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综述

食品中微塑料的研究现状

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摘要:微塑料是广泛存在于海洋和陆地环境中的一种全球性污染物, 随着微塑料相关研究的不断深入, 食品中微塑料的潜在健康效应引发了人们的高度重视。全面认识食品中微塑料的危害对食品安全和人体健康非常重要。本文综述了食品中微塑料的分析方法、分布、暴露、毒理学研究现状, 并提出了亟待解决的问题, 期望能为食品安全相关研究提供参考。

关键词:食品; 微塑料; 分析方法; 毒理学研究

中图分类号:R155 **文献标识码:**A **文章编号:**1004-8456(2021)04-0517-07

DOI:10.13590/j.cjfh.2021.04.020

Microplastics in food

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收稿日期:2021-04-15

基金项目:国家重点研发计划(2018YFC1603102);国家自然科学基金面上项目(81673173);国家食品安全风险评估中心高层次人才队伍建设项目

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Abstract: Microplastic is a global pollutant widely existing in the marine and terrestrial environments. The potential health effects of microplastics in food have attracted more and more attentions based on the continuous research. A comprehensive understanding of microplastics in food is very important for food safety and human health. In this paper, the analysis methods, occurrence, exposure and toxicity of microplastics in food are reviewed and the urgent problems needed to be solved are put forward to provide reference for food safety related research.

Key words: Food; microplastics; method of analysis; toxicological study

随着食品和物品用包装需求的增加,自20世纪50年代开始大规模生产塑料。1972年CARPENTER等^[1]在美国佛罗里达沿海首次发现了微塑料。2004年,英国普利茅斯大学的THOMPSON等^[2]在*Science*杂志上发表了关于海洋水体和沉积物中塑料碎片的论文,首次提出了“微塑料”的概念。微塑料(Microplastics)通常被定义为直径小于5 mm的塑料纤维、颗粒或碎片,主要成分包括聚乙烯(Polyethylene, PE)、聚丙烯(Polypropylene, PP)、聚氯乙烯(Polyvinyl chloride, PVC)、聚苯乙烯(Polystyrene, PS)、聚对苯二甲酸类(Polyethyleneterephthalate, PET)等,按其来源可分为初生微塑料和次生微塑料。初生微塑料是指经过河流、污水处理厂等而排入水环境中的塑料颗粒工业产品,如化妆品配方中的微珠及在塑料产品生产过程中使用的球形或圆柱形原始树脂^[3]。次生微塑料是指由塑料碎片经过长期紫外线暴露及物理磨损而成的塑料颗粒,是微塑料的主要存在形式。

据统计,全球塑料产量从2017年的3.59亿t增长到2018年的3.68亿t^[4],每年约有至少800万t的塑料流入海洋,预计到2050年海洋中的塑料重量将超过鱼类的总重量^[5]。随着微塑料污染日益严重,研究者陆续在鱼^[6-7]、蜂蜜^[8]、双壳类动物^[9-11]、啤酒^[12]、虾^[13]、食盐^[14]、瓶装水^[15]及果蔬食品^[16,17]中发现了微塑料。2019年,Philipp Schwabl首次在人类粪便样品中发现了塑料微粒,其源头很可能是海产品。微塑料的潜在健康效应引发了公众和政府管理部门的高度重视^[18]。全面掌握微塑料的研究现状对开展食品安全研究至关重要,因此,本文整理了国内外相关研究成果,对食品中微塑料的分析方法、分布、暴露、毒理学研究结果等进行了综述,提出亟待解决的问题并进行了总结。

1 食品中微塑料的分析方法

目前食品中微塑料的标准分析方法尚未建立^[19],亟需研究制定不同样品组织下微塑料采样及定性定量指南^[20]。目前,已经制定了环境样品中微塑料分析技术^[21],一般包括样品分离、定性鉴别和定量分析^[22]。

1.1 样品分离

对微塑料检测之前,需要先分离出微塑料,主要分离方法包括目检法、密度法、筛分过滤法、酸/碱/酶消解法、氧化法、微波辅助萃取法等^[19,21,23,24]。其中目检法是通过裸眼或在显微镜辅助下将微塑料与其他材料如有机碎片(壳碎片、金属、涂料)等区分、分离出来并计数的一种常用方法。

1.2 定性鉴别

微塑料定性鉴别的分析方法包括目视鉴定法、傅里叶变换-红外光谱分析法、近红外高光谱成像(Near-infrared hyperspectral imaging, NIR-HSI)、拉曼光谱法、染色法、扫描电子显微镜及能谱仪法、示差扫描热法及热重分析法、热解吸-气相色谱-质谱联用技术、碳氢氮分析法^[21]、光谱技术结合机器学习^[25]。

1.3 定量分析

微塑料定量分析方法包括目检法、显微傅里叶变换-红外光谱分析法、显微拉曼光谱法、示差扫描热法及热重分析法、热解吸-气相色谱-质谱联用技术等。

2 食品中微塑料的分布和转移

2.1 食品中微塑料的分布

食品中微塑料分布的相关研究主要集中在海产品,全球累计发现120多种渔业物种中存在微塑料污染^[26],除此之外,有文献报道在啤酒^[12]、糖和蜂蜜^[8]、食盐^[14, 27]、瓶装水^[15, 28-30],以及苹果、梨、胡萝卜、生菜等果蔬食品^[16, 17]中发现有微塑料分布。

联合国粮食及农业组织(Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, FAO)和欧盟食品安全局(European Food Safety Authority, EFSA)都对食品中微塑料的含量进行过调查^[19, 26, 31],在双壳类[如长牡蛎(*Crassostrea gigas*)和青蛤(*Cyclina sinensis*)]、鱼类[如大西洋鲱(*Clupea harengus*)和大西洋鳕(*Gadus morhua*)]、其他无脊椎动物[包括短沟对虾(*Penaeus semidulacatus*)和褐虾(*Crangon crangon*)等]、蜂蜜、啤酒、食盐中都含有微塑料。其中,关于中国的报道中提到了双壳类动物(调研中微塑料含量最高的食品)和食盐。

2015年,华东师范大学的LI等^[11]调研了我国某渔业市场贝类的微塑性污染情况。9种市售双壳类动物中微塑料的含量在2.1~10.5个/g,粒径为5~5 000 μm,其中60%的微塑料粒径在5~250 μm。在所有的双壳类动物的组织中都存在纤维、碎片和颗粒等多种微塑料,其中纤维是最常见的,占全部微塑料的一半以上^[11]。

在中国各地的超市收集了15种品牌的食盐,检测了微塑料污染情况,结果发现,海盐中微塑料的含量为0.55~0.68个/g,湖盐为0.043~0.36个/g,岩/井盐为0.007~0.20个/g。在海盐中,碎片和纤维状微塑料是最常见的类型,粒径在45~4 300 μm,小于200 μm的微塑料占总数的55%。最常见的微塑料是聚对苯二甲酸乙二醇酯,其次是海盐中的聚乙烯和玻璃纸。海盐中微塑料的丰度显著高于湖盐和岩/井盐,这一结果表明,海盐等海产品特别容易受到微塑料的污染^[14]。

以上数据表明,我国贝类及食盐中微塑料污染普遍存在,并且污染水平较高,因此有必要进一步研究塑料微粒对人体健康的影响。

2.2 微塑料沿海洋食物链转移

微塑料的大小类似于某些浮游生物,可被许多海洋无脊椎动物摄取^[32],也可以在沉积物中积累^[2],因此底栖生物可能会摄入微塑料并在营养级之间转移。FARRELL和NELSON^[33]证明贻贝和螃蟹之间发生了营养转移。MURRAY和COWIE^[34]研究发现,挪威龙虾(*Nephrops norvegicus*)通过被喂食的带有聚丙烯链的鱼片而摄入微塑料。ERIKSSON和BURTON^[35]在海狗(*Arctocephalus spp.*)的粪便中发现了微塑料,推测是其猎物大眼电灯鱼(*Electrona subaspera*)摄入微塑料所致。由于鱼粉在家禽生产和养殖猪中有一定应用,因此微塑料可能最终会分布在非海洋食品中^[36]。

3 食品中微塑料的暴露情况

人体可通过呼吸、经口摄入或皮肤接触暴露于微塑料。关于微塑料膳食暴露的研究目前主要集中于海产品^[26],非海产品类报道较少。海鱼体内的微塑料主要集中在消化道,但消化道通常不被作为食品食用,因此其中的微塑料一般不会直接暴露给人类,消费者对可食用部分中微塑料的暴露量很低。由于滤食性双壳类动物(如贻贝)的消化道会被食用,因此,滤食性双壳类的食用量代表了从海产品中摄入微塑料的量。LUCAS等^[37]检测了270位法国女性志愿者的贻贝食用量,平均为200 g(无壳),假设通常男性比女性多吃25%,则男性对贻贝的平均食用量为225 g。

EFSA调研微塑料含量最高的食品中微塑料含量中位数为4个/g^[11]。因此,食用225 g贻贝将会暴露约900个微塑料。根据VAN CAUWENBERGHE和JANSSEN^[10]及BOUWMEESTER等^[36]的研究,假设微塑料为平均粒径25 μm的球形颗粒^[10]、密度为0.92 g/cm³^[36],则900个塑料颗粒将重量为7 μg。即食用225 g贻贝,微塑料的暴露个数为900个,暴露重量为7 μg。

4 微塑料的毒性研究

4.1 微塑料的毒物动力学研究

微塑料毒物动力学现有可用的数据主要包括吸收和分布情况,而关于代谢和排泄的相关资料相对较少,目前还没有关于微塑料在人体体内吸收的数据^[19]。食入微塑料后是否发生肠上皮跨膜转运尚不清楚,如发生跨膜转运,则内部器官和组织将暴露于微塑料。

肠壁上皮细胞是微塑料的重要屏障(不包括直接的跨细胞转运),最大的细胞间隙只有约1.5 nm,大于1.5 nm的微塑料不可能通过细胞旁途径摄入体内^[38]。派尔集合淋巴结微褶皱细胞可能是微塑料吸收的主要场所^[39]。微塑料通过派尔集合淋巴结微褶皱细胞摄取后可能发生吞噬或内吞作用^[39],粒径小于0.5 μm时发生内吞作用,粒径大于0.5 μm时巨噬细胞发挥吞噬作用^[40],吞噬作用的上限由巨噬细胞的体积决定。小鼠腹腔注射聚甲基丙烯酸盐和聚苯乙烯微粒后观察到腹膜巨噬细胞对1.5和12 μm的微粒有吞噬作用^[41]。啮齿类动物腹腔注射或吸入微塑料,微塑料激活T细胞并被巨噬细胞吞噬,巨噬细胞将颗粒转运到淋巴结^[41-43]。

粒径大小是摄取微塑料途径和程度的重要的决定因素之一。哺乳动物通过肠道跨膜转移到淋巴系统的微粒,粒径范围为0.1~150 μm,不同物种通过肠道跨膜转移到淋巴系统的威力粒径情况如下:人类为0.2~150 μm,狗为3~100 μm,兔子为0.1~10 μm,啮齿动物为30~40 μm^[44]。粒径大于150 μm的微塑料可能不会被吸收,只对免疫系统和肠道炎症有局部作用,小于150 μm的微塑料可能会导致系统性暴露。淋巴中出现的大于0.2 μm的微粒将通过脾过滤系统被清除进入肠道,血液中的微粒会被胆汁从肝脏中清除,最后通过粪便排出体外,只有粒径小于1.5 μm的微塑料才可能进入器官^[40]。

粒径更小的聚苯乙烯纳米颗粒常被用于进行哺乳动物体内外研究。不同研究中灌胃给予聚苯乙

烯(50 nm)的生物利用度为0.2%~7%^[45-46]。据报道,聚苯乙烯(50~500 nm)在各种体外肠道模型中的摄取量变化很大(摄取范围为1.5%~10%),除了与前述粒径大小有关外,表面化学性质和体外模型的类型也是影响其摄取的主要因素^[45, 47-48]。更小的微塑料可以跨上皮细胞转运并进入包括大脑在内的许多器官,还可能透过胎盘屏障,存在代际效应^[49]。

4.2 其他毒性研究

一般来说,口服摄入的微塑料大部分(>90%)将通过粪便排泄掉,只有<150 μm的塑料颗粒才能在肠道上皮细胞内转移,从而引起全身性暴露产生毒性效应。目前报道的微塑料毒性研究主要包括细胞毒性、生殖毒性、免疫反应、影响铁的吸收、其他效应、复合暴露效应等。

微塑料进入细胞内,会引起细胞毒性。聚乙烯纳米颗粒溶解在脂质双层膜的疏水核中,形成一个不缠结的单聚合链网络,会改变细胞膜的结构和功能^[50]。聚苯乙烯微塑料具有低毒性,人结肠癌Caco-2细胞暴露于其中[0.1 μm(20、50、80 μg/mL)和5 μm(80 μg/mL)]12 h,会破坏线粒体膜电位,抑制膜ABC转运蛋白活性^[51]。

微塑料暴露可能具有一定生殖毒性。海胆受精约30分钟后胚胎暴露于氨基修饰聚苯乙烯颗粒(PS-NH₂,50 nm),PS-NH₂会产生包括外胚层膜增厚和异常增生、外胚层断裂等胚胎毒性(EC50 3.85 μg/mL 24 hpf 和 EC50 2.61 μg/mL 48 hpf)^[52]。太平洋牡蛎幼体暴露于PS-COOH或PS-NH₂(1或10 μm,100个/mL)8 d后,未发现其对幼体生长或摄食能力产生影响^[53]。斑马鱼受精6~120 h后暴露于聚苯乙烯颗粒(50和200 nm,100和1000 ppb)发现聚苯乙烯颗粒可以在斑马鱼幼体组织中积累,并通过改变转录组来影响其行为和生理^[54]。6周雌雄Wistar大鼠暴露于含聚氯乙烯(PVC,150 μm)、聚苯乙烯(150 μm)和聚碳酸酯(150 μm)的高脂饲料(2%,w/w)60 d,均会导致雄性大鼠性腺的代偿性增大,3种微塑料可能对雄性大鼠的生殖系统有影响;与对照组相比,雄性PVC组的雌二醇浓度显著降低,雌性PVC组的雌二醇浓度显著上升,提示PVC微塑料的摄入会扰高脂饮食大鼠的生殖内分泌^[55]。

微塑料可被吞噬细胞摄取,因此与免疫系统相互作用可能性高。曾有报道研究PS-NH₂(50 nm,50 μg/mL)对贻贝(*Mytilus galloprovincialis*)血细胞的影响,结果表明PS-NH₂导致吞噬细胞的吞噬活性呈剂量依赖性降低,但缺乏对其他物种的相关研究结果^[56]。

微塑料的摄入会影响铁的吸收。采用活体鸡模型单剂量暴露于羧化聚苯乙烯颗粒(50 nm,2 mg/kg bw)可导致铁的吸收降低3倍,还会导致异嗜性白细胞在门静脉周围聚集和脾脏中具有活性生发中心的淋巴滤泡密度增加^[57]。将Caco-2、HT29-MTX和Raji B细胞共培养暴露于羧化聚苯乙烯颗粒[50 nm(1.25 * 10¹²个/mL)或200 nm(2 * 10¹³个/mL)]中,带正电荷的聚苯乙烯塑料会破坏肠道对铁的吸收^[57]。

秀丽隐杆线虫暴露于聚苯乙烯颗粒(1.0 μm,1 mg/L)3 d后,unc-17和unc-47的表达显著下调,且聚苯乙烯颗粒对胆碱能和γ-氨基丁酸能神经元产生明显的损伤^[58]。成年Wistar雄性大鼠经口暴露于聚苯乙烯颗粒[1、3、6、10 mg/(kg bw)/d]5周后未观察到有潜在神经毒性作用^[59]。

贻贝(*Mytilus edulis*)消化腺的液泡中摄入塑料颗粒(1~80 μm)48 h后,观察到肉芽肿形成(炎症)、血细胞数量增加和溶酶体稳定性降低等现象^[60]。贻贝(*Mytilus edulis*)摄入的聚苯乙烯微球(3.0或9.6 μm,暴露量为1 500个)3 d即可从肠道转运到循环系统,在体内保留48天以上,尽管在淋巴和血细胞中存在微塑料,但未观察到任何毒理学效应^[32]。贻贝(*Mytilus edulis*)长期暴露(39 d)于尼龙(聚酰胺-6,直径10 μm,长度小于100 μm,24个/mL),对浮游植物(*Tetraselmis sp.*)的清除率显著降低(21%)^[61]。日本青鳉鱼(*Oryzias latipes*)暴露于聚乙烯微塑料(8 ng/mL)两个月后,雄性青鳉鱼的绒毛膜原蛋白(Chg-H)基因表达显著下调,雌性青鳉鱼卵黄蛋白原(Vtg I)、Chg-H和雌激素受体(ERα)基因表达显著下调,表明塑料碎片可能会改变成年鱼的内分泌系统功能^[62]。

除了微塑料自身毒性以外,人们一直担心微塑料添加剂外溢,以及微塑料作为持久性有机污染物(POPs)、重金属、致病微生物等有毒物质的传播载体,随着食物链的流转最终到达人类体内,从而产生潜在的联合危害^[36],联合国粮食及农业组织(FAO)预计食用海产品后,人类对持久性有机污染物和塑料添加剂的化学接触量仅为总膳食暴露量的0.1%,可忽略不计^[26]。

5 厥待解决的问题

近20年来,微塑料相关的研究论文数量呈指数级增长,但由于目前用于食品中的微塑料分析鉴定标准方法尚未建立,导致不同论文的数据可比性较低^[31],目前亟需建立一种灵敏、可靠的能从复杂环境基质中提取并鉴定微塑料的方法。

目前尚不清楚人类每天微塑料的暴露量,暴露后毒物动力学可用数据仅包括吸收和分布情况,而代谢和排泄相关资料较少,且在人体胃肠道环境中,微塑料的降解能否形成纳米塑料也不清楚。还没有关于微塑料吸收的人体体内数据。

最近,LI等^[63]在*Nature Food*发表的一项研究,表明在使用含有聚丙烯的婴儿奶瓶冲泡标准配方奶粉时,奶瓶可能会释放出塑料微粒,使用聚丙烯奶瓶喂养的婴儿1岁之前平均每天会暴露于160万个塑料微粒中。我们对食物接触材料向食品中释放和迁移的微塑料知之甚少,需要更多的研究数据支持。

全球对微塑料水污染的研究很多^[64],但以往的研究很少关注微塑料对高等植物的影响。大多数微塑料可直接或通过塑料降解排放到陆地环境中,并在土壤中大量积累甚至影响土壤特性^[65],对陆地生态系统构成潜在威胁。2020年,OLIVERI CONTI等^[16]首次发现水果与蔬菜中存在微小的塑料碎片,其中苹果是污染最严重的水果样品,而胡萝卜是污染最严重的蔬菜样品。LI等^[17]研究发现莴苣和小麦作物根部的裂缝可以吸收周围土壤与水中的微塑料,这些微塑料可以从作物根部上传到可食用部分。LI等^[66]研究了纳米级聚苯乙烯对黄瓜叶片的叶绿素代谢、糖代谢、光合荧光参数的变化影响,通过抗氧化系统主要酶活性和基因表达量的改变,印证了聚苯乙烯对黄瓜植株的生理毒性。除了海鲜类食品外,我们还需关注果蔬植物等食品的微塑料污染。此外,海产品的养殖、果蔬植物的种植的规范化,以及采取何种监管措施等都需要相关研究给予数据支撑。

6 小结

随着对塑料和微塑料使用量的增加,微塑料已经成为一种普遍存在的污染物,广泛存在于水产养殖、海洋环境中的常用水生物种中,目前,微塑料已经对食品安全和人类健康构成威胁。近年来,微塑料污染已成为全球关注的热点,但食品中微塑料的研究相对薄弱。目前还没有建立食品中微塑料采样和检测的标准方法,现有的毒理学资料仍不完善,微塑料的影响途径和可能对人类健康造成的风险方面的研究也亟需加强,只有全面掌握微塑料对人体健康的危害,才能对其开展科学的食品安全性风险评估。

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