme pH conditions, excessive salinity and elevated concentrations of metals and metalloids, were considered detrimental to plant growth
Xiaoli et al. (2011)	Shanghai landfill		Landfill cover	<i>Phragmites australis</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coverage (25 up to 90%), height (0.8-2.2 m) and species (5 to 12) of the vegetation increased with increasing landfill time closure. This was due to decreasing landfill gas emissions and improved environmental conditions for vegetation growth
Vaverková et al. (2019)	Petrůvky landfill and Zdouanky site, CR	long-term	landfilling safety		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MSW landfill created a very specific environment, where the vegetation species composition was not stable but rather a place of specific plants succession
Popovych et al. (2021)	Lviv landfill, Ukraine		Heat resistance of vegetation	<i>Artemisia vulgaris</i> L., <i>Artemisia absinthium</i> L., <i>Chenopodium urbicum</i> L., <i>Arctium lappa</i> L., and <i>Plantago major</i> L.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The most stable species were wormwoods (<i>Artemisia</i>) in all landfill locations, and the least heat-resistant was the city goosefoot • Study confirmed that plants can be used to monitor temperature changes at landfills
Winkler et al. (2021)	Otwock, Poland	20 years	Monitoring 127 plant species	<i>Phalaris arundinacea</i> , <i>Alnus glutinosa</i> , <i>Salix alba</i> , <i>Typha latifolia</i> , <i>Populus canescens</i> , <i>Typha angustifolia</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assessment of vegetation composition used the method of phytocoenological relevés • Changes in the vegetation composition at the landfill between native plant species and neophytes, as well as the development of a new spectrum of plant species was noticed over time • Anthropogenic activities not only affected the landscape but also facilitated the creation of new ecosystems

Koda et al. (2022)	Lipiny Stare, Poland	6 years	Leachate seepage	<i>Salt tolerant</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• A growing number of tolerant to salinization plant species (i.e., halophyte and oligohaline) and the decreasing share of glycophytes in places of leachate leakage demonstrated the diagnostic potential of plants for the identification and localization of leachate leakage points at the landfill• For fast identification of leachate leakage points, an index was proposed based on the relation of glycophytes to plant species tolerant to salinity
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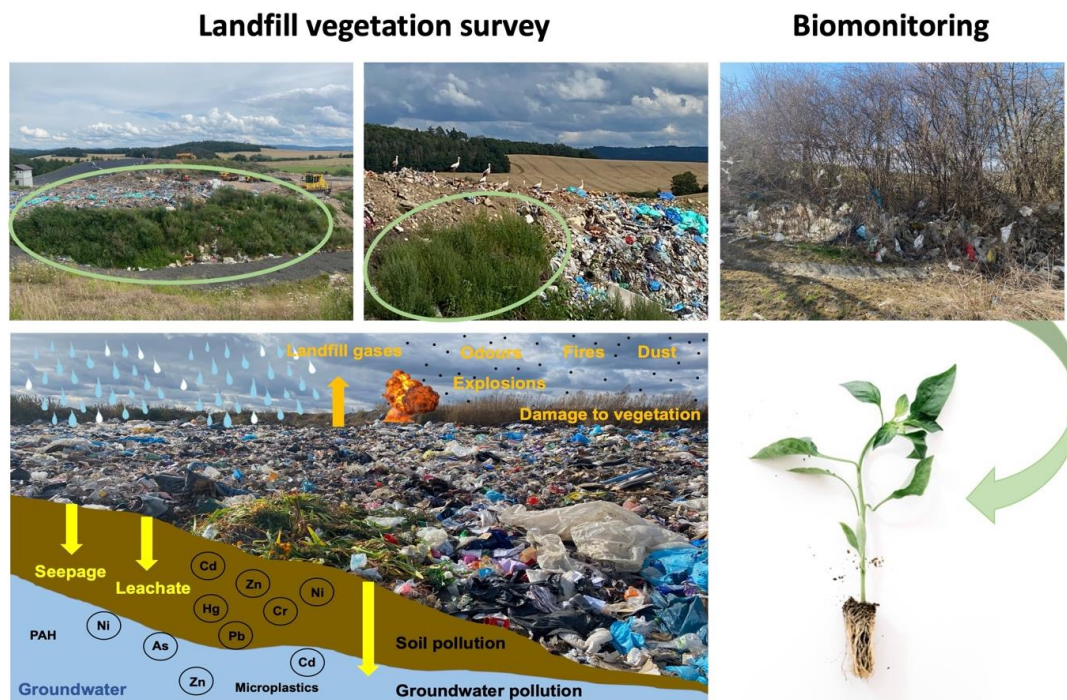
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1023 **Figures**

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1026 **Figure 1.** Vegetation at municipal solid waste sites.

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