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典型溴系阻燃剂四溴双酚 A 和十溴二苯乙烷的污染现状及毒理学研究进展

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摘要: 随着六溴环十二烷、多溴联苯醚等溴系阻燃剂被列为持久性有机污染物(persistent organic pollutants, POPs), 四溴双酚 A (tetrabromobisphenol A, TBBPA) 和十溴二苯乙烷(decabromodiphenyl ethane, DBDPE) 已成为目前生产和使用最广泛的溴系阻燃剂(brominated flame retardants, BFRs)。随着这 2 种典型溴系阻燃剂在多种环境介质中不断被检出, 其潜在环境和健康风险引起了人们广泛关注。本文总结了国内外关于 TBBPA 和 DBDPE 的分布特征、污染程度等污染现状的相关研究, 并总结了其毒性效应及机制的研究进展, 发现 TBBPA 和 DBDPE 在空气、水体、土壤、沉积物和生物等多种环境介质中均有检出, 总体呈现工业发达地区污染状况更严重, 且在人体和母乳中也不断被检出, 其环境和健康风险不容忽视。TBBPA 主要表现为生长发育毒性、肝肾毒性、内分泌干扰效应、生殖毒性和神经毒性等, 而关于 DBDPE 毒性效应的报道较少, 现有研究显示, DBDPE 具有生长发育毒性、肝肾毒性以及内分泌干扰效应, 但毒性相对较低。本文综述了 TBBPA 和 DBDPE 的污染现状和毒性效应研究进展, 以期为开展 BFRs 环境风险评估、测算环境容量以及政府部门控制产能提供重要参考。

关键词: 四溴双酚 A; 十溴二苯乙烷; 毒性效应; 污染现状

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A Review of Pollution Status and Toxicological Researches of Typical Brominated Flame Retardants Tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA) and Decabromodiphenyl Ethane (DBDPE)

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Abstract: With hexabromocyclododecane (HBCDs) and poly brominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs) listed as persistent organic pollutants (POPs), tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA) and decabromodiphenyl ethane (DBDPE) have become two of the most widely produced and used brominated flame retardants (BFRs). The underlying ecological risk of TBBPA and DBDPE have received increasing attentions since these two typical BFRs are being detected at high concentrations in environmental media. This paper summarized the pollution status of TBBPA and DBDPE and their toxicological effects. TBBPA and DBDPE have been detected in multiple environmental media, such as atmosphere, waters, soil, sediment and organisms. In addition, more severe pollution could be found in industrial areas. TBBPA and DBDPE were even found in human body and breast milk. Overall, TBBPA presented developmental toxicity, hepatorenal toxicity, endocrine disruption effect, reproductive toxicity, and neurotoxicity, while DBDPE showed developmental toxicity, hepatorenal toxicity, and endocrine disruption effect. According to the limited reports on DBDPE toxicity, we concluded that DBDPE was of relatively low toxicity. The aim of this review is to help evaluate the environmental risk, analyze the environmental capacity, and governmentally control the production of TBBPA and DBDPE.

Keywords: tetrabromobisphenol A; decabromodiphenyl ethane; toxicological effects; pollution status

溴系阻燃剂(brominated flame retardants, BFRs),因具有高效阻燃性和耐热性,被广泛使用于电子、纺织和塑料等工业生产中。近年来,全国BFRs需求量逐年增加,生产种类约有80多种,主要包括多溴联苯醚(poly brominated diphenyl ethers, PBDEs)、四溴双酚A(tetrabromobisphenol A, TBBPA)、六溴环十二烷(hexabromocyclododecane, HBCDs)、六溴苯(hexabromobenzene, HBB)和十溴二苯乙烷(decabromodiphenyl ethane, DBDPE)等^[1]。随着PBDEs和HBCDs被《斯德哥尔摩公约》(Stockholm Convention)列为持久性有机污染物(persistent organic pollutants, POPs),TBBPA和DBDPE已成为应用最广泛的BFRs。其中,TBBPA的生产量约占BFRs生产总量的50%以上,是全球用量最大的阻燃剂产品,年需求量超过17万t^[2];DBDPE作为十溴联苯醚(decabromodiphenyl ether, Deca BDE)的替代品,自2005年在中国投产以来,年均增幅达80%^[3],2006年的初始产量约为1.1万t,2016年产量高达3.1万t^[4-5]。BFRs可分为反应型和添加型2种,反应型BFRs以化学键与基质结合,不易扩散至环境中;添加型BFRs以分子间作用力与基质结合,容易扩散至环境中。TBBPA既可作为反应型BFRs也可以作为添加型BFRs,而DBDPE只可作为添加型BFRs,不与其他材料发生化学键的结合。因此,二者在使用时都可能通过挥发、渗出等方式释放到外界环境中,目前在空气、水体、沉积物、土壤和生物体等多种环境介质中均有检出,伴随着物质能量循环过程,其污染范围已遍布全球^[1,6-8]。TBBPA和DBDPE水溶性低、

亲脂性强、化学性质稳定,可在环境中稳定存在,并具有潜在的生物富集效应^[9-10]。诸多研究已证明TBBPA和DBDPE具有生长发育毒性、肝肾毒性和内分泌干扰等多种毒性效应^[11-16]。

随着制造业的迅猛发展,我国对BFRs的需求与日俱增。PBDEs等被列为POPs而禁止生产和使用,导致以TBBPA和DBDPE为代表的BFRs产能急剧扩增。然而,由于缺乏对TBBPA和DBDPE生产和排放的有效监控,其潜在的环境风险不容忽视。本文重点介绍以TBBPA和DBDPE为代表的BFRs在环境中的污染现状、毒性效应及其机制的研究进展,并对这2种BFRs的未来研究重点进行展望,以期为开展BFRs环境风险评估、测算环境容量以及筛选潜在替代品提供重要参考,也将为政府部门调控BFRs产能提供理论依据。

1 四溴双酚A(Tetrabromobisphenol A, TBBPA)

1.1 TBBPA的理化性质

TBBPA是双酚A(bisphenol A, BPA)的溴化衍生物,室温下为白色或灰白色粉末,可作为反应型阻燃剂用于制造含溴环氧树脂,也可作为添加型阻燃剂用于丙烯腈-丁二烯-苯乙烯塑料(acrylonitrile butadiene styrene, ABS)、不饱和聚酯、胶黏剂以及涂料等。TBBPA具有热稳定性好、阻燃效率高、水不溶性和耐腐蚀等优点,缺点是燃烧时生成有毒气体和大量烟雾,添加后会降低被阻燃物对紫外光的稳定性,其理化性质如表1所示^[17-18]。TBBPA的辛醇水分配系数(logK_{ow})较高、水溶性低,在水体和土壤等介质中都具有较长的半衰期,容易在水体、土壤和底

泥等多种介质中持久、稳定存在。由于 TBBPA 具有高脂溶性,易富集到生物体内,对生物产生毒性效应,当化合物的生物累积系数(bioaccumulation factors, BAF)>5 000 ($\lg \text{BAF} > 3.7$)或者 $\log K_{\text{ow}} > 4$ 时,认为该化合物具有生物富集作用,TBBPA 的 BAF 和 $\log K_{\text{ow}}$ 范围分别是 9.56 ~ 22.64 和 4.50 ~ 6.53,表明 TBBPA 具有一定的生物富集效应^[18]。

表 1 四溴双酚 A(TBBPA)的物理化学性质
Table 1 Physicochemical properties of tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA)

理化性质 Physicochemical properties	TBBPA
CAS 号 CAS No.	79-94-7
分子式 Formula	$\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{16}\text{Br}_4\text{O}_2$
相对分子质量 Molecular weight	543.87
结构式 Chemical structure	
溴含量/% Bromine content/%	58
辛醇水分配系数($\log K_{\text{ow}}$) Octanol-water partition coefficient ($\log K_{\text{ow}}$)	4.50 ~ 6.53
熔点/℃ Melting point/°C	178
沸点/℃ Boiling point/°C	316 (分解 Decomposition)
密度/(g·cm ⁻³) Density/(g·cm ⁻³)	2.12 (20 °C)
蒸气压/Pa Vapor pressure/Pa	1.19×10^{-5} (20 °C)
水溶性/(mg·L ⁻¹) Water solubility/(mg·L ⁻¹)	1.26 (pH = 7, 25 °C)
生物累积系数 Bioaccumulation factor	9.56 ~ 22.64
半衰期(水)/d Half-life (water)/d	6.6 ~ 80.7
半衰期(土壤)/d Half-life (soil)/d	65

1.2 TBBPA 的污染现状

全球范围的调查研究显示,TBBPA 作为普遍存在的有机污染物之一,在空气、水体、土壤、沉积物和生物等多种环境介质中均有不同含量的检出(表 2)。中国已经成为 TBBPA 污染最为严重的地区,其中,TBBPA 的主要生产区(天津市、山东省和江苏省)和电子垃圾回收区(浙江省和广东省)是典型的污染区^[19~21]。本小节主要综述了 TBBPA 的分布特征、污染程度以及人体暴露等污染现状。

1.2.1 空气

TBBPA 作为添加型阻燃剂时,在生产以及电子垃圾拆解过程中容易通过挥发、渗出等方式释放到空气中,另外含有 TBBPA 废料的燃烧也会使 TBBPA 进入空气。由于 TBBPA 具有低蒸汽压和高亲脂性,容易在大气中被吸附至颗粒物上,仅部分能在大气中被检测到。有学者检测不同地区空气中 TBBPA 的含量时发现,工业区空气中 TBBPA 的浓度显著高于非工业区,如中国贵屿地区和瑞典斯德哥尔摩地区的电子元件回收厂空气中最高浓度分别可达 95.04 $\text{ng} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ 和 140 $\text{ng} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ ^[22~23],而中国深圳市某办公室和日本北海道某家庭室内空气中最高浓度仅为 0.51 $\text{ng} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ 和 0.02 $\text{ng} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ ^[24~25]。Abdallah 等^[26]通过调查不同区域空气中 TBBPA 浓度发现,公共环境 (26 $\text{pg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$)>家庭(16 $\text{pg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$)=办公室(16 $\text{pg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$)>室外(0.8 $\text{pg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$),这可能与使用阻燃剂材料的数量有关,公共区域大量使用阻燃剂材料导致更多的 TBBPA 释放。此外,还有研究发现,TBBPA 可在大气中远距离迁移,研究人员已在远离排放源的北极地区空气中检测到 TBBPA,含量最高为 70 $\text{pg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ ^[27]。

1.2.2 水体

水体在生态系统中覆盖面较广,其污染状况也引起人们的广泛关注。TBBPA 能通过与空气中颗粒物质结合扩散至水体环境中,也可通过废水排放、垃圾填埋等方式直接进入。目前已在多个国家的海洋和河流中都检测 TBBPA 的存在,其浓度高低与受人类活动影响大小相关,一般未污染区域的含量差异不大。德国埃姆斯河和穆尔德河中检出的 TBBPA 浓度范围是 0.2 ~ 20.4 $\text{ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$,法国奥尔日河支流 TBBPA 浓度在 0.035 ~ 0.068 $\text{ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 之间^[28],中国几个重要水域中检出浓度与上述相似,太湖、北江和东江中 TBBPA 浓度分别是 nd ~ 1.12、0.02 ~ 0.27 和 1.11 ~ 2.83 $\text{ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ ^[29~31]。工业区污水和城市区尾水排放等人类活动影响是造成天然水体中

TBBPA 污染的主要原因。TBBPA 在日本某废料填埋场附近水体中的最高含量是 $540 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ ^[32], 中国巢湖水体内含量范围是 $850 \sim 4870 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ ^[33], 均远高于非工业区水体内 TBBPA 含量^[34]。

1.2.3 沉积物和土壤

由于 TBBPA 具有较高的 $\log K_{ow}$, 在水中溶解度较低, 易与颗粒物结合, 水体中的 TBBPA 极易被水中悬浮物和底泥等吸附, 沉积物中 TBBPA 含量相

表 2 不同介质中 TBBPA 的含量

Table 2 Concentrations of TBBPA in different media

介质 Media	区域 Location	浓度范围 Concentration range	采样时间 Sample time	参考文献 References
	深圳某办公室, 中国 Offices, Shenzhen, China	0.006 ~ 0.511	2009	[24]
	贵屿某电子元件回收厂, 中国 Electronic waste dismantling sites, Guiyu, China	66.01 ~ 95.04	2007	[22]
空气/(ng·m ⁻³)	塞萨洛尼基某工厂, 希腊 Factories, Thessaloniki, Greece	nd ~ 2.58	2007	[45]
Atmosphere	北海道某家庭室内, 日本 Homes, Hokkaido, Japan	0.008 ~ 0.02	2006	[25]
/ (ng·m ⁻³)	北极 Arctic	70	2003	[27]
	斯德哥尔摩某电子元件回收厂, 瑞典 Electronic waste dismantling sites, Stockholm, Sweden	30 ~ 40	2000	[23]
	斯德哥尔摩某办公室, 瑞典 Offices, Stockholm, Sweden	0.031 ~ 0.038		
	渤海、黄海, 中国 Bohai Sea and Yellow Sea, China	57 ~ 607	2016	[49]
	塞纳河支流, 法国 Seine River, France	0.035 ~ 0.068	2008	[50]
水体/(ng·L ⁻¹)	巢湖, 中国 Lake Chaohu, China	850 ~ 4870	2008	[33]
Water/(ng·L ⁻¹)	北京, 中国 Beijing, China	nd ~ 1.91	2006	[34]
	埃姆斯河和穆尔德河, 德国 Ems and Mulde Rivers, Germany	0.2 ~ 20.4	2006	[28]
	某废料填埋场, 日本 Landfill sites, Japan	0.3 ~ 540	2004	[32]
	贵屿, 中国 Guiyu, China	13 700 ~ 41 200	2013	[39]
	大亚湾, 中国 Daya Bay, China	0.23 ~ 9	2012	[37]
沉积物/(ng·g ⁻¹)	巢湖, 中国 Lake Chaohu, China	22.0 ~ 518	2008	[33]
Sediment/(ng·g ⁻¹)	珠江, 中国 Pearl River, China	0.06 ~ 1.39	2009—2010	[36]
	斯克恩河, 英国 Skerne River, UK	9 750	2000	[35]
	污水处理厂, 瑞典 Wastewater treatment plants, Sweden	34 ~ 270	1999—2000	[38]
	居民区, 珠江三角洲, 中国 Residencies, Pearl River Delta, China	1.92		
土壤/(ng·g ⁻¹)	非居民区, 珠江三角洲, 中国 The surrounding areas, Pearl River Delta, China	0.07	2018	[51]
Soil/(ng·g ⁻¹)	某电子元件回收厂, 越南 E-waste recycling operations, Vietnam	nd ~ 2 900	2012	[52]
	垃圾回收点, 武汉, 中国 Garbage dumps, Wuhan, China	1 360 ~ 1 780	2005	[53]
	人发, 韩国 Human scalp hair, Korea	16.04	2017	[48]
	产妇血清, 图卢兹, 法国 Blood serum, Toulouse, France	310	-	[47]
	产妇乳汁, 图卢兹, 法国 Freeze-dried milk, Toulouse, France	7 000		
	浮游动物, 渤海、黄海, 中国 Zooplankton, Bohai Sea and Yellow Sea, China	930 ~ 10 165	2016	[49]
生物/(ng·g ⁻¹ ·dw)	鲶鱼, 贵屿, 中国 Catfish, Guiyu, China	5.6 ~ 101	2013	[44]
Organisms	鱼类, 巢湖, 中国 Fish, Lake Chaohu, China	28.5 ~ 39.4	2008	[33]
/ (ng·g ⁻¹ ·dw)	鱼类, 名古屋等, 日本 Fish, Nagoya, etc., Japan	0.01 ~ 0.11	2004—2005	[43]
	人脂肪组织, 纽约, 美国 Adipose tissues of human, New York, USA	0.048		
	宽吻海豚, 佛罗里达, 美国 Dolphins, Florida, USA	1.2	1991—2004	[19]
	鲨鱼, 佛罗里达, 美国 Sharks, Florida, USA	9.5		

对于水体样品更加稳定^[13]。在不同国家内陆河流沉积物中 TBBPA 含量相似,英国泰晤士河沉积物中检测出 TBBPA 最高浓度为 $2.6 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$,平均浓度为 $0.6 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$,这与荷兰($2.2 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$)和日本($1.6 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$)沉积物中的浓度接近^[32,35],在中国大亚湾和珠江等流域沉积物中均检测到 TBBPA 的存在,其浓度一般 $<10 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ ^[36-37]。近年来,随着 TBBPA 生产和使用量的显著增加,TBBPA 污染区沉积物的污染程度显著升高。瑞典污水处理厂 TBBPA 最高浓度是 $270 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ ^[38],英国 BFRs 生产工厂所在流域沉积物中 BFRs 最高浓度是 $9\,750 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ ^[35],中国贵屿电子元件回收厂废水接纳水体的沉积物中 TBBPA 含量是迄今报道的最高浓度,最高可达 $41\,200 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ ^[39]。而土壤中 TBBPA 含量的报道数据也表明,TBBPA 含量与污染源相关,山东寿光 BFRs 生产区和广东清远电子垃圾回收区 TBBPA 浓度分别为 $7\,758 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ 和 $646.04 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ ^[40-41],显著高于未受污染土壤中 TBBPA 含量($5.6 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$)^[42]。还有研究表明,TBBPA 的溶解性和迁移能力与土壤 pH 值呈正相关($\text{pH} < 7$ 时,水溶性 $<1.26 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$),在土壤 pH 变化时,可以通过渗滤作用污染地下水^[43]。

1.2.4 生物体

野生动物生活在含有 TBBPA 的环境中,可通过主动(摄食)和被动(暴露)方式摄入 TBBPA。而 TBBPA 具有较强亲脂性,容易在生物体内富集。目前已在浮游生物、鱼类、鸟类和哺乳类等体内广泛检出 TBBPA,调查研究发现,生物体内污染程度与生物栖息环境的污染状况相关,在污染较重区域,生物体内 TBBPA 含量更高。如日本名古屋鱼类体内 TBBPA 含量检出范围是 $0.01 \sim 0.11 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$,而中国巢湖和贵屿等污染区鱼类体内 TBBPA 含量是其千倍,浓度可达 $101 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$,这与采样地区存在大量的电子垃圾拆解厂相关^[28,33,43-45]。Johnson-Restrepo 等^[19]发现 TBBPA 在美国佛罗里达州的宽吻海豚和鲨鱼体内含量分别是 $1.2 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ 和 $9.5 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$,高于其他地区含量,这与北美地区发达的工业发展相关。对北极地区的调查发现,北极熊体内也存在 TBBPA,这也证实了 TBBPA 长距离迁移的能力^[20]。

1.2.5 人体暴露

人类不仅易受到环境(如家和办公室)中 TBBPA 的暴露,还可能通过食物摄入 TBBPA。现已证明 TBBPA 广泛存在于水产品、肉类和牛奶等多种食品中^[46],并在人类的脂肪、血清和乳汁等样品中都有不

同程度的检出,如法国女性血清和母乳中 TBBPA 含量分别是 $310 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ 和 $7\,000 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ ^[47],Barghi 等^[48]在研究中首次发现 TBBPA 存在于非特异性接触的人类头发中,含量为 $16.04 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$,表明样品中 TBBPA 可能来源于内源性暴露,非职业人群同样面临 TBBPA 暴露风险。

以上研究表明,TBBPA 污染程度与人类活动密切相关,工业区和人类生活区较自然环境中 TBBPA 污染更加严重,整体呈现经济发达地区较非经济区含量高的趋势。由于 TBBPA 的 $\log K_{ow}$ 较高,水溶性低,在不同环境介质中,沉积物等固相中 TBBPA 的污染程度高于气相和水相。TBBPA 具有高的脂溶性,容易富集到生物组织中,易对生物产生毒性作用。对比不同国家 TBBPA 的污染状况发现,中国作为 TBBPA 最大的生产国和使用国,面临的 TBBPA 污染状况更加严峻。因此,随着 TBBPA 的生产量和使用量的增加,各种环境介质中 TBBPA 含量将逐渐升高,持续关注并开展 TBBPA 的污染现状调查、毒理效应与机制研究以及包括人类在内的健康风险评估是亟待解决的重要问题。

1.3 TBBPA 的毒性效应

TBBPA 可在生物体内富集,会对生物体造成不利影响,开展 TBBPA 对生物的毒性效应及其机制的研究,对于早期预警 TBBPA 的生态风险具有重要意义。现有文献报道显示,TBBPA 对生物具有生长发育毒性、肝肾毒性、生殖毒性、神经毒性以及内分泌干扰等毒性效应。

1.3.1 生长发育毒性

大量研究表明,TBBPA 对浮游植物、浮游动物、软体动物、鱼类和哺乳动物等多种生物具有急性毒性,并影响生物的生长发育过程。由于受试生物自身的生理特征不同,导致 TBBPA 对不同生物的毒性效应具有差异。Covaci 等^[54]发现在大鼠和小鼠中,TBBPA 的半数致死剂量(LD_{50})分别 $>4 \text{ g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ 和 $>5 \text{ g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$,还会引起大鼠出现行动迟缓、行为呆滞和反应迟钝的情况^[28]。除哺乳动物外,TBBPA 能够限制低等生物的生长发育过程。以浮游生物为研究对象开展的 TBBPA 的毒性研究,发现 TBBPA 对不同浮游生物影响效应不同。如 TBBPA 对桡足类(*Oithona similis*) 48 h 半数致死浓度(48 h-LC_{50})值为 $3.106 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ ^[55];在 TBBPA 对叉鞭金藻(*Dicrateria inornata*)的暴露实验中,发现金藻细胞表面形态和内部亚显微结构改变,藻内光合色素含量会随着 TBB-

PA浓度的增加而显著下降^[56]。TBBPA对菲律宾蛤仔(*Ruditapes philippinarum*)的96 h-LC₅₀为7.4 mg·L⁻¹,还可诱发蛤仔滤食障碍,显著抑制壳体生长^[57]。TBBPA能引起海胆(*Psammechinus miliaris*)幼体发育畸形,造成海胆幼体形态较小和骨架异常^[58]。斑马鱼(*Danio rerio*)作为模式生物,常用于有机污染物毒性效应研究,TBBPA对斑马鱼胚胎的96 h-LC₅₀值为1.3 mg·L⁻¹^[59],TBBPA对斑马鱼的毒性表现为产卵凝固率增加、胚胎孵化时间延长、发育畸形、血流失调和心包水肿等^[60],还可影响斑马鱼眼睛发育,导致其视动反应降低^[61-62]。

TBBPA的发育毒性机制尚未完全阐明,可能通过细胞外信号调节激酶(extracellular signal-regulated kinase, ERK)瞬间激活随后降低,进而干扰MAPK信号通路,导致细胞周期出现明显的G2/M阻滞,减少细胞分裂,从而抑制生物体正常的生长发育^[63]。

1.3.2 肝肾毒性

肝脏和肾脏是哺乳动物重要的解毒和排毒器官。通过不同途径进入生物体内的TBBPA,会对肝脏和肾脏产生毒性效应。Tada等^[64]发现孕期小鼠食用含TBBPA的饲料,可以同时导致受试小鼠母体和幼体的发生肝肾损伤;低剂量的TBBPA(200 mg·kg⁻¹)会导致新生大鼠的轻微肾损伤,肾小管发生多囊性病变,尿中肾脏上皮细胞排出量增多^[65-66]。TBBPA能引起大鼠体内谷胱甘肽(glutathione, GSH)含量下降、超氧化物歧化酶(superoxide dismutase, SOD)活性和丙二醛(malondialdehyde, MDA)含量增加,还诱导雄性青春期大鼠肾脏中大量产生DNA氧化损伤的生物标志物8-羟基脱氧鸟苷(8-OHdG)^[67]。在另一项研究中,TBBPA导致新鲜分离的大鼠肝细胞内损失大量三磷酸腺苷(adenosine triphosphate, ATP)、GSH和硫醇(mercaptan, R-SH)^[68]。除上述肝肾毒性外,还可对肺造成损伤。龙金烈和黄长江^[69]发现TBBPA气相暴露能引起雄性小鼠肺组织炎症、肺组织细胞膜损伤、激发肺组织自身的免疫保护及抗炎抗纤维化作用。

TBBPA对鱼类也表现出一定的肝肾毒性。TBBPA的肝脏毒性主要表现为对肝细胞及肝脏组织的损害,可破坏肝细胞索状结构、导致肝细胞间隙增大、胞核固缩、空泡化、脂肪化以及线粒体囊泡化^[70-71]。TBBPA暴露会导致鲫(*Carassius auratus*)肝脏中过氧化氢酶(catalase, CAT)和SOD活性降低,GSH和MDA含量降低^[72-73]。研究不同浓度TBB-

PA对罗非鱼(*Mossambica tilapia*)肝脏抗氧化系统的影响时发现,随TBBPA浓度增加,罗非鱼体内的GSH含量和谷胱甘肽巯基转移酶(glutathione S-transferase, GST)活性呈现先下降后上升的趋势,SOD活性呈现先上升后下降趋势^[74]。Ronisz等^[75]发现TBBPA可引起鱼体内谷胱甘肽还原酶(glutathione reductase, GR)活性显著升高。

氧化应激是目前被广泛认可的TBBPA器官毒性的致毒机理。TBBPA可通过破坏线粒体功能对器官实质细胞产生毒害作用,即TBBPA的卤化苯酚特性破坏线粒体氧化磷酸化作用,通过CYP2B1/2B2诱导产生过量活性氧(ROS),导致线粒体损伤^[67-68]。生物体依靠抗氧化酶系统清除多余的ROS,若ROS平衡被破坏,将导致细胞功能丧失,影响器官的正常生理功能。

1.3.3 内分泌干扰效应

正常组织学结构和稳定的激素水平是维持内分泌系统结构和功能的重要保障,可用于评估污染物的内分泌干扰作用。TBBPA被认为是一种潜在的内分泌干扰物(endocrine disrupting chemicals, EDCs),主要通过非受体途径引发内分泌干扰效应,即通过影响下丘脑-垂体-甲状腺轴(hypothalamus-pituitary-thyroid axis, HPT axis)、下丘脑-垂体-性腺轴(hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis, HPG axis)和下丘脑-垂体-肾上腺轴(hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis, HPA axis)中的某些环节,参与或影响激素的正常合成、代谢、转化和活性。TBBPA与三碘甲状腺原氨酸(triiodothyronine, T3)、四碘甲状腺原氨酸(thyroxine, T4)的结构非常类似(图1),研究表明,TBBPA可以影响甲状腺的正常组织形态、破坏体内激素平衡以及干扰甲状腺相关基因的表达水平^[61,76]。

TBBPA能够引起生物体内甲状腺激素水平的紊乱,不同物种和不同性别生物体内的变化趋势存在差异。Wistar大鼠食用含有16 mg·kg⁻¹ TBBPA的饲料28 d后,雄性大鼠血清T4水平升高,T3水平降低,雌性T4水平升高,T3水平无明显变化^[77]。TBBPA可导致红鲫甲状腺滤泡上皮增厚、滤泡细胞代偿性肥大和增生^[78],还可导致斑马鱼甲状腺中胶质减少^[70]。长期暴露于50~500 μg·L⁻¹ TBBPA的欧洲川鲽(*Platichthys flesus*)血浆中T4水平显著增加,但T3水平无显著变化^[79];TBBPA还导致粗皮蛙(*Rana rugosa*)体内T3含量显著增加^[80];暴露于TBBPA的鲫血浆中总甲状腺素(total thyroxine, TT4)

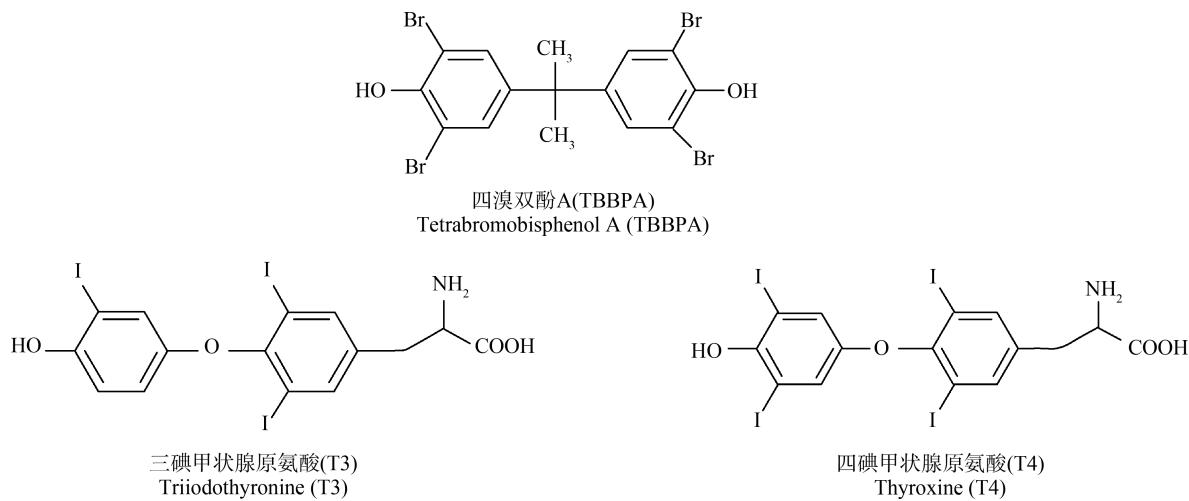


图 1 TBBPA 与甲状腺激素 T3 和 T4 的结构对比

Fig. 1 Structures of TBBPA and thyroid hormones T3 and T4

和总三碘甲腺原氨酸(total triiodothyronine, TT3)水平显著下降^[78]。

TBBPA 影响 HPT 轴关键基因的表达水平, 干扰甲状腺调节的生物过程。促甲状腺 β 基因 *tsh\beta* 作为甲状腺轴的主要调节因子, 调控循环甲状腺激素(thyroid hormones, THs)的浓度, 甲状腺激素受体(thyroid hormone receptors, TR)充当配体介导的转录因子, 可以激活或抑制靶基因的表达^[81]。斑马鱼在胚胎期和仔鱼期分别暴露于 TBBPA, 都能够导致孵出仔鱼体内的 *tsh\beta* 表达上调^[82]。Goto 等^[83]还发现 TBBPA 抑制 T3 与 TR 的结合, 同时抑制 TR 介导的甲调基因的表达。

除影响 HPT 轴外, TBBPA 还影响生物的 HPG 轴和 HPA 轴。雄性黑斑蛙(*Rana nigromaculata*)暴露于 TBBPA 后, 精子数量和精子活动性显著降低, 精子畸形以浓度依赖性方式显著增加, 引起睾酮(testosterone, T)、雌二醇(estradiol, E2)含量增加, 黄体生成素(luteinizing hormone, LH)和促卵泡激素(follicle stimulating hormone, FSH)含量降低, 并导致睾丸中雄激素受体(androgen receptor, AR)基因的异常表达, 造成精子发生异常^[84]。TBBPA 还可显著下调斑马鱼 AR 通路中 *ThRa* 及相关基因的表达, 以及雌激素受体(estrogen receptor, ER)通路中的 *er2a* 和 *er2b* 基因的表达^[85], 还会导致黄颡鱼(*Pelteobagrus fulvidraco*)体内卵黄蛋白原(vitellogenin, VTG)和 HPA 轴中促肾上腺皮质激素(adreno cortico tropic hormone, ACTH)含量上升^[86]。

1.3.4 生殖毒性

现有研究表明, TBBPA 可导致性别分化不明、两性畸形、性腺发育异常、性成熟周期缩短、配子排放时间及排出量减少等现象, 并可诱导睾丸细胞凋亡、精子质量下降、附睾精子 DNA 损伤及蛋白分布异常^[87-88]。TBBPA 对哺乳动物的生殖毒性效应主要体现在对性腺发育的影响。van der Ven 等^[77]发现 TBBPA 可导致雄性大鼠性腺质量增加, 延长雌性大鼠性发育时间。而暴露于 $0.1 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ TBBPA 的斑马鱼的生殖器官结构发生变化, 雌性斑马鱼卵巢发育被抑制, 雄性斑马鱼生精细管管壁变薄, 精原细胞和精母细胞数目减少, 间质细胞增多^[89]。TBBPA 还可以影响生物体的生殖功能。环境相关浓度的 TBBPA ($0.047 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) 暴露可显著降低斑马鱼产卵率, 较高浓度的 TBBPA ($<1.5 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) 可导致斑马鱼卵母细胞早熟, 产卵率、孵化率和仔鱼成活率下降^[90]。

TBBPA 的生殖毒性机制尚未完全阐明, 有研究结果显示, TBBPA 可能通过影响雌激素活性干扰生殖系统的发育及其正常功能^[91]。

1.3.5 神经毒性

TBBPA 能影响生物的神经发育并干扰其神经活动, 表现出一定的神经毒性。研究发现, TBBPA 对小鼠和大鼠的神经活动都会产生影响, 例如, TBBPA 暴露可导致成年大鼠活动和学习能力变化, 对子代大鼠的听觉和应激等行为产生影响^[92], 说明 TBBPA 可从亲代传递至子代。小鼠海马神经元细胞暴露于 TBBPA 后, 引起 caspase-3 活化以及凋亡

小体形成^[93]。然而也有研究发现,新生小鼠暴露于 $11.5 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ TBBPA 10 d 后,无任何神经行为改变^[66]。TBBPA 对斑马鱼也表现出神经毒性,可显著延缓早期发育阶段斑马鱼的颅运动神经元发育、抑制初级运动神经元发育,导致肌纤维松弛^[94]。TBBPA 还可导致斑马鱼自发性行为的改变,如 TBBPA 可导致 19~26 hpf 斑马鱼仔鱼的自主运动频率显著增加,显著减弱 27、36 和 48 hpf 仔鱼的接触反应能力,120 hpf 仔鱼自由泳动速度显著降低^[95]。

TBBPA 在脑区的积累能够导致生物体的神经行为改变^[96],有关 TBBPA 的神经毒性作用机制尚不完全明确。Mariussen 和 de Fonnum^[97]认为 TBBPA 能够抑制原生质膜摄取多巴胺等神经传递素,影响神经递质传递效率,从而产生神经毒性。细胞内 Ca^{2+} 浓度失衡在 TBBPA 诱导的兴奋性毒性机制中也起到关键作用,Ryanodine 受体(RyR)介导的细胞内 Ca^{2+} 释放和 NMDA 受体(NMDARs)介导的 Ca^{2+} 内流共同参与了 TBBPA 诱导的神经元细胞内钙失衡机制,从而进一步诱导神经细胞死亡^[98~100]。此外,TBBPA 暴露导致的 THs 的缺乏也可造成生物脑部发育障碍。TBBPA 的神经毒性也部分归因于 THs 水平的改变^[70]。

2 十溴二苯乙烷 (Decabromodiphenyl ethane, DBDPE)

2.1 DBDPE 的理化性质

DBDPE 是一种新型高效的 BFRs,其理化性质如表 3 所示,常温状态下为白色均匀颗粒,具有阻燃效率高、抗紫外线性能佳、不含树脂载体和热稳定性好等优点。DBDPE 易于处理,热裂解或燃烧时不产生有毒的多溴代二苯并二噁英 (polybrominated dibenz-p-dioxins, PBDD) 和多溴代二苯并呋喃 (polychlorinated dibenzofurans, PBDF),被广泛用于塑料、建材和纤维等方面,尤其是添加用于抗冲击性聚苯乙烯 (high impact polystyrene, HIPS)、聚对苯二甲酸丁二醇酯 (polybutylene terephthalate, PBT) 和 ABS 等工程塑料的阻燃^[101~102]。DBDPE 具有的较高的 $\log K_{ow}$,较低的水溶性,在水体中半衰期长达 800 d,能够在多种介质中稳定存在。此外,生物放大因子(biomagnification factor, BMF)分析评估污染物沿食物链的生物放大效应,用于研究污染物在食物链上的传递。DBDPE 的 BMF 为 0.2~9.2,BAF 范围是 6.1~7.1,表明生物可通过食物链富集 DBDPE,并产生放大效应。

表 3 十溴二苯乙烷(DBDPE)的物理化学性质

Table 3 Physicochemical properties of decabromodiphenyl ethane (DBDPE)

理化性质 Physicochemical properties	DBDPE
CAS 号 CAS No.	84852-53-9
分子式 Formula	$\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_4\text{Br}_{10}$
相对分子质量 Molecular weight	971.22
结构式 Chemical structure	
溴含量/% Bromine content/%	82
辛醇水分配系数($\log K_{ow}$) Octanol-water partition coefficient ($\log K_{ow}$)	11.1
熔点/℃ Melting point/°C	345~350
沸点/℃ Boiling point/°C	676.2
密度/($\text{g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$) Density/($\text{g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$)	2.8
蒸气压/Pa Vapor pressure/Pa	6.0×10^{-15} (25 °C)
水溶性/($\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) Water solubility/($\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)	$2.1 \times 10^{-7} \sim 7.2 \times 10^{-4}$
生物累积系数 Bioaccumulation factor	6.1~7.1
生物放大因子 Biomagnification factor	0.2~9.2
半衰期(水)/d Half-life (water)/d	700

2.2 DBDPE 的污染现状

随着经济发展,DBDPE 的需求量和生产量不断增加,其在环境中的检出量也逐年增多。Kierkegaard 和 Bjorklund^[103]首次在环境中检测到 DBDPE 的存在,目前国内外研究者已在空气、水体、沉积物和生物等多种介质中检出 DBDPE(表 4)。与 TBBPA 相似,生产区和电子垃圾回收区是 DBDPE 主要的污染区。

2.2.1 空气

DBDPE 作为一种添加型 BFRs,容易在生产、使

用和回收处理过程中扩散至空气。通常情况下,近污染源处空气中 DBDPE 含量较高,如山东省莱州湾地区空气中 DBDPE 最高含量为 $270 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$,要显著高于远离污染源的山西地区^[104]。不同国家室内环境中 DBDPE 的含量,反映了阻燃剂市场的地域差异,并与阻燃产品使用的类型和数量相关。美国和加拿大室内空气中测得的 DBDPE 浓度显著高于捷克共和国^[105]。相较于空气中,空气灰尘中 DBDPE 污染水平更高,且中国室内灰尘中 DBDPE 含量较欧美国家高,其中,中国东莞家庭灰尘中 DBDPE 含量($2441 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$)约为美国($201 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$)的 10 倍、英国($24 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$)的 100 倍左右^[106-108]。在新西兰

等不生产和使用 DBDPE 的国家中,DBDPE 的环境浓度也在增加,这可能是由于进口电子电气产品造成的^[106]。

2.2.2 水体

由于 DBDPE 具有极强的疏水性,进入水体后沉积物是其主要的分布相,水体中有关 DBDPE 的研究数据相对较少。曾艳红等^[109]在东江水域检测发现,DBDPE 已成为水体中主要的 BFRs,占总阻燃剂的 64%,其浓度范围为 $9.1 \sim 990 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 。李光耀^[110]仅在黄河流域东部发达地区检出 DBDPE,且水平较低。这表明,水体中 DBDPE 可能来源于污染物的直接排放,与人类活动影响直接相关。

表 4 不同介质中 DBDPE 的含量水平

Table 4 Concentrations of DBDPE in different media

介质 Media	区域 Location	浓度范围 Concentration range	采样时间 Sample time	参考文献 References
空气/ $(\text{ng} \cdot \text{m}^{-3})$	太湖,中国 Taihu Lake, China	0.023	2009	[128]
Atmosphere $(\text{ng} \cdot \text{m}^{-3})$	广州,中国 Guangzhou, China	402 ~ 3 578	2007	[129]
	汉普郡,英国 Hampshire, UK	24	2006—2007	[107]
	斯德哥尔摩,瑞典 Stockholm, Sweden	0.077 ~ 7.9	2005—2006	[130]
水体/ $(\text{ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1})$	东江,中国 Dongjiang River, China	0.013 ~ 0.038	2010	[122]
Water $(\text{ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1})$	东江排污口,中国 Sewage outlet, Dongjiang River, China	9.1 ~ 990	2009	[109]
	温尼伯湖,加拿大 Lake Winnipeg, Canada	nd	2000—2002	[11]
沉积物/ $(\text{ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1})$	贵屿,中国 Guiyu, China	13 700 ~ 41 200	2013	[39]
Sediment $(\text{ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1})$	珠江三角洲,中国 Pearl River Delta, China	1.520 ~ 1 714	2013	[131]
	黄海,中国 Yellow Sea, China	nd ~ 39.7	2010—2014	[113]
	渤海,中国 Bohai Sea, China	0.024 ~ 11.22	2010—2014	[132]
	大亚湾,中国 Daya Bay, China	nd ~ 1.6	2012	[30]
	长江三角洲,中国 Yangtze River Delta, China	nd ~ 1.57	2011	[133]
	珠江三角洲,中国 Pearl River Delta, China	nd ~ 30.5	2009—2010	[134]
	温尼伯湖,加拿大 Lake Winnipeg, Canada	nd	2000—2002	[11]
土壤/ $(\text{ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1})$	华北地区,中国 North China	nd ~ 1 612	2013	[115]
Soil $(\text{ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1})$	珠江三角洲,中国 Pearl River Delta, China	18 ~ 60	2007	[129]
	苏腊巴亚,印度尼西亚 Surabaya, Indonesia	nd ~ 7.6	2009	[135]
	珠江三角洲,中国 Pearl River Delta, China	19 ~ 430	2006	[136]
生物/ $(\text{ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{ dw})$	白头鹎,广东,中国 Light-vented bulbul, Guangdong, China	nd ~ 80		
Organisms $(\text{ng} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \text{ dw})$	棕背伯劳,广东,中国 Long-tailed shrike, Guangdong, China	3.1 ~ 130	2009—2011	[117]
	鹊鸲,广东,中国 Oriental magpie-robin, Guangdong, China	3.4 ~ 92		
	鱼类,永兴岛,中国 Fish, Yongxing Island, China	17.2 ~ 137.1	2012	[137]
	鲶鱼,贵屿,中国 Catfish, Guiyu, China	3.4 ~ 14	2013	[44]
	扬子鳄,安徽,中国 Alligators, Anhui, China	0.01 ~ 192	2006—2007	[119]
	鮀鱼,温尼伯湖,加拿大 Burbot, Lake Winnipeg, Canada	nd ~ 3.3		
	鲱鱼,温尼伯湖,加拿大 Goldeye, Lake Winnipeg, Canada	nd ~ 1.63	2000—2002	[11]
	鲈鱼,温尼伯湖,加拿大 Walleye, Lake Winnipeg, Canada	nd ~ 2.71		

2.2.3 沉积物和土壤

由于DBDPE的水溶性极低,沉积物中DBDPE的主要来源是水体中DBDPE的沉积,其含量与污染源分布密切相关^[111-112]。Zhen等^[113]对多条渤海入海河流的水体沉积物调查发现,其中最主要的BFRs为DBDPE。贵屿作为中国最大的电子垃圾回收区,该地区沉积物中DBDPE浓度最高可达41 200 ng·g⁻¹^[39]。DBDPE在沉积物中的浓度高低与具体采样地点相关,比如在瑞典波罗的海沉积物中,DBDPE的含量从外岛的40 km范围内到内港逐步增加20倍~50倍^[114]。另有研究表明,沉积物中DBDPE浓度具有季节差异性,但无相关规律,如上海黄浦江、苏州河和蕴藻浜在丰水期和枯水期沉积物中DBDPE含量无明显差异^[5]。在瑞典湖泊沉积物中DBDPE浓度范围是0.23~11 ng·g⁻¹^[114],取样点附近没有已知的BFRs污染源,它们在沉积物中的存在也为DBDPE来源水体和大气迁移提供了证据。目前在多个国家的土壤中也都检出了DBDPE,分析华北地区87份土壤样品,发现中国山东和天津地区土壤中DBDPE含量最高,这可能与DBDPE生产地作为释放源有关^[115]。

2.2.4 生物体

DBDPE具有高亲脂性,目前已在双壳类、甲壳类、两栖类、鱼类、鸟类和哺乳动物等生物体内检测出DBDPE^[116-124]。DBDPE在生物体内的分布表现出物种、组织以及地区特异性。对中国珠江口的生物调查发现,双壳类和甲壳类体内DBDPE含量高于其他水生生物,范围是0.34~15 ng·g⁻¹,可能与其底栖生活和吞食沉积物的生活方式相关^[118]。由于DBDPE具有高亲脂性,更容易在脂肪组织中富集,如格陵兰岛鲸鱼的脂肪组织内DBDPE含量要远高于其肝脏内含量^[120]。中国广东东江鱼体内DBDPE含量比加拿大温尼伯湖中鱼体内的含量要高2个数量级^[11,121],说明污染源是导致生物体内DBDPE差异的主要原因。宠物生活在室内容易接触到电器、家居等含有DBDPE的材料,已在宠物猫和狗的毛发中检出DBDPE,含量分别是5.9 ng·g⁻¹和3.85 ng·g⁻¹^[122]。此外,富集在生物体内的DBDPE能够通过食物链累积^[11,123],在加拿大温尼伯湖水生食物链中DBDPE的BMF范围是0.2~9.2,BAF范围是6.1~7.1;在中国东江内BMF范围是6.1~7.1。生物体内DBDPE浓度与营养级明显正相关,DBDPE可通过食物链富集,产生生物放大效应^[116]。

2.2.5 人体暴露

DBDPE在食物和人体内也具有不同程度的检出,Fernandes等^[124]在多种食品中检测到DBDPE存在,浓度范围是0.05~1.76 ng·g⁻¹,人体中DBDPE主要来源于饮食、呼吸和皮肤暴露等途径,母乳是婴儿摄入的主要途径。有研究者分别对中国不同地区妇女的乳汁,以及中国广东大学生血清和头发样品进行检测,结果显示,DBDPE在乳汁、血清和头发样品中的检出率均为100%,其中,血清平均浓度为39.2 ng·g⁻¹(脂重),提示国内不同地区的环境DBDPE污染已普遍存在^[5]。Zheng等^[125]发现电子垃圾回收区拆卸工人头发内DBDPE水平要显著高于回收地居民(29.4 ng·g⁻¹)和城市居民(10.9 ng·g⁻¹)。相较于国内人群中较高水平的DBDPE富集,国外人群调查研究中DBDPE少有检出,2010—2014年,对瑞典维修工人和加拿大魁北克的孕妇的血清样本进行检测,均未发现DBDPE的存在^[126-127]。

作为新型BFRs,生产区和工业区是DBDPE主要的污染区,相较于其他国家,中国面临的污染情况更加严重。由于DBDPE的logK_{ow}较高、水溶性低,在不同环境介质中,沉积物是其主要分布相。与TBBPA类似,DBDPE具有高的脂溶性,容易富集到生物体内并蓄积在脂肪组织中,通过食物链的生物放大作用,对生物产生毒性作用。因此,随着DBDPE生产量和使用量的持续增加,其在多种环境介质中均被检出,尤其是在人体内高频率检出,DBDPE的环境风险和人体健康风险不容忽视。

2.3 DBDPE的毒性效应

由于DBDPE容易富集到生物体内并蓄积在脂肪组织中,对生物产生毒性作用,并通过食物链的放大作用,对生物种群、生态系统造成威胁。DBDPE的环境风险和人体健康危害已引起国内外研究人员的广泛关注,相较于大量的环境污染调查数据,目前国内针对DBDPE毒理效应的研究报道相对较少,现有的研究显示,DBDPE对生物表现出潜在的生长发育毒性、肝脏毒性和神经毒性等。

2.3.1 生长发育毒性

DBDPE毒性相对较低,大鼠LD₅₀>5 000 mg·kg⁻¹,家兔LD₅₀>2 000 mg·kg⁻¹^[138],青春期雄性大鼠食用含不同剂量DBDPE的饲料,其精巢、前列腺和睾丸发育正常,其重量和组织学结构无明显变化^[139];DBDPE对孕期大鼠和家兔无明显毒性,对其子代无发育毒性和致畸性^[1];部分研究者认为DB-

DPE 不具有急性毒性, 水蚤(*Daphnia magna*)暴露于 $110 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ DBDPE 48 h 后, 仍无明显毒性效应^[140-141]; 对斑马鱼孵化率、畸形率和存活率没有显著影响^[104]。然而, 也有部分研究显示 DBDPE 能影响生物的生长发育过程。Nakari 和 Huhtala^[142]发现, DBDPE 暴露影响水蚤发育过程中的运动方式(半数效应浓度(EC_{50}) = $19 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$), Jin 等^[143]用高浓度 DBDPE($1 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$)染毒斑马鱼时, 发现斑马鱼孵化受抑制以及仔鱼游动距离下降等毒性效应。总之, 关于 DBDPE 的生长发育毒性尚无统一论, 其毒性机制尚未见阐释。

2.3.2 肝肾毒性

有相关研究发现, 肝脏和肾脏是 DBDPE 的主要富集部位, DBDPE 富集可导致肝脏和肾脏功能异常^[144-145]。大鼠食用含 DBDPE 的饲料 30 d 后, 出现肝细胞肥大和细胞质空泡化, DBDPE 处理组与对照组相比, 肝脏内 CYP1A、CYP2B 和尿苷二磷酸葡萄糖醛酸基转移酶(uridine diphosphateglucuronic acid transferase, UDPGT)酶活性有显著升高^[146]。另有研究发现, DBDPE 处理后的大鼠血清中糖含量升高, 表明 DBDPE 影响了大鼠肾脏的正常功能^[67]。与此相反, Wang 等^[146]发现大鼠食用含 $100 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ DBDPE 的饲料 90 d 后, 肾脏形态和功能无显著改变。Sun 等^[147]发现, DBDPE 可诱导 Hep G2 细胞 ROS 生成量增加, 并证实 DBDPE 诱导的肝细胞损伤和凋亡与 ROS 有关。Wang 等^[148]饲喂大鼠 DBDPE 90 d 后($100 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$), 暴露组血清中 DBDPE 含量显著升高, 肌酐、谷草转氨酶和碱性磷酸酶活性明显降低, 但总胆汁酸含量有所增加。除哺乳动物, DBDPE 在其他生物中也表现出肝肾毒性。DBDPE 能够导致草鱼幼鱼肝脏细胞直径增大, 并诱导氧化应激相关酶类, 如 SOD、CAT、谷胱甘肽过氧化物酶(glutathione peroxidase, GSH-PX)活性以及抗氧化物质(如 GSH)的浓度发生变化, 表现出低浓度诱导和高浓度抑制的效应^[72,149]。除体内实验外, 虹鳟肝细胞体外暴露实验的研究结果显示, DBDPE 能够在虹鳟肝脏细胞中发生积聚和代谢, 且 DBDPE 在生物体内的代谢产物能够诱导细胞凋亡, 抑制细胞增殖, 随着 DBDPE 暴露浓度的升高, UDPGT 活性增强更为显著^[142]。此外, Gan 等^[145]还发现 DBDPE 对草鱼具有肾脏毒性, 草鱼经 $0 \sim 3000 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ DBDPE 饲喂 56 d 后, 肾脏内 5 种 miRNA 表达水平显著下调, 36 种肾脏 miRNA 水平显著上调。

与 TBBPA 相似, 氧化应激机制也被认为是 DBDPE 产生器官毒性效应的主要机制。当生物体面临轻度 DBDPE 胁迫时, 会产生大量的 ROS, 生物体通过体内抗氧化酶系统发挥作用, 清除过量 ROS, 而当受到严重胁迫, 超过了机体清除能力, 就会导致器官损伤。UDPGT 活性的升高, 表明 DBDPE 可通过影响 CAR/PXR 信号通路, 诱导 CYP1A 和 CYP2B 的酶活性变化。CYP1A 和 CYP2B 可作为外源核受体(即 AhR 和 CAR)的激活剂, 诱导体内代谢和转录水平变化, 造成肝肾毒性, 也可进一步影响生物体的内分泌系统^[148]。

2.3.3 内分泌干扰效应

DBDPE 对鱼类和哺乳类等生物也同样具有内分泌干扰效应。在哺乳动物体内, DBDPE 通过干扰核受体 AhR 和 CAR 信号通路, 导致大鼠血清中 FT3 和 TT3 水平降低^[150]。Smythe 等^[151]将人肝脏细胞和甲状腺细胞暴露于 DBDPE, 通过测量甲状腺激素(T4、T3、RT3 和 $3,3'$ -T2)浓度的变化来测量酶活性, 结果显示, DBDPE 能够抑制 T3 和 $3,3'$ -T2 的脱碘酶活性, 从而影响甲状腺激素的平衡。以大鼠为研究对象评估 DBDPE 的内分泌干扰效应, 发现 DBDPE 不仅可破坏大鼠甲状腺组织结构, 导致血清中促甲状腺激素(thyrotropin thyroid stimulating hormone, TSH)和促甲状腺激素释放激素(thyrotropin releasing hormone, TRH)含量增加, 影响 HPT 轴相关基因的表达, 还可显著提高大鼠血清中 T3 水平^[148]。Viganò 等^[152]报道 DBDPE 可引起雄性凡鮈(*Barbus plebejus*)血浆内 VTG 含量升高, 显著抑制 T3 和 T4 水平。而部分研究发现 DBDPE 对甲状腺内分泌功能具有不同的干扰效应。Wang 等^[153]发现, DBDPE 暴露可导致斑马鱼仔鱼体内 T3 和 T4 含量显著增加, 转甲状腺素蛋白(transthyretin, TTR)显著增加。

DBDPE 及其代谢物的积累可能导致细胞色素 P450 酶(Cytochrome P450, CYP)和 UDPGT 酶活性变化, 干扰由 AhR 和 CAR 信号通路介导的甲状腺激素水平, 影响葡萄糖代谢的稳态^[154], AhR 是一种胞质表达的转录因子, 能够感知广泛的内源性和外源性配体, 由此产生配体与 AhR 复合物移位到细胞核, 与特定 DBD 序列结合, 增加了靶基因的转录。DBDPE 对干扰内分泌的机制也可能与脱碘酶活性受影响有关^[151]。

2.3.4 其他毒性

除上述毒性效应外, 还有研究者对 DBDPE 的

生殖毒性进行了研究,发现青春期雄性大鼠饲喂DBDPE后,生殖器官(睾丸、前列腺和精囊)的质量和病理学检查未发现改变^[139]。此外,中国南方电子产品回收地区鸡的大脑中检出极低水平的DBDPE,预示着其可能对神经系统也存在潜在的不良影响^[155],但斑马鱼仔鱼暴露于不同浓度DBDPE后,斑马鱼体内的乙酰胆碱酶活性以及神经系统相关基因($\alpha 1$ -tubulin 和 gap43)的转录水平均未发生显著变化,未对斑马鱼神经系统产生明显毒性效应^[156]。因此,DBDPE是否具有其他毒性效应仍需进一步研究。

3 展望(Prospects)

近年来,随着PBDEs和HBCD等多种溴系阻燃剂被联合国规划署《斯德哥尔摩公约》、欧盟REACH(Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals)、RoHS(Restriction of Hazardous Substances)等法规、标准禁止或限制生产和使用,TBBPA和DBDPE产能急剧扩张。同时,在空气、水体、沉积物、土壤、生物以及人体内TBBPA和DBDPE的检出量均呈现上升趋势。此外,阻燃剂在生产和流通过程中,不可避免地会释放到环境中,生产源污染、电子废弃物拆解等人类活动加剧了TBBPA和DBDPE的污染。学者们已对TBBPA和DBDPE的环境行为以及毒性效应开展了一系列探索,未来对TBBPA和DBDPE的研究仍需关注以下几个问题:

(1)商用TBBPA和DBDPE中存在多种衍生物或类似物,而且TBBPA和DBDPE在环境和生物体内都可发生代谢转化,这些衍生物、类似物以及代谢物的环境行为、毒性效应和机制值得关注。如果TBBPA和DBDPE被禁用,应持续关注其衍生物、类似物以及代谢物的环境行为。

(2)开展对TBBPA和DBDPE毒理效应的计算模拟预测相关研究,解析其结构-活性关系,为研发新型替代型阻燃剂提供参考。

(3)目前,关于TBBPA和DBDPE的毒性研究多以高浓度、急性暴露为主,研究结果难以反映真实环境中BFRs对环境、人体的影响,应开展低剂量、长期暴露毒性实验。此外,作为典型BFRs,随着TBBPA和DBDPE的环境浓度不断增加,TBBPA和DBDPE与其他典型污染物的联合毒性也有待进一步研究。

(4)现已在多种食品甚至人体内普遍检测到TBBPA和DBDPE,其食品摄入风险以及对人体健

康的影响迫切需要深入探索并持续关注。

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