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畜禽抗生素对植物的生态毒理效应综述

李淑英, 徐道青*, 刘小玲, 陈敏, 王维, 阚画春, 郑曙锋, 孙霞

安徽省农业科学院棉花研究所, 合肥 230031

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摘要: 随着畜禽规模化养殖的发展, 畜禽抗生素用量不断增加, 且随着畜禽粪便扩散到土壤、水体中; 植物吸收、积累并转化抗生素, 从而对植物生长和生理代谢产生影响。本文综述了畜禽抗生素应用及污染现状, 详述了近年来四环素类、磺胺类和喹诺酮类等畜禽抗生素对大田作物、蔬菜果树、湿地植物、农田杂草、水生植物及藻类的种子萌发、根、叶的形态和生理代谢的生态毒理效应的研究进展, 着重综述了畜禽抗生素对这些植物光合作用和抗氧化系统的生态毒理效应的研究进展。以期为污水的植物修复、粮食蔬菜的生物安全以及生态环境安全提供科学依据。

关键词: 畜禽抗生素; 植物; 植物毒性; 生态毒性; 氧化应激反应

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Review on Ecotoxicological Effects of Livestock and Poultry Antibiotics on Plants

Li Shuying, Xu Daoqing*, Liu Xiaoling, Chen Min, Wang Wei, Kan Huachun, Zheng Shufeng, Sun Xia

Cotton Research Institute of Anhui Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Hefei 230031, China

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Abstract: With the development of large-scale farming of livestock and poultry, the use of antibiotics in livestock and poultry farming has been increasing, and more antibiotics have been spread into soil and water with the livestock manure. Plants absorb these antibiotics from soil and water, and accumulate and transform them, thus affecting plant growth and physiological metabolism. The present paper reviews the use and pollution status of livestock and poultry antibiotics, and describes in detail the recent progress on the ecotoxicological effects of tetracyclines, sulfonamides, quinolones, and other antibiotics on seed germination, root and leaf morphology, physiological metabolism of field crops, vegetable and fruit trees, wetland plants, farmland weeds, aquatic plants and algae. Additionally, the research progress on the ecotoxicological effects of livestock and poultry antibiotics on plant photosynthesis and antioxidant system has been highlighted. The aim of this review is to provide a scientific basis for plant remediation of sewage, biology security of food and vegetables, and protection of ecological environment.

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第一作者: 李淑英(1968—), 女, 硕士, 副研究员, 研究方向为农田杂草发生规律与防治技术, E-mail: lishuyingnew@aliyun.com

* 通信作者(Corresponding author), E-mail: 41516168@qq.com

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抗生素用于治疗和预防畜禽疾病^[1],还可促进畜禽生长、提高饲料效率和增加畜禽食品产量^[2]。随着畜禽养殖业的快速发展,兽用抗生素的用量在不断增加。2020年畜禽用抗生素消费量最高的国家分别是中国、巴西和美国^[3];2020年中国境内实际销售的畜禽用抗生素总量为32 776 t,较2019年增长6.06%^[4]。多数抗生素类药物在畜禽体内不能被完全代谢,其中有30%~90%会随着畜禽尿液和粪便排出体外^[5-7]。排出体外的抗生素仍具有生物活性,而且可能在环境中转化为相应的母体化合物^[8-9],或是以代谢中间产物存在,成为具有毒性的物质。环境中的抗生素残留会影响水生和陆生生物^[10-13],改变环境中的微生物活性和群落组成^[14],导致微生物对抗生素耐药性的发展^[15]。

我国畜牧业规模不断提高,畜牧业养殖方式从家庭散养向规模养殖加速转变^[16]。我国在规模化畜禽养殖业中滥用抗生素的现象严重^[17]。我国每年产生畜禽粪污量高达38亿t^[18];其中未受处理的畜禽废弃物经雨水冲刷流入水体或将畜禽粪污直接施用于农田,对水体、土壤和空气等生态环境造成污染。植物吸收、积累并转化抗生素,影响植物生长和生理代谢,从而可能改变植物群落;植物体内抗生素随后将进入食物链,可能对取食植物的动物^[19]、人类产生影响^[20]。因此,近年来,畜禽抗生素对植物生态毒性效应的研究成为热点。

1 畜禽抗生素应用及污染现状 (Application and pollution state of antibiotics in livestock and poultry farms)

抗生素是由细菌、霉菌或其他微生物在自身生活过程中所产生的具有抗病原性的一类活性物质。根据抗生素的分子结构或作用机制的不同,可分为大环内酯类、 β -内酰胺类、磺胺类、四环素类、林可酰胺类、糖肽类、喹诺酮类、氨基糖苷类等^[21]。目前,主要有四环素类、大环内酯类、磺胺类、喹诺酮类、青霉素类、头孢菌素类、氨基糖苷类等抗生素广泛应用于畜禽养殖过程中。近20年来开展抗生素污染研究的论文不断涌现,尤其是抗生素对环境中植物影响的相关研究。本文选取中外研究植物吸收畜禽抗生素后生长、生理变化的相关论文106篇,其中涉及的畜禽抗生素包括四环素类4种、磺胺类12种、喹诺酮类7种、大环内酯类4种、青霉素类7种、氨基糖

苷类4种等;其中使用频率较高的抗生素有四环素(tetracycline, TC)29次,磺胺甲噁唑(sulfamethoxazole, SMZ)20次,环丙沙星(ciprofloxacin, CIP)19次,土霉素(oxytetracycline, OTC)、金霉素(chlortetracycline, CTC)和磺胺二甲嘧啶(sulfamethazine, SM2)各15次,磺胺嘧啶(sulfadiazine, SDZ)和氧氟沙星(ofloxacin, OFL)各11次,恩诺沙星(enrofloxacin, ENR)和红霉素(erythromycin, ERY)各10次。

四环素类抗生素(tetracyclines, TCs)常用于猪的各个生长阶段,以促进其生长并预防疾病,但在幼猪的饲料中比在成年猪的饲料中用得更多^[22]。磺胺类药物占畜禽和水产所用抗生素的11%~23%^[23]。四环素类抗生素口服剂量的25%由粪便排出,另外50%~60%作为母体化合物和活性代谢物从尿液中排出^[24]。进入动物体内的SDZ约50%以母体化合物排出,约30%以乙酰化合物排出^[25];其乙酰化合物在肥料储存期间又易转化为母体化合物^[26]。不同种类抗生素在不同环境中的吸附性不同。四环素类抗生素对土壤有机质有很高的亲和力^[27-28],大环内酯类(macrolides)抗生素易于被水解或吸附到土壤和沉积物中^[29],喹诺酮类(quinolones)抗生素易吸附在沉积物中^[30],磺胺类抗生素在水中表现出很高的溶解性和化学稳定性^[29]。

依据动物种类和大小的不同,畜禽饲喂抗生素的剂量一般是0.003~0.220 g·kg⁻¹^[31-32]。抗生素的使用方式与动物种类有关;除用作疾病预防与治疗外,抗生素在养猪场广泛用作饲料添加剂,而在养牛场就很少用于饲料添加剂^[33]。环境中抗生素的类型和浓度因地区和国家而异,这取决于抗生素的消费和使用模式^[34]。动物摄入的大部分抗生素会以原形及其活性代谢物的形式通过粪尿排出体外,再通过多种途径进入环境(图1)。

畜禽粪便中抗生素含量检测范围在mg·kg⁻¹量级,不同类型抗生素的检出率和检测浓度存在差异,一般喹诺酮类、四环素类检出率和检测浓度较高,磺胺类抗生素浓度较低,可能与畜禽种类^[17,36-38]、饲养方式^[17]以及动物类型和年龄、抗生素的类型及剂量水平^[39]、取样季节^[40]和地区^[41]有关^[33,42-43];同时动物废水中抗生素检测浓度高达μg·L⁻¹量级^[33]。动物废水直接排放、动物废水的淋滤以及动物粪便和废水在农田施用,可能会导致地表水、地下水和农业土

壤受到抗生素污染。土壤中的抗生素残留浓度从未检出至 $2\text{--}683\text{ }\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ ^[43-44],地表水中的抗生素残留浓度为 $2\text{--}6\,800\text{ ng}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ^[45-46],地下水中浓度为 $1.4\text{--}14\text{ }\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ^[47]。

1 400 ng·L⁻¹^[47-48]。在中国境内多个水域的水体和沉积物中检测到多种不同抗生素，且不同抗生素在不同水域的含量存在差异^[49]。

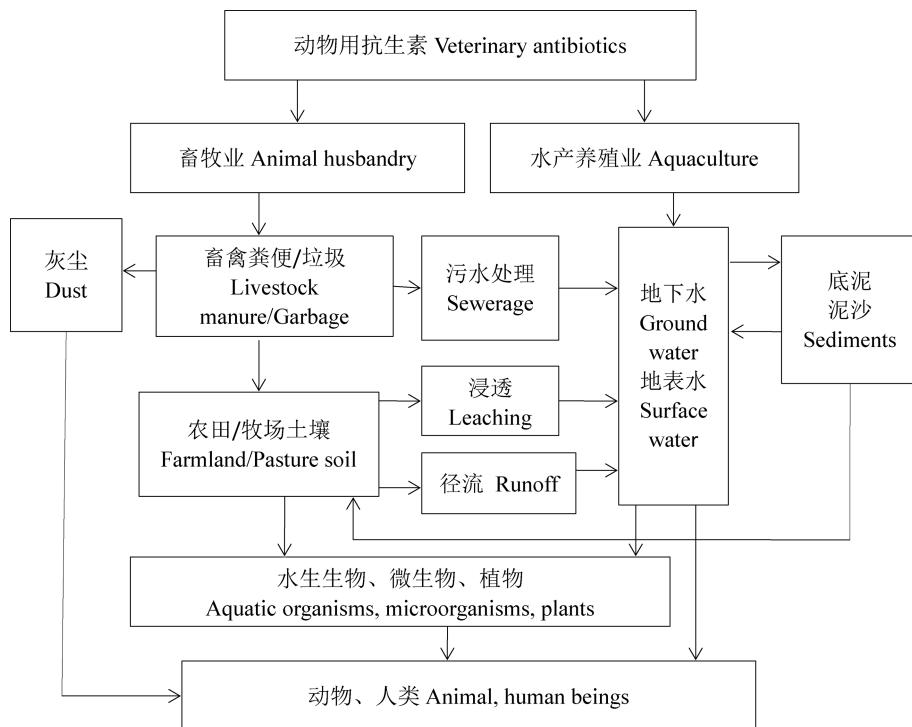


图 1 畜禽抗生素在环境中迁移的可能途径(修改自[35])

Fig. 1 Migration of veterinary antibiotics in the environment (Modified from reference [35])

在土壤中,抗生素与土壤矿物、有机物和生物体相互作用,并受到吸附、光水解、氧化和生物降解的影响。抗生素在土壤中的持久性受土壤类型、有机质含量、pH值、水分含量和温度的影响^[50-53]。在不同的pH下,抗生素和环境中的腐殖物质、金属氧化物呈现不同的离子状态,导致抗生素在该环境中与不同的物质吸附,并呈现不同的滞留状态^[52,54]。耕作方式、作物轮作和粪便类型影响喹诺酮类抗生素在土壤中的污染及分布方式^[55-59]。土壤中四环素残留量显著高于磺胺类残留量^[43],主要是由于其化学特性的不同:四环素类抗生素高吸附系数(sorption coefficients, K_d),易于与土壤颗粒结合,相对稳定,不易在土壤中迁移^[60];反之,磺胺类抗生素 K_d 值低,水溶性较强,易于从地表向下迁移^[61]。

抗生素在河流(水相、悬浮颗粒物和沉积物)中的分布与其物理化学性质有关。Zhou 等^[33]研究发现,磺胺类药物($3.58 \sim 291 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)、甲氧苄啶(trimethoprim, TMP)($6.22 \sim 19.2 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)、林可霉素(linco-

mycin, LINC)($4.88 \sim 11.8 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)和氟苯尼考(florfenicol, FLF)(ND $\sim 52.1 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)主要分布在水相中,而四环素类药物($13.7 \sim 1010 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$)和喹诺酮类药物($2.78 \sim 235 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$)主要分布在沉淀相。Luo等^[62]则在海河的水体和沉积物中发现磺胺类药物的检测浓度($24 \sim 385 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)和频率($76\% \sim 100\%$)最高。畜禽粪便作为肥料施入农田后,其中抗生素可渗入农田土壤和水系。反复施用畜禽粪肥可能会导致抗生素在农田中积累,显著提高抗生素浓度^[63-64],并对土壤和水系中植物产生影响。

2 畜禽抗生素对植物的生态毒理效应 (Ecotoxicological effects of livestock and poultry antibiotics on plants)

106篇论文中,针对畜禽抗生素对植物生态效应的研究主要包括大田作物、蔬菜果树、湿地植物、农田杂草、水生植物及藻类,共有82种,其中13种藻类。大田作物中居首位的是小麦(*Triticum aestivum* L.)13篇,其次是玉米(*Zea mays* L.)7篇,接下

来分别有油菜(*Brassica napus* L.)和水稻(*Oryza sativa* L.)各5篇、花生(*Arachis hypogaea* L.)2篇、大麦(*Hordeum vulgare* L.)、黍(*Panicum miliaceum* L.)和黄豆(*Glycine max* L.)各1篇。涉及24种蔬菜,以生菜(*Lactuca sativa* L.)为研究对象的占12篇,接下来有小白菜(*Brassica chinensis* L.)和番茄(*Solanum lycopersicum* Mill.)各7篇、黄瓜(*Cucumis sativus* L.)5篇、胡萝卜(*Daucus carota* L.)、萝卜(*Raphanus sativus* L.)和豌豆(*Pisum sativum* L.)各4篇,余下的各1~2篇。作为模式生物的拟南芥(*Arabidopsis thaliana* L.)有4篇。涉及杂草和湿地植物29种,其中芦苇(*Phragmites australis* (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud.)、千屈菜(*Lythrum salicaria* L.)各3篇,多年生黑麦草(*Lolium perenne* L.)、阿皮拉草(*Apera spica-venti* (L.) P. Beauv.)、菖蒲(*Acorus calamus* L.)、香根草(*Chrysopogon zizanioides* L. Roberty)和水葫芦(*Eichhornia crassipes* (Mart.) Solms)各2篇。13种藻类中研究较多的分别是小球藻(*Chlorella vulgaris* L.)3篇、羊角月牙藻(*Selenastrum capricornutum* Printz)、铜绿微囊藻(*Microcystis aeruginosa* Kütz)和水华微囊藻(*Microcystis flos-aquae* (Wittner) Kirchner)各2篇,其余各1篇。粮食作物、蔬菜果树直接关系到人类的健康,杂草是农田生态的重要组成部分,微型藻类处于水生生态食物链底端,是监测水质的关键有机体之一。因而成为研究畜禽抗生素对植物生态毒性效应的主要对象。

土壤或水中抗生素进入植物根系之前要经历吸附、吸收过程,植物根系所吸收的外来有机化合物的比例及其在植物体内的运输路径在很大程度上取决于其物理化学性质^[65]。一旦被根系吸收,抗生素就会通过维管系统在植物体内重新分配,遵循蒸腾驱动的质量流或由转运蛋白和通道构成的能量依赖性路径(共质体参与)^[66]。抗生素的物理化学性质以及植物种类和生理学决定了抗生素在不同植物组织和器官中的积累^[67~68]。另外,在植物细胞中可能通过基于酶的复杂机制以各种方式代谢抗生素,导致其解毒、失活和分泌^[69~70]。因此,植物体内抗生素浓度随着环境中抗生素浓度增加而增加^[71~73];同一植物对不同类型抗生素的吸收和积累不同^[74~75];同一植物的不同组织吸收积累抗生素的量常因抗生素性质不同而异^[76~78],一般植物根的积累量大于叶^[79~81]和茎^[82~84]的。植物通过根系从土壤或水体中吸收抗生素、转运至植物各个组织中积累、代谢和转化,从而对植物不同组织及其个体产生生态毒性效应。抗生

素对植物的毒性效应是抗生素与植物在特定环境条件下相互作用的结果,症状包括植物形态变化和生理生化变化^[85~86]。这些变化取决于植物物种与性状、抗生素种类和浓度等^[87]。

2.1 畜禽抗生素对植物种子萌发的生态毒理效应(Ecotoxicological effects of livestock and poultry antibiotics on plant seed germination)

一般地,植物种子发芽对抗生素不敏感^[88~93]。不同种类的抗生素包括氯霉素(chloramphenicol, CAP)、螺旋霉素(spiramycin, SPR)、大观霉素(spectinomycin, SPT)、万古霉素(vancomycin, VAN)影响番茄种子萌发^[92]。抗生素也有可能对植物种子发芽产生负面影响,该影响因植物种类和抗生素而异。CIP处理显著降低玉米平均发芽时间^[94]。6种抗生素(CTC、TC、泰乐菌素(tylosin, TYL)、SMZ、SM2、TMP)对苦苣(*Cichorium endivia* L.)、水稻和黄瓜的发芽试验表明,苦苣对这6种抗生素最敏感,黄瓜的敏感性最低;四环素类和磺胺类药物对3种植物种子萌发的毒性更大,而TYL和TMP对种子萌发的毒性较小^[13]。较高浓度SDZ(10 mg·kg⁻¹)显著降低了小麦出苗率^[95]。较低浓度CTC^[96]和TC^[97]促进小麦萌发、细胞有丝分裂和生长,而较高浓度显著抑制发芽率(25~300 mg·L⁻¹)和有丝分裂指数(MI)(25~300 mg·L⁻¹)等过程。随着CTC及其代谢物差向金霉素(4-epi-chlortetracycline, ECTC)浓度升高,油菜种子发芽率和发芽势先升高后降低,但与对照差异不显著^[98]。5~10 μg·L⁻¹青霉素(penicillin, PEN)、SDZ及TC显著延迟小麦和阿皮拉草发芽,同时延迟油菜萌发,对芥菜(*Capsella bursa-pastoris* L. Brassicaceae)发芽时间没有影响^[87]。10 mg·kg⁻¹ SMZ、诺氟沙星(norfloxacin, NOR)和强力霉素(doxycycline, DOX)拌鸡粪施于土壤中,其中SMZ降低小白菜和萝卜的发芽率,DOX和NOR则增加小白菜和萝卜的发芽率^[99]。10 mg·L⁻¹ CIP、OFL、左氧氟沙星(levofloxacin, LEV)、羟氨苄青霉素(amoxicillin, AMO)和氨苄青霉素(ampicillin, AMP)显著降低水稻发芽率,延迟发芽时间1~2 d;且不同抗生素抑制率不同,抑制强度依次为CIP(5.0倍)>OFL(2.0倍)>AMO(1.6倍)>LEV(1.4倍)>AMP(1.3倍);而添加有机改良剂(稻壳、农家肥和家禽粪便)则能降低抗生素的负面作用^[100]。这些差异可能与植物种皮对不同抗生素的渗透性差异有关^[101~103],也可能涉及植物解毒或抗性机制^[92]。

2.2 畜禽抗生素对植物根系的生态毒理效应(Eco-toxicological effects of livestock and poultry antibiotics on plant roots)

植物根系吸收抗生素,也是抗生素类药物积累的主要场所,因而抗生素对根系产生更大的影响^[104~106]。抗生素处理影响植物根长和根生物量、改变根的形态结构。CTC ($\geq 0.5 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$, 水培) 处理显著抑制玉米幼苗的根冠长和鲜质量^[107]。较高浓度 CTC^[96] 和 TC^[89,97] 显著抑制小麦根长,较低浓度则有促进作用。水培条件下,小麦根茎鲜质量和干质量随 OTC 浓度增加而减少^[108]。1~100 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ TC 降低小麦^[109] 和多年生黑麦草^[110] 根茎长及鲜质量。500 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ TC 显著抑制生姜(*Zingiber officinale* Rosc.)根鲜质量,根活力下降 22.1%^[82]。OTC、TC、CTC 降低豌豆根长^[90]。1~30 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ CTC 显著抑制油菜根长,其代谢物 ECTC 仅在 30 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 抑制根长^[98]。磺胺类抗生素降低植物根鲜质量^[79,95]、缩短根长^[79,93,111~112]、降低次生根数量^[111~112]甚至完全抑制次生根生长^[111]、改变根系的向地性^[93,109],导致根系缩短和高级分化^[79,113~114]。另外,随着 SM2 浓度增加和处理时间延长,6 种豆科植物包括黄羽扇豆(*Lupinus luteus* L. cv. Dukat)、豌豆、扁豆(*Lens culinaris* L.)、黄豆、红豆(*Vigna angularis* var. *nipponeensis*)、紫花苜蓿(*Medicago sativa* L.)的根生长受抑制加重;出现坏死和根腐烂;其中对黄羽扇豆的根长影响最大,对黄豆的影响最小^[115]。200 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ SDZ 在抑制玉米和柳(*Salix fragilis* L.)的根生长同时增加了侧根数,并影响了植物的水分吸收,对根系生长不利^[79]。高浓度磺胺二甲氧嘧啶(sulphadimethoxine, SDM) (150 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 或 300 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) 导致四季豆(*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.)根尖分生组织不活跃(闭合),减少其主根上根瘤的形成或根瘤样结构的数量^[93]。SDM 和 SM2 可诱导大麦根电解质释放^[113]。1 $\text{mmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ SDM 处理插条柳 30 d 后,柳树根形态学有明显改变;主根由白色变成黄棕色^[114]。一定剂量的 CIP^[91,116]、ENR^[91,117~118] 和 LEV^[91] 显著降低植物根生物量和根长;但 2 $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ ENR 对水稻根长有促进作用^[119]。1.0 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ CIP 处理菜苔(*Brassica parachinensis* L. H. Barile)2 周后敏感型 Cutai 的根完全变黑,且没有新的侧根发育。相比之下,耐受型 Sijiu 的根只呈现深棕色^[120]。0.2~2 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ CIP 显著增加玉米根长,对不定根数量没有显著影响; $\geq 25 \text{ mg a.e.} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 草甘膦+各浓度 CIP 处理较不加草甘膦

处理显著降低根长; $\geq 25 \text{ mg a.e.} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 草甘膦+各浓度 CIP 处理较 0 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ CIP 处理显著增加玉米不定根数量^[94];农田环境中草甘膦使用量和使用频率较高,导致其在土壤中高残留量,从而可能与抗生素共同对农田作物或其他植物产生影响^[121~122]。1~5 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ OFL 降低大白菜(*Brassica rapa* L. ssp. *pekinensis*)总根长、根直径、根尖数和根活性,在 5 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ OFL 处理下抑制作用最强^[123]。不同类别抗生素对植物根的影响程度不同。抗生素 CAP、SPR、SPT 和 VAN 水培番茄 7 d 可损害番茄根的伸长和根尖分生组织的细胞分裂,且 4 种抗生素毒性依次为 SPT>CAP>VAN>SPR^[92]。低浓度 TC、SM2、NOR、ERY 和 CAP (0.01 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) 促进 4 种植物(胡萝卜、黄瓜、生菜和番茄)的根、茎伸长; $>0.01 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 则抑制根茎伸长;且根较茎更敏感;TC 的毒性水平最高,接下来依次是 NOR、ERY、SM2 和 CAP^[102]。OTC、DOX、OFL 和 ENR 对 3 种蔬菜(黄瓜、油菜和小白菜)发芽期根长和芽长均有抑制作用,且随浓度增大而增强,其中 OFL 对芽长抑制作用较弱;且 4 种抗生素对不同植物的作用效应不同^[124]。低浓度 OTC 和 ENR (< 100 $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 或 $\leq 0.75 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$) 对水芹(*Oenanthe javanica* (Bl.) DC)根系生长和根系活力有促进作用;较高浓度则抑制根系生长(>200 $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 或 10 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$),抑制根系活力;OTC 的作用效果强于 ENR 的^[125]。

进一步研究表明,抗生素可能对根细胞周期、细胞代谢和超微结构等产生影响。抗生素 OTC 导致番茄根细胞周期停滞;通过模拟试验推测可能是 OTC 诱导一氧化氮(NO)产生,抑制了根尖过氧化氢(H₂O₂)的积累,从而导致细胞周期阻滞和根系生长抑制^[126]。低浓度(0.25~1 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)TC 促进小麦根分生组织细胞有丝分裂, $\geq 5 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ TC 显著增加中期染色体畸变(染色单体断裂和交换)频率^[97],抑制细胞有丝分裂指数($\geq 50 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)^[127]。较低浓度 CTC 略微增加了小麦根尖微核(micronucleus, MN)、染色体畸变(chromosomal aberration, CA)和姐妹染色单体交换(sister chromatid exchange, SCE)的频率;而较高浓度显著增强 MN (25~200 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)、CA (10~200 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) 和 SCE (5~200 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) 的频率,且这些指数以浓度和时间依赖的方式显著增加;250 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 和 300 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 浓度下,因为急性细胞毒性 MN、CA 和 SCE 的诱导减少^[96];TC 处理下可观察到相同结果^[127]。10 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 抗生素(CIP、LEV、OFL、AMO、AMP)处理的水稻根尖细胞 DNA 断裂,造成

遗传毒性^[100]。可见,抗生素可能进入细胞中作用于染色体结构。TC 增加了多年生黑麦草根中活性氧(reactive oxygen species, ROS)的产生和细胞通透性,并引发线粒体膜电位损失,改变多年生黑麦草根的代谢谱;影响根系中氨基酰-tRNA 生物合成、氮代谢以及丙氨酸、天冬氨酸和谷氨酸的代谢;TC 可能通过调节这些代谢产物的合成/降解或其生物合成途径的活性来影响根的延伸^[101]。与对照组相比,100 mg·L⁻¹ TC 处理的小麦的总代谢产物和氨基酸显著不同,对小麦 11 条代谢途径产生显著影响,引起小麦细胞代谢的变化;大多数代谢产物对根长、根鲜质量和细胞通透性有消极影响,对活性氧水平有积极影响^[102]。ENR 浓度增加会导致水稻根损伤更严重和死亡细胞更多;高浓度 ENR 通过提高水稻根的硝酸还原酶、亚硝酸盐还原酶、谷氨酰胺合成酶和谷氨酰合酶的活性,显著增加水稻对硝酸盐的吸收和同化,水稻根中有 2 条代谢途径(酪氨酸代谢和柠檬酸循环)受到 ENR 显著干扰^[103]。10 μg·L⁻¹ 抗生素 OFL 和 TC 对水烛(*Typha angustifolia* L.)和千屈菜的氮积累有显著的抑制作用,对菖蒲的氮积累有促进作用,菖蒲在抗生素处理中氮积累量最高;抗生素提高了 4 种植物的根系分泌物总碳量,尤其显著提高千屈菜的根系分泌物总碳量;抗生素稍微提高根系分泌物总氮量^[104]。因此抗生素可能改变植物的氮吸收和积累,改变植物根系分泌物成分组成和含量。CIP 处理香根草 1 周均观察到根系蛋白质含量持续减少^[105]。而 0.5~2 μmol·L⁻¹ SDZ 处理的拟南芥根中总蛋白质增加;SDZ 处理拟南芥后,其根中 48 种蛋白质差异表达,其中 42 种上调,6 种下调^[106]。随着 SM2 浓度增加,豆科植物根细胞中线粒体细胞色素 c 氧化酶活性降低,细胞质中细胞色素 c 氧化酶活性增加,细胞色素 c 从线粒体向细胞质转移,细胞色素 c 从线粒体向细胞质的转移是动物细胞凋亡的重要步骤;因此推测高浓度 SM2($\geq 0.25 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)会导致与凋亡相关的线粒体细胞色素 c 氧化酶转移到细胞质中,从而导致豆科植物细胞退化^[107]。10~200 mg·kg⁻¹ SM2 导致豌豆根尖组织结构降解逐渐增加,电解质泄漏率增加, $\geq 100 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ 达显著水平,菌根定殖率显著减少;对此,100~1 000 mg·kg⁻¹ 卡那霉素(kanamycin, KA)没有明显影响,且增加其根尖上菌根定殖率;100~1 000 mg·kg⁻¹ TC 降低其电解质泄漏率, $\geq 300 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ 对其根尖上菌根定殖率没有明显影响;另外,SM2 还降低豌豆根对

养分的同化能力,逐步降低豌豆根中糖类、氨基酸类和甘油三酯类代谢物平均浓度^[108]。1.0 mg·L⁻¹ CIP 处理菜苔 2 周后,菜苔的高耐受型和敏感型品种之间根尖细胞的超微结构变化显著不同;敏感型根尖细胞的内质网、线粒体逐渐变形,直到最终解体;还在一些细胞中观察到明显的质膜分离,质膜破裂。相比之下,耐受型品种的根尖细胞保持了质膜和细胞壁的完整性,但空泡和线粒体数量增加以及细胞质收缩^[109]。2 个品种的菜苔根薄壁组织细胞和根系解剖特征在 CIP 处理后呈现明显的差异。其中敏感型菜苔的根横截面中可见许多不规则、萎缩甚至完全退化的薄壁细胞^[109]。1~5 mg·L⁻¹ OFL 处理致使大白菜 Qinghua 根的木质部和韧皮部的排列略有紊乱;致使大白菜 Biyu 整个根的木质部、韧皮部和皮层细胞的排列变得严重紊乱;添加硅(Na₂SiO₃)可减轻这些损伤并保持细胞整齐排列,但硅对 Biyu 的修复作用不如 Qinghua^[110]。

2.3 畜禽抗生素对植物叶的生态毒理效应(Ecotoxicological effects of livestock and poultry antibiotics on plant leaves)

抗生素可能引起植物叶生长、叶片数量、叶色及叶细胞结构变化;一般地,减少叶数量^[111]、抑制叶片生长^[112,116]。较高浓度 CIP 造成香根草^[129]和菜苔^[120]叶片轻度黄化、变形;敏感型菜苔的大多数叶绿体出现变形并逐渐解体^[120]。2 mg·mL⁻¹ OFL 致使大葱(*Allium fistulosum* L.)叶绿体变形和降解,导致叶片黄化^[131];20~40 mg·L⁻¹ OFL 处理的番茄^[132]和 0.1~100 mg·L⁻¹ OFL 或/和 SMZ 处理的生姜^[84]出现从叶脉到叶缘逐渐黄化的症状;200 μg·L⁻¹ 和 800 μg·L⁻¹ ENR 致使水稻叶片白化^[119]。SDM>150 mg·L⁻¹ 抑制四季豆叶生长,且叶片显示色素沉着异常,具有明显的硬化区^[93]。随磺酰胺(sulfonamide, SN)浓度增加,苦草叶绿体数量减少,被破坏程度增加^[133]。100 mg·kg⁻¹ 抗生素(TC、OTC、NOR)处理的小青菜叶片质体小叶和粗面内质网的数量增加;淀粉粒均较大,线粒体数量增加;细胞形状变得不规则;OTC 和 NOR 处理的叶绿体更明显地变为肿胀的圆形;与对照组相比,抗生素处理组的类囊体形态肿胀,密度低,类囊体片层排列随意^[134]。

2.4 植物不同组织对畜禽抗生素的生态毒性响应(Ecotoxicity response of different plant tissues to antibiotics in livestock and poultry)

一般地,植物根长较茎长敏感^[89,91,109~110],根物质

量较茎物质量敏感^[91,109~110]。水培条件下,OTC 显著降低小麦以鲜质量为基础的根冠比(R/S),对以干质量为基础的 R/S 影响很小;低浓度 OTC 对小麦茎的抑制作用较强,高浓度对小麦根的抑制作用较强^[108]。OTC 和 ENR 对 3 种蔬菜(黄瓜、油菜和小白菜)发芽期根的抑制作用大于芽的^[124]。 $10 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ SDZ 对 10 种湿地植物的分株数影响最小,对根系数影响最大^[135]。50% 最低抑制浓度(minimum inhibitory concentration, MIC)水平及 MIC 水平的头孢氨苄(cephalexin, CPL)、TC 和 SMZ 处理小白菜,其不同组织对抗生素敏感程度为生物量>根长>株高;抗生素影响程度为 SMZ>TC>CPL^[136]。

抗生素对植物鲜质量和干质量的影响存在差异。随着 SDM ($0.005 \sim 50 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)浓度增加,千屈菜鲜质量(除 $0.5 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 外)低于对照; $5 \sim 50 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 处理组干质量显著低于对照,含水量显著降低^[111]。OTC、TC、CTC 处理导致豌豆干质量增加,鲜质量减少^[90]。用不同浓度 CIP 和 TC 浇灌 20 d 的黄花羽扇豆的地上部分鲜质量减少、干质量增加,且与抗生素浓度呈比例^[137]。可见,抗生素可能损害植物吸水能力,导致组织脱水,从而导致干质量和鲜质量变化差异。

抗生素还可能影响株高、茎直径及叶片数量和生长。一般地,一定浓度的抗生素显著抑制植物株高、茎直径和叶片数^[79,82,105,134,138]。高浓度 SDZ ($10 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$)或 Cu ($200 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$)以及 SDZ 和 Cu 的组合均能明显抑制小麦地上部分的长度和鲜质量^[95]。拌鸡粪施于土壤的 $10 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ SMZ 早期抑制小白菜和萝卜的株高,后期减少其生物量,而相同施用方式下 DOX 具促进作用^[99]。畜禽抗生素也可能对植物生长没有影响或起促进作用。 $0.01 \sim 1 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ ERY 对白杨(*Populus alba* L.)生物量、株高没有明显影响^[139]。 $0.5 \sim 2 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ (对应 $155 \sim 620 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)的 SDM 对插条柳的叶长、茎长和生物量没有显著影响^[144];而 $0.1 \sim 1 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ SMZ 或 OFL 增加了芦苇的株高、茎直径和分蘖数,SMZ+OFL 复合处理对芦苇的生长没有显著的促进作用^[73]。植物个体生理差异显著影响抗生素的作用。某一抗生素对不同植物生长的作用可能是抑制,也可能是促进。抗生素 OFL 和 TC($10 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)显著降低水烛和千屈菜的鲜质量,而提高菖蒲和风车草(*Cyperus alternifolius* L.)的鲜质量^[128]。 $50 \sim 150 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ TC、OTC 和 CTC 降低生菜鲜质量,增加小白菜鲜质量^[140]。ENR、

NOR 或 LEV 抑制微藻类生长,降低其生物量^[111,141~142];但所有微藻(斜生栅藻(*Scenedesmus obliquus*)、墨西哥衣藻(*Chlamydomonas mexicana*)、小球藻、产油微藻(*Ourococcus multisporus*)、微芒藻(*Micractinium resseri*))可以从高浓度 ENR($100 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)的毒性中恢复^[111]。SDZ 和 SM2 对卵孢金孢藻(*Chrysosporum ovalisporum*)的生长没有显著抑制作用,但抑制小球藻生长^[141]。抗生素在与植物相互作用中可能因抗生素及其浓度、植物种类、植物组织不同而相应发挥激素作用、激素作用与毒性作用平衡或毒性作用^[117]。一般较低浓度的抗生素对植物或植物的某个组织发挥激素作用^[84]。SDM 显著降低千屈菜子叶长度,降低子叶柄长度,其中 $50 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 处理完全抑制子叶柄发育;对下胚轴、节间数和节间距、叶片数低浓度促进或不影响,高浓度抑制^[111]。 $0.001 \sim 0.1 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ ERY^[143]和 LEV^[144]促进水华微囊藻生长; $\geq 10 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 则显著抑制水华微囊藻生长,且呈典型的浓度-响应曲线。

栽培条件可能对抗生素的植物毒性效应产生影响。水培条件下 OTC> $750 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 显著降低水芹地上部分生物量和株高;土培条件下高浓度的 OTC 或 ENR 对水芹生长的影响明显小于水培试验^[125];这可能是水培条件下水芹各器官积累的抗生素量高于土培条件。土培施用含混合抗生素(TC、SMZ、NOR、ERY 和 CAP 的废水($2 \sim 20 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)对生菜、胡萝卜和番茄的生物量没有显著影响,而施用含该类抗生素的粪肥($200 \sim 2000 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$)则显著增加 3 种蔬菜的生物量^[78]。

抗生素对植物发育影响具时效性。大车前(*Plantago major* L.)和小酸模(*Rumex acetosella* L.)上胚轴不受 SDM ($300 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)影响,它们的根系第 2 天才受到 SDM 影响,而反枝苋(*Amaranthus retroflexus* L.)的根系直到第 12 天才受到影响;3 种杂草的子叶和叶片都受到 SDM 的显著影响^[145]。10 d 后 $\geq 30 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ SN 显著降低苦草(*Vallisneria natans* (Lour.) Hara.)根长,20 d 后 $\geq 10 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 显著降低根长, $50 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 显著降低叶长; $\geq 30 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 显著降低相对生长率^[133];抗生素浓度和时间的叠加效应明显。

2.5 畜禽抗生素对植物光合作用系统的生态毒理效应(Ecotoxicological effects of livestock and poultry antibiotics on plant photosynthesis system)

叶绿素等光合色素是光合电子传递活性的初级指标。当光合组织被暴露于外源污染物而产生的活

性氧激活时,类胡萝卜素等辅助色素可以中和激发的叶绿素,以最大限度地减少应激诱导的恶化^[146]。因此,叶绿素和类胡萝卜素有助于评估植物的光合活性,并可作为污染物诱导植物胁迫的敏感生物标记物^[147]。不同抗生素处理引起植物叶绿素、类胡萝卜素等发生改变。较高浓度 CIP 处理引起植物总叶绿素(chlorophyll, Chl)、Chl a 及 Chl b 含量显著降低^[80,116,120,129,148], Chl a/Chl b 升高^[80,129]或降低^[120];较低浓度 CIP 处理 7 d 后导致水葫芦 Chl 含量上升,而 14 d 后则显著降低,抗生素 CIP 对水葫芦叶绿素含量的影响取决于抗生素处理时间^[148]。OFL ≤ 0.1 mg·L⁻¹ 增加大葱叶绿素含量,≥ 0.5 mg·L⁻¹ 显著降低叶绿素含量;≥ 0.1 mg·L⁻¹ 显著降低胡萝卜素含量^[131];但 0.1 ~ 1 mg·L⁻¹ OFL 显著增加芦苇叶绿素含量及叶绿素 a/b 值^[73]。随着 ENR (1 ~ 100 mg·L⁻¹) 浓度增加,墨西哥衣藻和微芒藻叶绿素含量增加,斜生栅藻、小球藻、产油微藻和微藻组合的叶绿素含量降低;除小球藻外,其余微藻及其组合的类胡萝卜素含量随 ENR 浓度增加而显著增加^[111]。喹诺酮类抗生素(ENR 和 NOR)显著降低卵孢金孢藻的 Chl a 含量,且随时间延长逐渐降低;磺胺类抗生素(SD 和 SM2)在较高浓度降低其 Chl a 含量,其 Chl a 含量随时间延长而逐渐升高;2 类抗生素均降低小球藻 Chl a,高浓度降低幅度大,其 Chl a 含量随时间延长而逐渐升高^[141];因此不同类别抗生素对藻类 Chl a 含量作用的时效性不同。CIP 还可能改变线粒体电子传递链酶活性^[149],破坏线粒体电子传递链中的正常电子流^[150];降低 PSII 电子传递率(relative rate of electron transport through PS II, ETR)、PS II 的最大光化学效率(maximal photochemical efficiency of PS II, F_v/F_m)^[116,149,151];但经 CIP+N(添加 0.04 g·L⁻¹ Ca(NO₃)₂) 处理的细绿萍(*Azolla filiculoides* L.) 中 ETR、F_v/F_m 较高^[151]。同样地,抗生素 OFL 可能导致植物叶光合效率降低,呼吸抑制增强,且对光合作用的影响高于呼吸作用,即增加最小荧光值(minimum fluorescence, F₀),降低 F_v/F_m;不同浓度 OFL 处理的叶片荧光强度显著降低^[123,131];但 0.1 ~ 1 mg·L⁻¹ OFL 显著增加芦苇净光合速率(net photosynthetic rate, P_n)、气孔导度(stomatal conductance, G_s)、细胞间 CO₂ 浓度(intercellular CO₂ concentration, C_i) 和蒸腾速率(transpiration rate, E)^[73]。100 mg·kg⁻¹ NOR 降低小青菜叶片 F_v/F_m 值,显著降低光化学猝灭系数(photochemical quenching, qP) 和 PS II 光化学吸收

能量(effective efficiency of PS II photochemistry, $\phi_{PS II}$),显著增加非光化学猝灭系数(non-photochemical quenching, NPQ)^[134]。

植物体内磺胺类抗生素对叶绿素等植物色素含量的改变因植物种类、抗生素浓度、环境中阳离子和有机物的不同而存在差异。0.5 ~ 2 mmol·L⁻¹ SDM 降低柳的 Chl a、Chl b 及其总和、类胡萝卜素以及总 Chl/类胡萝卜素的比率,但差异不显著,显著增加 Chl a/Chl b (1 mmol·L⁻¹ 和 2 mmol·L⁻¹)^[114]。> 10 mg·L⁻¹ SN 显著降低苦草叶绿素含量,显著降低叶绿体荧光^[133]。与对照相比,低铜水平显著增加了小麦叶绿素含量,而高铜水平或 SDZ (1、10 mg·kg⁻¹) 显著降低了叶绿素含量^[95];0 ~ 1 000 μg·L⁻¹ 抗生素 SDZ^[152] 对水葫芦叶绿素含量先升后降;100 ~ 200 mg·kg⁻¹ SDZ 显著降低蓝蓟(*Echium amoenum* Fisch & C.A. Mey)的 Chl a、Chl b 和类胡萝卜素含量,添加菌根(mycorrhiza)或/和稻壳堆肥及稻壳生物炭可显著增加 SDZ 处理下蓝蓟的 Chl a、Chl b 和类胡萝卜素含量^[153]。SDM 处理 1 d 后降低柳的 E 和 G_s,11 d 和 25 d 后没有明显差异;P_n 在 SDM 处理 1 d 没有差异,处理 11 d 和 25 d 逐步减少,且随时间延长,减少程度加大;SDM 处理降低柳的 ETR,对 F_v/F_m 没有明显影响^[114]。0.1 ~ 1 mg·L⁻¹ SMZ 显著增加芦苇 P_n、G_s、C_i 和 E^[73]。

1 ~ 100 mg·L⁻¹ TC 可显著降低小麦^[109]和多年生黑麦草^[110]的 Chl 和类胡萝卜素含量,较高浓度 TC 显著降低 Chl a/Chl b 和 Chl a/类胡萝卜素。500 mg·L⁻¹ TC 显著降低生姜 Chl a、Chl b 及类胡萝卜素含量^[82]。水培下抗生素 OTC 浓度≥ 750 μg·L⁻¹ 降低叶绿素含量;土培下抗生素 OTC 对叶片中叶绿素含量无明显影响^[125]。90 mg·kg⁻¹ CIP 和 TC 处理 10 d 引起黄花羽扇豆 Chl 含量分别下降 65% 和 68%,尤其是新叶中 Chl 含量下降更多;而体外同浓度 CIP 和 TC 导致 Chl 含量分别降低 31% 和 39%;同时叶绿素荧光强度明显降低,叶绿素荧光光谱发生偏移,因此推测 Chl 在 CIP 和 TC 的作用下发生降解^[137]。环己酰亚胺(cycloheximide, CHX) (0.25、0.5 mmol·L⁻¹) 处理显著降低 3 龄毛竹(*Phyllostachys edulis* (Carrière) J. Houz.) 叶中 Chl a+b 和类胡萝卜素含量以及 Chl a/Chl b^[154]。ERY (0.01 ~ 1 mg·L⁻¹) 对白杨光合色素含量没有明显影响,白杨老叶和新叶的光合作用参数对 ERY 的反应模式不同^[139]。50、150 mg·kg⁻¹ TC、OTC 和 CTC 在一定程度上增

加了生菜和小白菜的 G_s 和 E , 抑制了生菜的 $P_n^{[140]}$ 。 $500 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ TC 显著降低生姜 F_v/F_m 、 $\phi\text{PS II}$ 和 qP 值, 叶片的光化学活性和电子转移受到负面影响, 从而降低了 PS II 的光能转换效率^[82]。低浓度 OTC 升高耐受种小麦的 P_n 、 E 、 G_s , 高浓度 OTC 则降低之; 敏感种小麦的 P_n 、 E 和 G_s 随 OTC 浓度增加而降低; C_i 随 OTC 浓度增加而显著升高, 耐受种与敏感种变化幅度有差异; 耐受种气孔限制(stomatal limitation, LS)不受 OTC 影响, 敏感种的 LS 随 OTC 浓度升高而增加之后回落^[108]。随着抗生素浓度的增加, 生姜叶片的 P_n 、 E 和 G_s 先升后降; $50 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ OFL 和 SMZ+OFL 及 $100 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ SMZ 显著降低 P_n 、 E 和 G_s ; C_i 随抗生素浓度增加呈现波动, $50 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ SMZ 及 $10 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ OFL 和 SMZ+OFL 显著降低 C_i ; 随着抗生素浓度的增加, 生姜叶的 F_v/F_m 逐渐降低, ETR、 $\phi\text{PS II}$ 和 qP 先升后降; NPQ 先降后升^[84]。 $100 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ 抗生素(TC、OTC、NOR)处理降低小青菜 F_v/F_m 值, 显著降低 qP 和 $\phi\text{PS II}$, 增加 NPQ 值; 且 3 种抗生素引起的变化幅度不同^[134]。 $0.001 \sim 0.1 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ ERY 处理 $3 \sim 8 \text{ d}$ 显著提高水华微囊藻的 Chl a 含量, $10 \sim 40 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 显著降低 Chl a 含量; $\leq 1 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 轻微增加 F_v/F_m 和 F_v/F_0 (从第 3 天开始), $\geq 20 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 时显著降低 F_v/F_m 和 $F_v/F_0^{[143]}$ 。ERY 以浓度依赖的方式影响铜绿微囊藻的 2 种光系统的活性和电子传递, $ERY \geq 5 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 可对其产生急性毒性^[155]。Liu 等^[156]通过光合速率、叶绿素荧光诱导动力学、希尔反应活力及核酮糖-1,5-二磷酸羧化酶活性测定阐明 3 类抗生素 ERY、CIP 和 SMZ 对羊角月牙藻的光合器官的毒性。低浓度 ERY($0.06 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$)显著降低羊角月牙藻的 P_n 、PS II 供体侧的释氧中心分数、3 种希尔反应活力及差异、非环磷酸化活性、环磷酸化活性和 Mg^{2+} -ATPase 活性、核酮糖-1,5-二磷酸羧化酶活性。但较高浓度的 CIP 和 SMZ 处理才会导致羊角月牙藻光合作用发生显著变化。Liu 等^[156]提出是因为 ERY、CIP 和 SMZ 在光合作用系统中的作用位点不同引起不同的毒性效应。CHX (0.25 、 $0.5 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) 处理引起毛竹的最大光合速率和 G_s 显著降低, C_i 显著增加, 且随抗生素浓度增加效果更强^[154]。

低浓度抗生素(AMO、AMP、PEN、头孢曲松(ceftriaxone, CFX)、TC、头孢他啶(ceftazidime, CFD)、DOX、ERY、CIP)增加小麦叶片类黄酮(flavonoid)含量, 而高浓度抗生素则降低类黄酮含量^[157]和新黄质、紫黄质等类胡萝卜素的含量^[158]。胡卢巴碱

(trigonelline, TRG)含量在不同花生基因型间及抗生素不同浓度间差异显著, 且在不同生育期也不同, 不同抗生素间没有明显差异^[159]。可见, 已有研究主要开展了抗生素对植物叶绿素含量影响的研究, 其次是类胡萝卜素含量研究, 对其他类色素含量影响的研究较少。且偏重于喹诺酮类抗生素对叶绿素等光合系统影响的研究, 这可能与喹诺酮类抗生素的作用位点在叶绿体上有关^[160-161], 另外喹诺酮类抗生素中存在的喹诺酮和仲氨基可作为 PS II 的醌位抑制剂^[116,150]。

2.6 畜禽抗生素对植物活性氧及其清除系统的生态毒理效应(Ecotoxicological effects of livestock and poultry antibiotics on plant active oxygen species and their scavenging systems)

ROS 是由各种代谢途径以基础水平组成表达的有毒副产物, 包括 H_2O_2 、 O_2^- 、 $\cdot OH$ 等; 非生物胁迫可促进 ROS 产生^[162], 危害植物体的蛋白质和细胞^[163], 引起膜过氧化^[164], 并影响多种代谢途径。丙二醛(malondialdehyde, MDA)是脂质过氧化的最终产物; 多数物种在有机污染物^[165]和无机污染物^[166]导致的氧化应激后表现出 MDA 含量增加。MDA 水平可以间接反映自由基攻击的严重程度, 因此 MDA 可以反映植物的应激损伤程度^[167]。植物体内 ROS 形成和消除一般处于平衡状态。植物中异源化合物的存在可以提高活性氧的产生速率, 从而激活应激反应和活性氧清除系统。植物中的活性氧清除系统由抗氧化酶和非酶抗氧化物组成^[168]。活性氧清除系统可以抵消活性氧的有害作用。抗氧化物或抗氧化酶活性的变化可以揭示活性氧消散的有效性^[169-170]。在环境胁迫下, 植物不断调节抗氧化酶的活性, 以严格控制活性氧水平^[169]。高应激水平会抑制抗氧化酶的活性, 并对植物的生长和发育产生负面影响^[110,171-172]。因此, 畜禽抗生素一般会引起植物活性氧增加, 但不同抗生素对不同植物的抗氧化酶或抗氧化物活性的影响不同。

CIP 可诱导 H_2O_2 产生^[150], 增加 H_2O_2 含量^[149,151], 引起植物抗氧化酶活性变化。随 CIP 浓度增加, 处理 7 d 后水葫芦的超氧化物歧化酶(superoxide dismutase, SOD)活性降低、过氧化氢酶(catalase, CAT)和过氧化物酶(peroxidase, POD)活性增加, 处理 14 d 后 SOD 和 CAT 降低、POD 仍然升高^[148]; 玉米 H_2O_2 浓度升高、CAT 活性增加, 对 MDA 含量和抗坏血酸过氧化物酶(ascorbate peroxi-

dase, APX)活性无明显影响^[94]。较高浓度 CIP 在前 5 d 显著升高香根草谷胱甘肽-S-转移酶(glutathione-S-transferase, GST)、愈创木酚过氧化物酶(guaiacol peroxidase, GPOD)和 CAT 活性,对 SOD 活性影响较小;且有时效性^[129]。随着 CIP 浓度(0.1~1 000 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)增加,芦苇叶中 SOD、CAT 活性逐渐降低,POD 活性先升高后降低但均高于对照^[80]。随着 CIP 浓度升高,浮苔 APX 先升后降;GPOD 活性降低,且随温度升高,两者降低幅度增加;20 °C 下,CAT 活性随 CIP 浓度增加而降低,30 °C 下 CAT 活性随 CIP 浓度增加而直线性升高,25 °C 下 CAT 升高平缓^[149]。但经 CIP+N(添加 0.04 g·L⁻¹ Ca(NO₃)₂) 处理的细绿萍中 H₂O₂ 浓度较低^[151]。随着 OFL 浓度增加,O₂⁻、H₂O₂ 浓度和 MDA 含量显著增多^[123,131~132];显著增加番茄叶中 SOD、CAT、POD、APX 基因表达,且基因表达量先升后降^[123,132];大葱叶中 POD 和 CAT 活性则随 OFL 浓度增加而增强;SOD 活性先升后降^[131];番茄^[132]和大白菜^[123]叶中 SOD、CAT、POD、APX 活性随 OFL 浓度增加而先升后降且差异显著;不同基因型番茄(抗逆型和敏感型)及不同栽培种大白菜(敏感种和耐受种)对 OFL 的毒性反应不同,抗逆型番茄和耐受种大白菜的活性氧浓度较低、抗氧化酶活性较高;敏感型枝嫁接于抗逆型根的番茄则可进一步降低 OFL 引起的活性氧浓度,提高受 OFL 影响的抗氧化酶活性^[132];另外,添加 Si (Na₂SiO₃) 还可通过提高抗氧化酶的活性和相关基因表达,提高 ROS 的清除能力^[123]。0.1~1 mg·L⁻¹ OFL 降低芦苇 ROS 含量^[73]。 $\geq 50 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ENR (1~100 mg·L⁻¹) 显著增加小球藻、微芒藻及微藻组合的 MDA 含量,墨西哥衣藻和斜生栅藻的 MDA 含量增加但不显著,显著降低产油微藻的 MDA 含量^[111]。100 mg·kg⁻¹ NOR 显著增加小青菜地上部分 MDA 含量、SOD、POD 和 CAT 的活性^[134]。10~100 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ LEV 显著提高水华微囊藻 MDA 含量和 CAT 活性,40~100 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ 显著提高 SOD 活性^[144]。5~300 mg·L⁻¹ CIP、ENR 和 LEV 显著增加小麦 MDA、总酚含量和抗氧化物总含量和 SOD 活性;APX 活性存在明显的抗生素种类×浓度相互作用,所有处理的最大活性出现在 100 mg·L⁻¹ 浓度下;均显著降低 CAT 和 POD 活性。抗生素敏感性依次为 LEV>ENR>CIP;3 种抗生素混用没有协同效应,但有一定程度的相加或拮抗效应^[91]。ENR(1~100 mg·L⁻¹) 显著提高多年生黑麦草根中 MDA 含量和

SOD、POD 活性,降低 CAT 活性^[118]。

10 d 和 20 d 后随 SN 浓度增加,苦草 O₂⁻ 含量显著增加;20 d 后,SN $\geq 10 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ 显著增加苦草 H₂O₂ 含量,50 mg·L⁻¹ 处理组的 MDA 含量显著增加;10 d 和 20 d 后, $\geq 30 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ 处理组的 POD 活性显著增加^[133]。2 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ SDZ 处理显著增加拟南芥 MDA 含量,0.5~2 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ SDZ 致使拟南芥 POD 活性总体增加,且先升后降;显著增加谷胱甘肽(glutathione, GSH)含量,对抗坏血酸含量没有显著影响^[112]。随着 SDZ 浓度增加,小麦的地上部分 H₂O₂ 和 MDA 含量显著增加,而添加 Cu 则相对降低两者含量;SDZ $\geq 1 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ 显著增加小麦地上部分 POD 和 CAT 活性,高浓度 SDZ(10 mg·kg⁻¹)显著增加 SOD 活性,添加 Cu 则显著降低高浓度 SDZ 对 CAT 活性的影响^[95]。1 mg·L⁻¹ SDZ 导致水葫芦 SOD 活性显著高于对照,CAT 活性在试验初期随抗生素浓度增加而升高,42 d 后则减少,POD 活性随 SDZ 浓度增加而升高,且随时间延长而增加^[152]。抗生素对 ROS 含量和抗氧化酶活性的影响具有时效性。

随着 CTC 浓度(0.05~50 mg·L⁻¹)增加,玉米根中·OH 水平升高、MDA 含量显著积累,且 MDA 含量与·OH 水平呈线性正相关;降低 POD 活性,增加 SOD 活性,对 CAT 活性作用不明显^[107];因此提出诱导·OH 是 CTC 毒性机制之一。而 1~30 mg·L⁻¹ CTC 显著升高油菜 SOD、POD 活性,且呈现先升后降的趋势,对 CAT 活性无显著影响^[98]。 $\geq 5 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ TC 显著增加小麦根尖 MDA 含量;25~300 mg·L⁻¹ TC 可显著提高其 SOD、CAT 和 POD 的活性^[97]。1~100 mg·L⁻¹ TC 显著提高小麦^[109]和多年生黑麦草^[110]的茎、根中 ROS 和 MDA 含量,增加 SOD、POD 活性,显著降低 CAT 活性。500 mg·L⁻¹ TC 显著增加生姜 O₂⁻、H₂O₂ 和 MDA 含量,显著提高其 SOD、POD 和 CAT 活性^[82]。水培下抗生素 OTC 浓度 $\geq 500 \text{ }\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ 显著降低水芹 CAT 活性;土培下抗生素对 CAT 活性无明显影响^[125]。100 mg·kg⁻¹ 抗生素(TC、OTC)显著增加小青菜地上部分的 MDA 含量、SOD、POD 和 CAT 活性^[134]。不同的 TCs 抗生素对不同蔬菜的 MDA 含量和抗氧化酶活性的作用程度不同^[134,140]。ERY $\geq 0.1 \text{ }\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ 时显著增加水华微囊藻的胞内 ROS 和 MDA 含量;1~40 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ 显著增加 CAT 和 SOD 活性^[143]。

不同类型抗生素对植物抗氧化酶活性的影响不

同。生姜 H_2O_2 和 O_2^- 、MDA 含量随着抗生素(SMZ、OFL 和 SMZ+OFL)浓度的增加而逐渐增加, SOD、POD 和 CAT 活性先升后降; SMZ+OFL 较 SMZ 或 OFL 对抗氧化酶的作用强; 但 $100 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ SMZ + OFL 显著降低抗氧化酶活性^[84]。 50 、 $150 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ TC、OTC 和 CTC 抑制生菜和小白菜的 SOD 活性, 以 OTC 的抑制作用最强^[40]。 $100 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ 抗生素(TC、OTC、NOR)处理的小青菜地上部分 MDA 含量、SOD、POD 和 CAT 活性显著增加; 但 3 种抗生素引起的变化幅度不同^[34]。 $3 \sim 90 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ CIP 和 TC 处理导致黄花羽扇豆地上部分的 CAT 和 POD 活性增加; 显著增加其新叶中 CAT 和 POD 活性; $3 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ CIP 在 7 d 后显著增加 POD 和 CAT 活性, $3 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ TC 分别在 3 d 后和 5 d 后显著增加 POD 和 CAT 活性, TC 对黄花羽扇豆抗氧化酶活性影响大于 CIP 的^[37]。Nie 等^[13]比较了 ERY、CIP 和 SMZ 对羊角月牙藻活性氧清除系统的抗氧化酶和非酶抗氧化物的差异性作用; ERY 导致抗坏血酸和 GSH 生物合成、抗坏血酸-谷胱甘肽循环、叶黄素循环和抗氧化酶活性降低; 从而导致羊角月牙藻的总抗氧化能力受到极大抑制, 脂质过氧化物积累。CIP 的毒性可能主要通过诱导抗坏血酸-谷胱甘肽循环以及 CAT、SOD 和愈创木酚谷胱甘肽过氧化物酶(guaiacol glutathione peroxidase, GPX)活性来克服, 而 SMZ 的毒性主要通过叶黄素循环和 GST 活性降低产生影响。与 ERY 相比, 由于不同的解毒机制, CIP 和 SMZ 对月牙藻的毒性要低得多。用 $50 \sim 1000 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ SPR 和 AMO 处理铜绿微囊藻, 显著增加 SOD 和 GST 活性、GSH 和 MDA 含量; SPR 处理对其 GST 活性、GSH 和 MDA 含量的作用高于 AMO 处理的; AMO 显著增加 POD 和 CAT 活性; SPR 处理随浓度增加先升高后降低 POD 和 CAT 活性^[74]。可见, 同一抗生素对不同植物、或不同抗生素对同一植物的非酶或酶抗氧化物活性的作用不同, 不仅受抗生素浓度影响, 还受到抗生素处理时间长短的影响。

3 研究展望(Research prospect)

综上所述, 针对某种植物, 短期内以植物根形态、叶绿素含量、非酶或酶抗氧化物活性及光合作用参数为指标, 可以很好评价抗生素的植物毒性。但是因为动物粪便用于农田可产生与化学肥料同等的产量效应^[75], 而随着集约型温室蔬菜生产农业、有机农业的发展, 以及化学肥料减施政策的推广实施,

畜禽粪便越来越多地施用到农田。畜禽抗生素随之进入农田, 吸附于土壤颗粒或地下水中。抗生素在土壤颗粒上的吸附和持久性可能会改变其对作物和农田杂草生长的剂量效应^[89]。不同的抗生素导致农作物发芽延迟和生物量分配较低, 从而可能对施用含抗生素肥料的农田产量产生影响。此外, 由于不同物种的特异性反应, 抗生素可以改变自然田地边缘植物物种的组成, 而对更高级的营养水平的生物产生未知的后果。因此有必要开展环境浓度下抗生素持续对农作物及农田其他植物的生态影响研究, 以及对取食这些植物的动物群落长期影响的研究。另外, 因同种植物不同基因型或栽培种对抗生素耐受性差异, 可选育并种植耐抗生素品种, 以减轻农田抗生素污染的风险^[108]。

植物修复可以有效除去低浓度的抗生素污染物。开展湿地植物对抗生素的耐受性机制研究, 筛选适合于植物修复的湿地植物对污水处理可持续发展具有重要意义。

通信作者简介:徐道青(1976—),男,学士,硕士生导师,副研究员,主要研究方向为作物栽培及新型肥料研究。

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