

Effects of Lead Exposure on Blood Electrical Impedance Spectroscopy of Mice

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Effects of lead exposure on blood electrical impedance spectroscopy of mice

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Abstract:

Background: Lead is a nonessential heavy metal, which can inhibit heme synthesis and has significant cytotoxic effects. Nevertheless, its effect on the electrical properties of red blood cells (RBCs) remains unclear. Consequently, this study aimed to investigate the electrical properties and the electrophysiological mechanism of lead exposure in mouse blood using Electrical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS).

Methods: AC impedance method was used to measure the electrical impedance of healthy and lead exposure blood of mice in 0.01-100 MHz frequency range. Data characteristic of the impedance spectrum, Bodes plot, Nyquist plot and Nichols plot, and three elements equivalent circuit model were used to explicitly analyze the differences in amplitude-frequency, phase-frequency, and the frequency characteristic of blood in electrical impedance properties.

Results: Compared with the healthy blood in control mice, the changes in blood exposed to lead was as follows: (I) the hematocrit decreased; (II) the amplitude-frequency and phase-frequency characteristics of electrical impedance decreased; (III) the characteristic frequencies (f_0) were significantly increased; (IV) the electrical impedance of plasma, erythrocyte membrane, and hemoglobin decreased, while the conductivity increased.

Conclusion: Therefore, EIS can be used as an effective method to monitor blood and RBCs abnormalities caused by lead-exposure.

Key Words: Lead-exposed; Blood; Electrical impedance spectroscopy; Characteristic frequency

26 **Background**

27 Lead is a heavy metal material that has been widely applied in pottery, lead welding, dyes, and
28 cosmetics ^[1]. Exposure to the high concentration of lead may cause damage to the nervous system, digestive
29 system, blood system, kidney, and other organs ^[2-4]. A new analysis by the Institute for Health Metrics and
30 Evaluation (IHME) has estimated that 815 million children worldwide have a high concentration of lead in
31 their bloodstream ^[5]. Clinical evidence suggested that severe chronic lead poisoning can lead to toxic
32 encephalopathy and extensor muscle weakness phenotype of nervous system damage, while acute lead
33 poisoning can lead to damage to the blood-brain barrier, disturbance of messenger molecules (cAMP and NO)
34 and protein kinase, loss of connectivity density between brain endothelial cells, and eventually brain edema.
35 Lead toxicity can induce atrophy of renal cortex, fibrosis of renal tubules, inclusion bodies in renal proximal
36 nuclei, and induce diabetes and amino acid urine ^[6,7]. Moreover, high blood lead levels can lead to abortion,
37 low birth weight, reduced sperm number, and motility resulting in reproductive toxicity ^[8].

38 Hematological studies have shown that 95% of blood lead is bound to erythrocyte membrane and
39 hemoglobin, while the rest (5%) is found in the plasma. Lead can affect heme synthesis by interfering with
40 porphyrin metabolism disorder. This can eventually cause the compensatory proliferation of erythroblasts in
41 bone marrow, increase reticulocyte and alkaline granulocyte and decrease of the numbers of erythrocytes and
42 leukocytes in the blood, which in turn lead to hemolytic anemia ^[9]. Hematological abnormalities include
43 hematocrit (Hct), zinc protoporphyrin (ZPP), Na⁺-K⁺-adenosine triphosphatase (Na-K-ATPase), and others
44 ^[10]. ZPP and free protoporphyrin IX in RBCs are sensitive and reliable indicators of porphyrin metabolism
45 and lead exposure. Slobozhanina *et al.* pointed out that the low concentration of lead acetate can change the
46 physicochemical state of proteins and lipids in erythrocyte and lymphocyte membranes. Lead acetate affects
47 the enzymatic activity and the functionality of membrane receptors and ion channels, thus modulating the
48 intracellular space and cell functions present at the molecular level ^[11]. Kasperczyk *et al* evaluated 154
49 occupational lead-exposed workers and 129 healthy workers and found that oxidative stress is essential
50 during lead poisoning pathogenesis. In addition, occupational lead-exposed workers showed whole blood
51 viscosity, erythrocyte aggregation, and deformability, malondialdehyde, lipofuscin, and glutathione contents
52 compared to controls ^[12]. Moreover, Ahyayauch *et al.* measured the membrane properties of rat erythrocytes
53 and erythrocyte membrane ghosts by either chronic or acute Pb²⁺ treatments and found that 1.8 μM Pb²⁺
54 could directly increase cell membrane permeability, thereby increasing hemolysis ^[13]. Sun and colleagues
55 also pointed that 1-100 μmol/L PbCl₂ could induce the reversible increase of [Ca²⁺]_i level in lymphocytes by
56 activating calmodulin (CaM), thus suggesting the lead affects the physiological function of the cell
57 membrane ^[14]. However, despite these documented molecular insights into the lead on blood or immunocytes,
58 there is still no report on the electrical properties of lead exposure in mouse blood. The electrophysiological
59 mechanism of lead-exposed RBCs remains unclear and needs to be further explored.

60 Electrical impedance spectroscopy of cells is widely accepted as a label-free, non-invasive, and
61 quantitative analytical method for the assessment of live biological cells' electrical properties and
62 heterogeneity ^[15]. Kim *et al.* designed a microfluidic-based physiometer capable of measuring the electrical
63 characteristics of the blood, i.e., the cytoplasm resistance ($R_{\text{cytoplasm}}$), plasma resistance (R_{plasma}), and RBC
64 membrane capacitance based on EIS. Combined with image processing, the effects of the hematocrit and

65 RBC deformability on the whole blood viscosity have been previously reported [16]. In their systematical
66 analysis, Babić *et al.* pointed out that all-natural polyphenol flavonoids share a common non-specific
67 mechanism of platelet activation and aggregation inhibition by the impedance spectrum and flow cytometry,
68 which is related to their lipophilicity and membrane stability. It is of great significance to guide the
69 formation and prevention of thrombosis in cardiovascular diseases [17]. With the development of impedance
70 spectroscopy technology, EIS has been widely used in hematology detection, clinical diagnosis, disease
71 mechanism exploration, and drug research and development.

72 In this study, we investigated the electrical properties and the electrophysiological mechanism of lead
73 exposure in mouse blood using a lead-exposed mouse model and AC impedance measurement technology.
74 Impedance spectrum bodes diagram, Nyquist diagram, Nichols diagram, and three-element equivalent circuit
75 model were comprehensively analyzed to establish the evaluation of blood electrophysiological parameters
76 on lead exposure. A comprehensive impedance spectrum, Bodes plot, Nyquist plot, and Nichols plot, and
77 three elements equivalent circuit model analysis were used to evaluate the blood electrophysiological
78 parameters on lead exposure. This study provides a novel research method for the application of impedance
79 spectroscopy in clinical diagnosis and lead poisoning treatment.

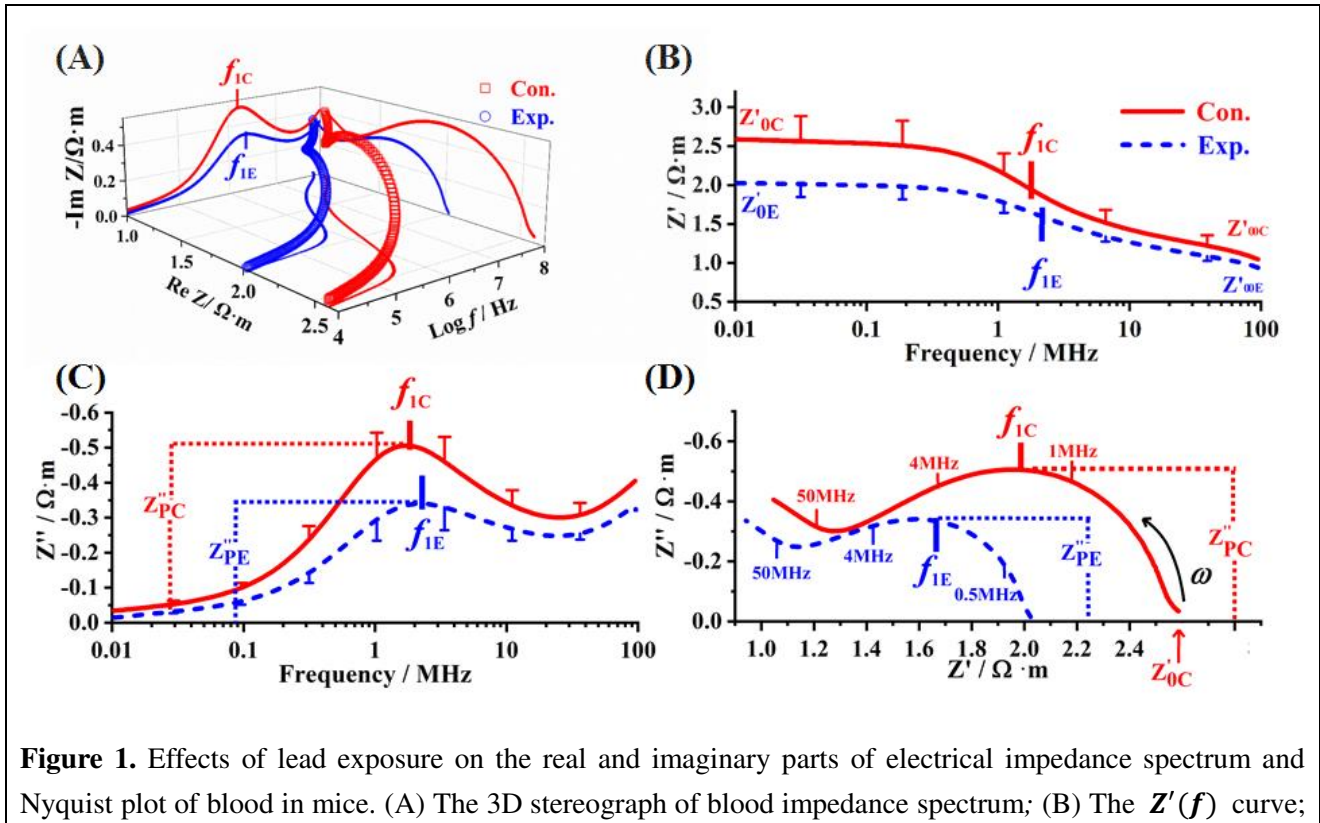
80 **Results**

81 **Effect of lead exposure on electrical impedance spectroscopy and Nyquist plots of blood**

82 The blood Hct of the exposure group (37.52 ± 3.67 %) was 9.66 % ($p < 0.05$) lower than that of the
83 control group (41.53 ± 3.6 %), which suggested that the number of RBCs decreased due to lead exposure.
84 The change was consistent with lead-exposed blood of different species, such as *Algerian Mice* [18],
85 *Apodemus sylvaticus* [19], *Parus major* [20], adults [21], and children [22].

86 **Figure 1A** clearly shows the relationship between the 3D spectrum and 2D projection (**Figure 1B-D**) of
87 electrical impedance spectrum in lead-exposed blood. The real part of the Impedance-Frequency spectrum
88 [$Z'(f)$ curve] is presented in **Figure 1B**. Due to the low frequency of the electric field, RBCs have enough
89 time to respond to the electric field and produce complete polarization at the low excitation frequency ($<$
90 0.1MHz). The polarized RBCs membrane has capacitor characteristics; the capacitance reactance [$1/(\omega C_m)$]
91 decreases with increasing frequency. As current is hindered by the high impedance of RBCs membrane, it
92 consequently flows through the extracellular plasma, which is expected due to the low impedance properties.
93 Therefore, the limit of the real part of impedance at low frequency (Z'_{0C} and Z'_{0E}) reflects the electrical
94 properties of the blood plasma, and RBCs suspension shows high impedance characteristic of capacitance at
95 low frequencies. With increasing excitation frequency from 0.1 to 10 MHz, the capacitance of the cell
96 membrane and the impedance of RBCs suspension begins to decrease due to incomplete polarized RBCs.
97 Overall, the decreasing trend of the real part of impedance (Z') generally occurred between 0.1-10 MHz,
98 which is typically referred to as β dispersion. There are two sub-relaxations in β dispersion; the 1st and 2nd
99 characteristic frequency (f_1 and f_2), which come from the existence of plasma-cytomembrane and
100 cytomembrane-hemoglobin interfacial polarizations, respectively (**Figure 1**). Accompanied by an external
101 electric field, the accumulation of interface charge and the formation of interface polarization phenomena
102 occur due to the interface hindering the charge transfer [23, 24]. The characteristic frequency f_0 performs as

103 $\sqrt{f_1 \times f_2}$ [25]. At high electric field frequencies (>10 MHz), there is insufficient time for the cells to become
 104 polarized, and consequently, the current flows into the intracellular fluid. The $Z'(f)$ curve continues as Z'
 105 decreases to $Z'_{\infty C}$, which performs the capacitive short circuit of the membrane. Thus, the limit of the real
 106 part of impedance ($Z'_{\infty C}$) represents the electrical characteristics of intracellular hemoglobin [26]. After lead
 107 exposure, the $Z'(f)$ spectrum of exposure group shifted down to the low impedance region, which leads to
 108 the decreasing of Z'_{0E} and $Z'_{\infty E}$ for characterization of plasma and hemoglobin impedance. The resistance
 109 of blood decreased is consistent with the EIS performance of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency
 110 [27]. **Figure 1C** shows the frequency spectrum $Z''(f)$ of the imaginary part of the blood impedance. Below
 111 the 0.1 MHz, the Z'' value for the blood is very small and stable, with a value close to zero. From 0.1 to 10
 112 MHz, a single hump is formed at the interface of the cell membrane, and plasma follows from the
 113 polarization loss of the induced charges. There are two parameters to the hump: the peak of the imaginary
 114 part of impedance (Z''_{PC}) and 1st characteristic frequency (f_{1C}). The curve showed a concave-like increasing
 115 tendency from 10 to 100 MHz, with the trend of an upturned tail rise at the higher band, which also appeared
 116 in the EIS of frog-blood (Xu *et al.* 2020). While the hump-shaped curve exhibits a downward shift with the
 117 value of Z''_{PE} decreases and f_{1E} increases of exposure group. The electrical impedance spectroscopy
 118 Nyquist plots present a semicircle arc at low-frequency and an individual semicircle arc with an upturned tail
 119 rise at the higher band stretched from right to left (**Figure 1D**). The center of the semicircle below the
 120 abscissas [28], together with a graphical definition of the vertices and the height of the semicircle present f_{1C}
 121 and Z''_{PC} , respectively. Compared with the control group, the limit of the real part of impedance at low
 122 frequency (Z'_{0E}), peak of the imaginary part of impedance (Z''_{PE}), the radius and area of arc were decreased,
 123 thus revealing that lead exposure-induced decreased resistance in the blood of mice.



(C) the $Z''(f)$ curve; (D) Nyquist plot. In the 3D curve and axial plane projection of Fig.1 A, hollow squares and solid lines represent the measured spectrum, $f-Z'$ projection (x-y axis, Fig.1 B), $f-\theta$ projection (y-z axis, Fig.1 C) and $Z' - Z''$ projection (x-z axis, Fig.1 D) of Control group (Con., red) and lead exposed group (Exp., blue). In Figures B-D, the measured spectra of Control and exposure group are represented by solid curves (red) and dotted curves (blue), respectively.

124

125 **Effect of lead exposure on Bode plots and Nyquist plots of blood**

126 The current flowed through the plasma, erythrocyte membrane, and hemoglobin region as the external
127 electric field increases. The amplitude-phase-frequency 3D stereogram (**Figure 2A**) represents the
128 impedance changes before and after lead exposure to blood. Compared with the control group, the
129 amplitude-frequency curves of Bode plots showed a downshift overall trend (**Figure 2B**). Impedance
130 amplitude at low frequency ($|Z|_{0E} = 2.03 \pm 0.17 \Omega \cdot m$) and the Impedance amplitude increment ($\Delta|Z|_E = 1.03$
131 $\pm 0.16 \Omega \cdot m$) of exposure group had a significant decrease of 21.62 % and 29.93 % compared to control
132 ($|Z|_{0C} = 2.59 \pm 0.33 \Omega \cdot m$, $\Delta|Z|_C = 1.47 \pm 0.21 \Omega \cdot m$), respectively. Moreover, the impedance amplitude at high
133 frequency ($|Z|_{\infty,E} = 1.00 \pm 0.05 \Omega \cdot m$) was reduced by 10.71 % but was not statistically significant. The results
134 indicated that blood exposure to lead-induced variable degrees reduction of the electrical impedance in
135 plasma, erythrocyte membrane, and hemoglobin. Moreover, the electrical impedance of extracellular plasma
136 and cell membrane was sensitive to lead exposure. Likewise, the phase-frequency curves of Bode plots
137 showed a significant downward shift compared with the control group (**Figure 2C**). The peak of phase angle
138 (deg) of exposure group ($\theta_{PE} = -13.23 \pm 1.96$ deg) was reduced by 17.00 %, and the 2nd characteristic
139 frequency ($f_{2E} = 4.96 \pm 2.47$ MHz) increased by 76.51 % compared with the control group ($\theta_{PC} = -15.94$
140 ± 0.85 deg, $f_{2C} = 2.81 \pm 0.23$ MHz) significantly. The Nichols plots present a semicircle with an upturned
141 tail rise curve from the low- to the high-frequency band, which translated to the left with the increasing of
142 the applied AC electrical field (**Figure 2D**). This is accompanied by the reduction of Logarithm of
143 low-frequency impedance amplitude ($\log|Z|_{0E}$), Peak of phase angle (θ_{PE}/rad), the radius and area of arc, and
144 the increasing of 2nd characteristic frequency (f_2) under the lead exposure blood. Based on the above
145 data, the EIS parameters of blood (Z'_P , θ_P and f_0) are reliable and valid factors for assessing the
146 electrical properties of erythrocyte membrane, which could be used to identify and characterize the
147 charge/discharge processes.

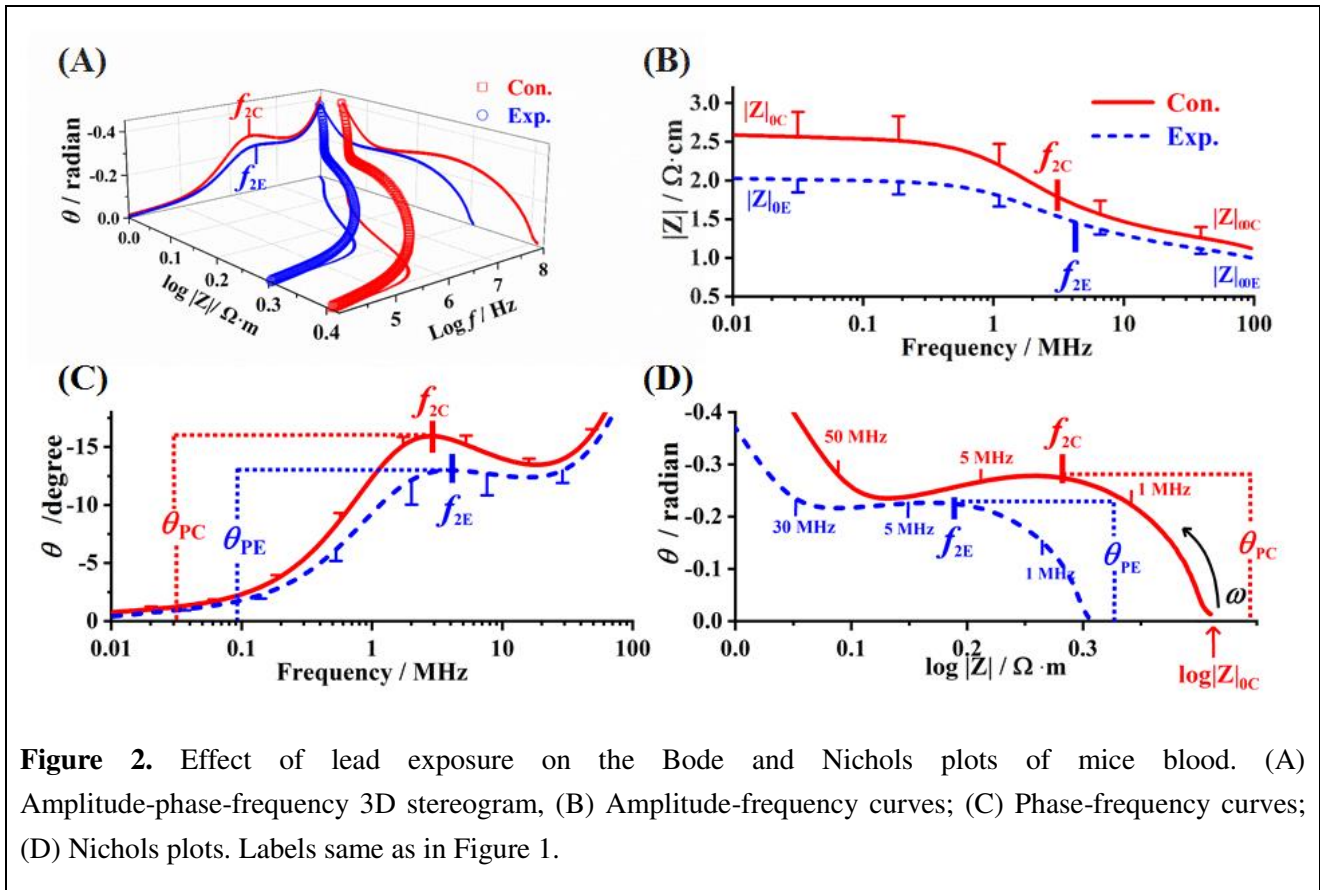
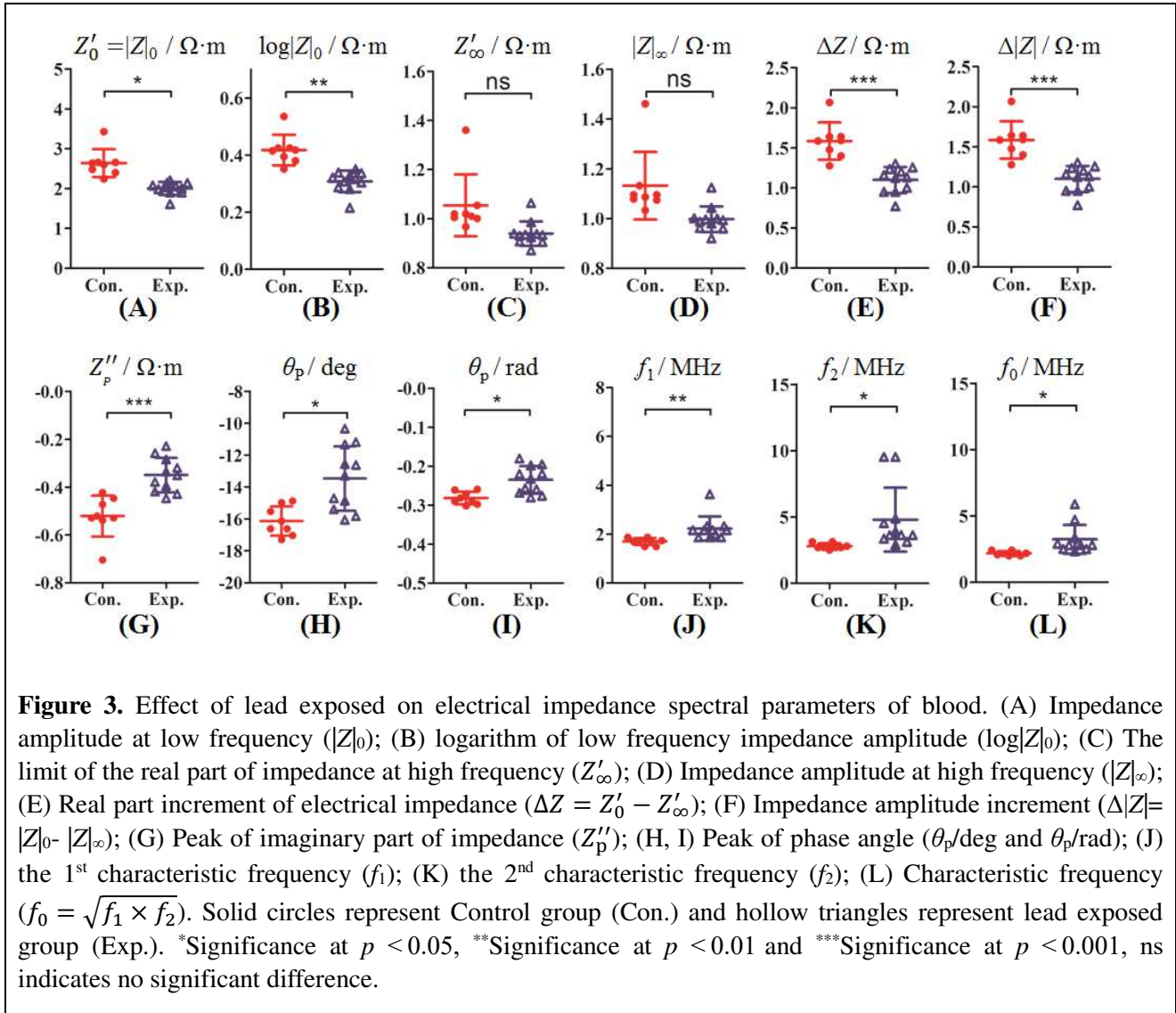


Figure 2. Effect of lead exposure on the Bode and Nichols plots of mice blood. (A) Amplitude-phase-frequency 3D stereogram, (B) Amplitude-frequency curves; (C) Phase-frequency curves; (D) Nichols plots. Labels same as in Figure 1.

148 Effect of lead exposure on impedance parameters of blood

149 According to the results from dielectric parameters analysis (**Figure 3** and **Table 1**), there were three
 150 changes of lead exposure on blood: (I) the exposure group possessed a reduction of the real part and
 151 magnitude of the impedance parameters (Z'_0 , Z'_∞ , ΔZ , $|Z|_0$, $|Z|_\infty$, $\Delta|Z|$, $\log|Z|_0$) by 22.01%, 10.48%, 29.87%,
 152 21.62%, 10.71%, 29.93% and 33.33%, respectively. (II) Results expressed a significant decrease of the
 153 imaginary part and phase angle parameters (Z''_p , θ_p/deg and θ_p/rad) by 26.83%, 17.00%, and 17.86%,
 154 respectively. (III) Results showed a significant increase in frequency parameters (f_1 , f_2 and f_0) by 27.84%,
 155 76.51% and 48.65%, respectively. These changes of electrical properties are the intuitive feature of the cell
 156 membrane and intracellular biochemical reactions by lead exposure. Under the long term lead exposure, the
 157 $\text{Na}^+\text{-K}^+$ ATPase activity of erythrocyte membrane was inhibited, which induced an imbalance of $\text{Na}^+\text{-K}^+$ ion
 158 homeostasis in RBCs [29]; the formations of insoluble lead phosphate were synthesized from lead chelating
 159 phosphate of the erythrocyte membrane, which may lead to cell hemolysis by increasing the RBC
 160 membrane fragility and permeability [30-32]. Consistent with G-6-PD deficiency of RBCs, the changes of
 161 biochemical and electrophysiological characteristics were the main factors that induced the significant
 162 decrease in RBCs numbers and mass, declined hematocrit (Hct), increased conductivity, and reduced cell
 163 impedance [33]. Similarly, we speculate that the changes of phase characteristics and frequency parameters of
 164 RBCs induced by lead exposure were due to the weakening of the barrier effect of the high permeability cell
 165 membrane. Lead is more likely to interact with δ -aminolevulinic acid dehydratase (ALA-D), xanthinogen
 166 oxidase (XOD and iron chelatase (FC) by inhibiting the synthesis of heme and cytochrome [34-36], thus
 167 leading to the decrease of hemoglobin, the phosphatidylserine exposure of membrane surface, the shrinkage

168 of erythrocyte [37] and decrease of volume, as well as the appearance of anemia-like morphological changes
 169 [35, 36], eventually causing a significant increase of the characteristic frequency (f_1 , f_2 , and f_0) of RBCs [38].



170

171

Table 1. The effect of lead exposure on the properties of electrical impedance spectra of mice blood

Parameters	Symbol/ unit	Control (n=10)	Experimental (n=10)	Rate of change (%)
Low frequency limit of real part of impedance	$Z'_0 / \Omega \cdot m$	2.59 ± 0.33	$2.02 \pm 0.17^{***}$	-22.01
High frequency limit of real part of impedance	$Z'_\infty / \Omega \cdot m$	1.05 ± 0.12	$0.94 \pm 0.05^*$	-10.48
Real part increment of electrical impedance	$\Delta Z / \Omega \cdot m$	1.54 ± 0.21	$1.08 \pm 0.16^{***}$	-29.87
Impedance amplitude at low frequency	$ Z _0 / \Omega \cdot m$	2.59 ± 0.33	$2.03 \pm 0.17^{***}$	-21.62
Impedance amplitude at high frequency	$ Z _\infty / \Omega \cdot m$	1.12 ± 0.12	$1.00 \pm 0.05^*$	-10.71
Impedance amplitude increment	$\Delta Z / \Omega \cdot m$	1.47 ± 0.21	$1.03 \pm 0.16^{***}$	-29.93
Logarithm of low frequency impedance amplitude	$\log Z _0 / \Omega \cdot m$	-0.51 ± 0.08	$-0.34 \pm 0.07^{***}$	-33.33

Peak of imaginary part of impedance	$Z_p'' / \Omega \cdot m$	0.41 ± 0.05	$0.3 \pm 0.04^{***}$	-26.83
Peak of phase angle (deg)	θ_p / deg	-15.94 ± 0.85	$-13.23 \pm 1.96^*$	-17.00
Peak of phase angle (rad)	θ_p / rad	-0.28 ± 0.01	$-0.23 \pm 0.03^*$	-17.86
The 1 st characteristic frequency	f_1 / MHz	1.76 ± 0.12	$2.25 \pm 0.52^*$	27.84
The 2 nd characteristic frequency	f_2 / MHz	2.81 ± 0.23	$4.96 \pm 2.47^*$	76.51
Characteristic frequency	f_0 / MHz	2.22 ± 0.15	$3.30 \pm 1.12^*$	48.65

172 * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, compared with the control group.

173

174 Effect of lead exposure on the parameters of a three-element equivalent electrical circuit in 175 blood

176 The cell structural parameters (Table 2) were established based on the three-element
177 equivalent electrical circuit model (Figure 4), which was obtained through the curves fitting of blood
178 electrical impedance spectrum observation data by Zview2 software. Compared with the control group, the
179 plasma resistance (R_p) and cell membrane capacitance (C_m) significantly decreased by 21.49% and 18.18%
180 under the lead exposure of blood, while the intracellular resistance (R_i) also decreased by 1.10%, but without
181 significant effect.

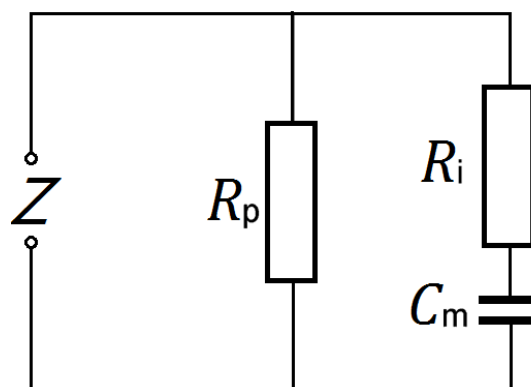


Figure 4. Three-element model of blood, R_p represents plasma resistance, R_i cell interior resistance and C_m cell membrane capacitance.

182

183 Table 2. The values of electric components of the established three-element equivalent circuit model

Parameters	Symbol/ unit	Control group	Exposure group	rate of change (%)
Hematocrit	Hct / %	41.53 ± 3.60	$37.72 \pm 3.5^*$	-9.18
Plasma resistance	$R_p / \Omega \cdot m$	2.54 ± 0.32	$1.99 \pm 0.16^*$	-21.49
Intracellular resistance	$R_i / \Omega \cdot m$	2.53 ± 0.25	2.5 ± 0.33	-1.10
Cell membrane capacitance	$C_m / \text{nF} \cdot \text{m}^{-1}$	12.57 ± 1.34	$10.29 \pm 1.6^*$	-18.18

184 * $P < 0.05$, compared with the control group.

185 **Conclusion**

186 In summary, this study used the electrical impedance spectrum, Bode plots, Nyquist plots, and Nichols
187 plots data analysis to confirm that lead exposure can reduce the Hct, decrease the impedance and phase angle
188 characteristics, and increase the first and second characteristic frequency of blood in mice. These results
189 provided data support and new diagnosis and treatment methods for the hematotoxicity and the potential
190 electrophysiological mechanism of lead exposure.

191 **Materials**

192 **Subjects and blood collection**

193 A total of 20 ICR mice, weighing 27.5 ± 5.1 g on average, were provided by the experimental animal
194 center of Ningbo University. All the animals were housed in an environment with a temperature of 22 ± 1 °C,
195 relative humidity of $50 \pm 1\%$, and a light/dark cycle of 12/12 hr. All animal studies (including the mice
196 euthanasia procedure) were done in compliance with the regulations and guidelines of Ningbo University
197 institutional animal care and conducted according to the AAALAC and the IACUC guidelines.

198 The exposure group (n =10) was gavaged with 0.5 ml PbA (250 mg/kg bw) per 24h for 4 weeks; at the
199 same time, the control group (n = 10) was treated with normal saline through identical administration. Blood
200 samples were collected by orbital sinus puncture into heparinized microhematocrit tubes from all mice;
201 blood impedance and hematocrit values were directly determined after pretreatment or centrifugation. Lead
202 acetate (PbA) of AR grade and all other reagents were purchased from Merck (Life Sciences Co., Ltd) unless
203 otherwise stated.

204 **Hematocrit and impedance measurement**

205 Haematocrit (Hct) was measured with micro-haematocrit capillary tubes (1.5 mm outer diameter, 75
206 mm length; surgical instruments factory of Shanghai Medical Instruments Co., Ltd) in a bench-top
207 haematocrit centrifuge (Haematokrit 210, Germany) for 5 min at 11000 rpm. The hematocrit was calculated
208 using the following equation^[39]: Hematocrit (%) = red blood cells volume/blood total volume.

209 The amplitude $|Z|$ and the phase angle θ of blood were measured by Agilent 4294A Impedance Analyzer
210 (USA), equipped with Agilent 42942A terminal adapter and an Agilent 16192A parallel electrode SMD test
211 fixture; analyzers were controlled by a Lenovo computer. Measurements were made at room temperature.
212 Dispersion characteristic was measured in the frequency range 0.01 to 100 MHz with 124 frequency points.
213 Each run was taken three times under the 0.2V alternating current (AC) voltage, and the data points were the
214 average of these runs. The sample cell was made of clear Plexiglas tube and consisted of a chamber with two
215 parallel platinum plates embedded on both sides, which was customized according to size as follows^[40]: 7.7
216 mm electrode diameter, 8.24 mm distance between electrode pairs, 46.57 mm² well area, and 0.38 ml sample
217 volume. The complex impedance was expressed as $Z = |Z| \times e^{-j\theta} = Z' + jZ''$. The real (Z') and imaginary
218 (Z'') impedance was calculated as $Z' = |Z| \times \cos \theta$ and $Z'' = |Z| \times \sin \theta$, respectively.

219

220 **The three-element circuit model for blood impedance analysis**

221 Blood impedance analysis for RBCs was selected according to cellular structures using previously
222 described methods [41, 42]. The impedance of the β dispersion was simulated by a three-element circuit, as
223 shown in **Figure 4**. The values of the three elements of the model, R_p , R_i , and C_m represent plasma resistance,
224 cell interior resistance, and cell membrane capacitance, respectively. These parameters were obtained by
225 curve fitting of blood impedance spectrum data with Zview2 Software. The impedance of the circuit was
226 calculated as follows:

$$227 \quad Z = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{R_p} + \frac{1}{R_i + \frac{1}{j\omega C_m}}} = Z' + jZ'' \quad (1)$$

228 Where

$$229 \quad Z' = \frac{R_p[1 + \omega^2 C_m^2 (R_i + R_p) R_i]}{1 + \omega^2 C_m^2 (R_i + R_p)^2} \quad (2), \quad Z'' = \frac{-\omega C_m R_p^2}{1 + \omega^2 C_m^2 (R_i + R_p)^2} \quad (3)$$

230

231 **Statistical analysis**

232 All values were expressed as the means \pm standard deviation (SD). The significance of the differences
233 between each value presented by the Control and Lead exposure group was evaluated by the Student *t*-test
234 using SPSS 12.0 software. A *p*-value < 0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

235

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242 **Author's contributions**

243 BYY wrote and contributed to the analysis and interpretation of data. BYY and JX wrote the manuscript,
244 collected and analyzed data, performed the experiment, and contributed to the analysis and interpretation of
245 data. BYY, JX and QM wrote the manuscript and discussed the results. BYY, SH, BNY wrote the manuscript,
246 and contributed to its analysis and to the interpretation of data. BYY, QM wrote the manuscript, discussed
247 the results, as well as contributed to its conception, design, analysis, and the interpretation of data. All
248 authors read and approved the final manuscript.

249 **Availability of data and materials**

250 Not applicable.

251 **Declarations**

252 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

253 This study was performed after approval by the Institutional Review Board of school of Medicine, Ningbo
254 University (No. NBU20210015).

255 **Consent for publication**

256 All subjects signed an approved informed consent after the study procedures had been explained and
257 consented to its publication.

258 **Competing interests**

259 The authors declare that they have no competing interests. Authors to whom correspondence should be
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264

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Figures

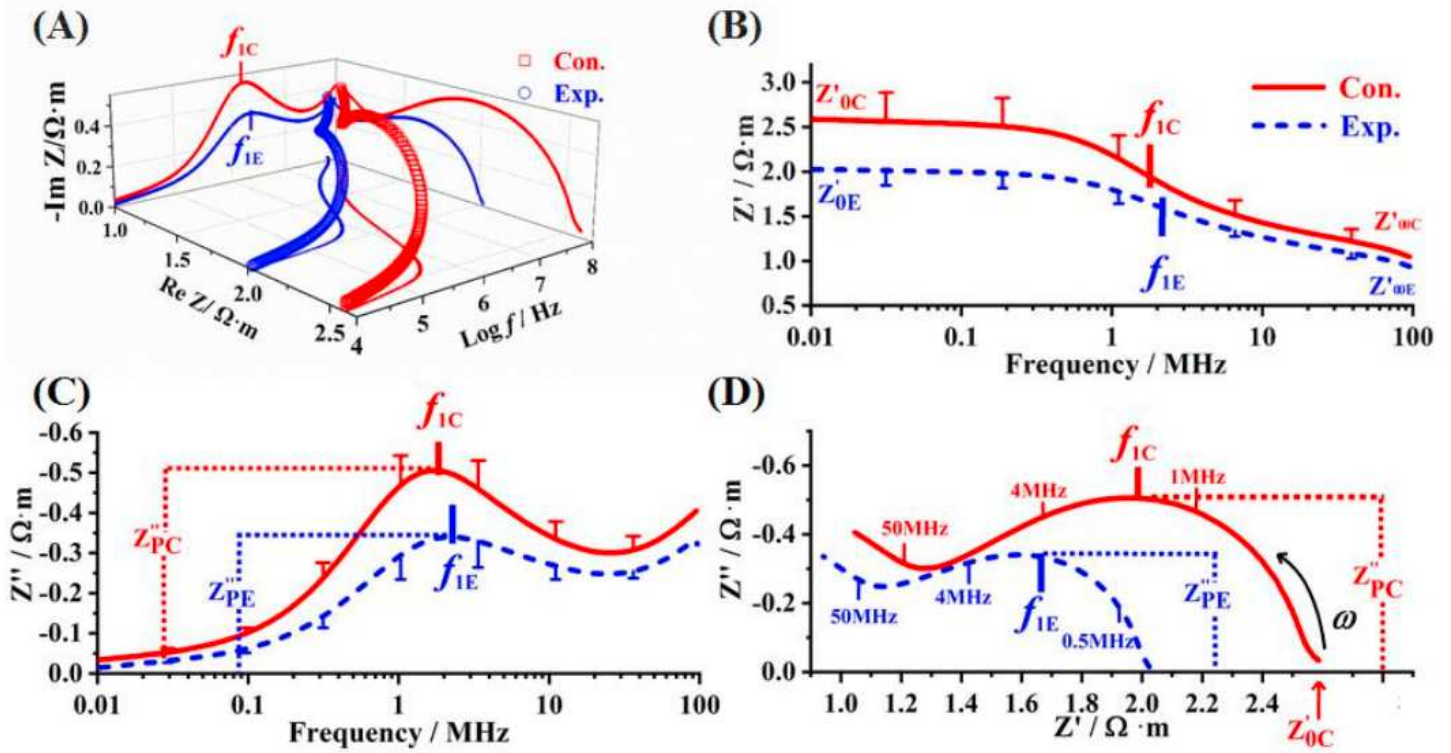


Figure 1

Effects of lead exposure on the real and imaginary parts of electrical impedance spectrum and Nyquist plot of blood in mice. (A) The 3D stereograph of blood impedance spectrum; (B) The Z' (Ω) curve; (C) the Z'' (Ω) curve; (D) Nyquist plot. In the 3D curve and axial plane projection of Fig.1 A, hollow squares and solid lines represent the measured spectrum, $f - Z'$ projection (x-y axis, Fig.1 B), $f - Z''$ projection (y-z axis, Fig.1 C) and $Z' - Z''$ projection (x-z axis, Fig.1 D) of Control group (Con., red) and lead exposed group (Exp., blue). In Figures B-D, the measured spectra of Control and exposure group are represented by solid curves (red) and dotted curves (blue), respectively.

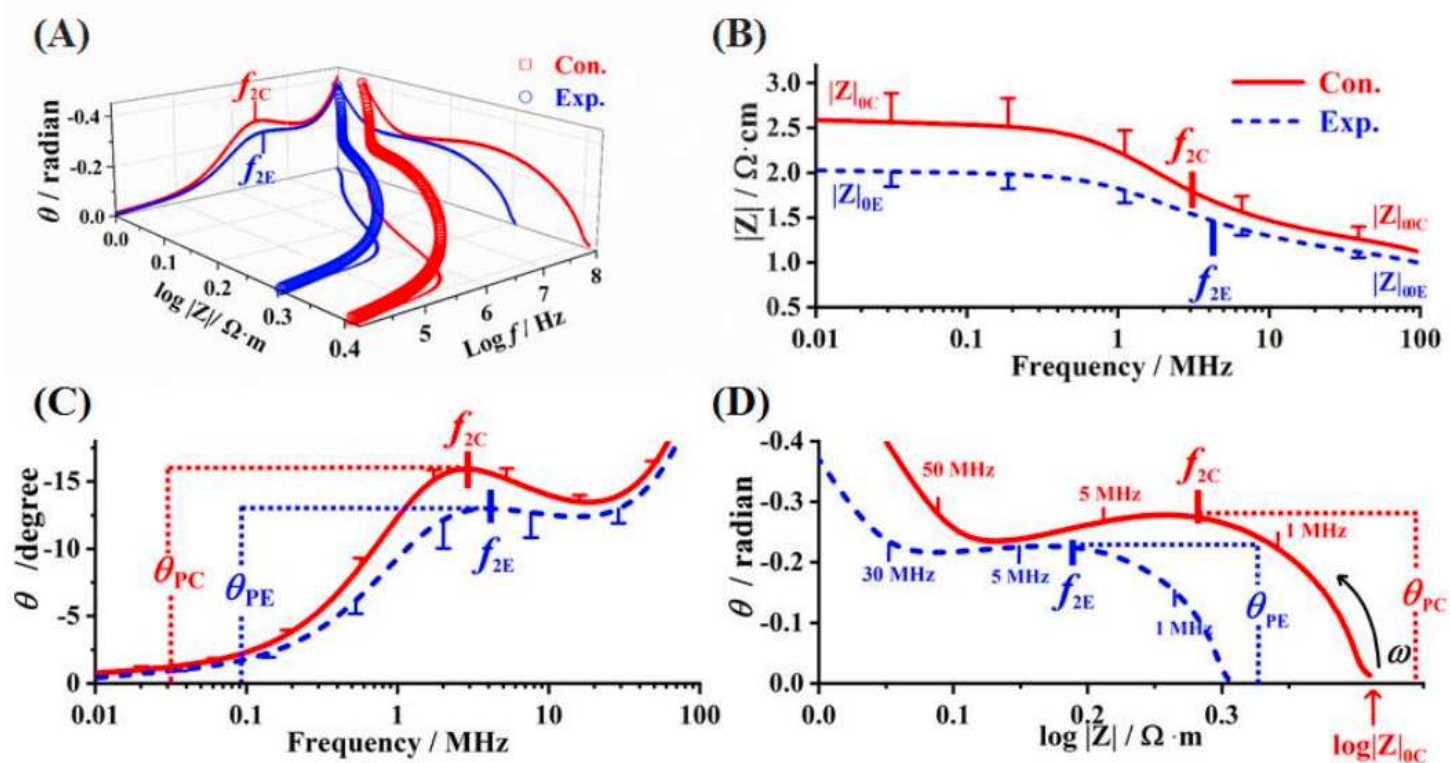


Figure 2

Effect of lead exposure on the Bode and Nichols plots of mice blood. (A) Amplitude-phase-frequency 3D stereogram, (B) Amplitude-frequency curves; (C) Phase-frequency curves; (D) Nichols plots. Labels same as in Figure 1

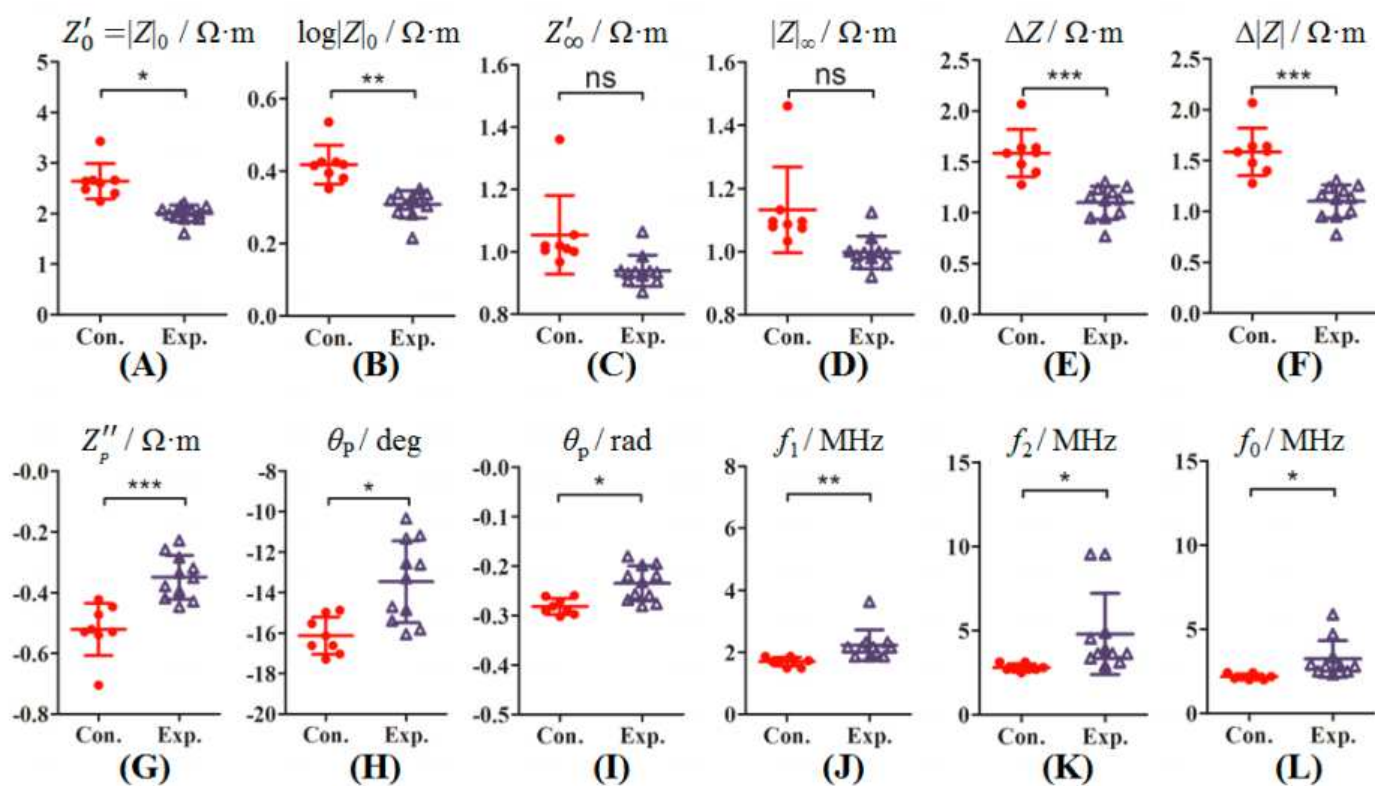


Figure 3

Please see the Manuscript PDF file for the complete figure caption.

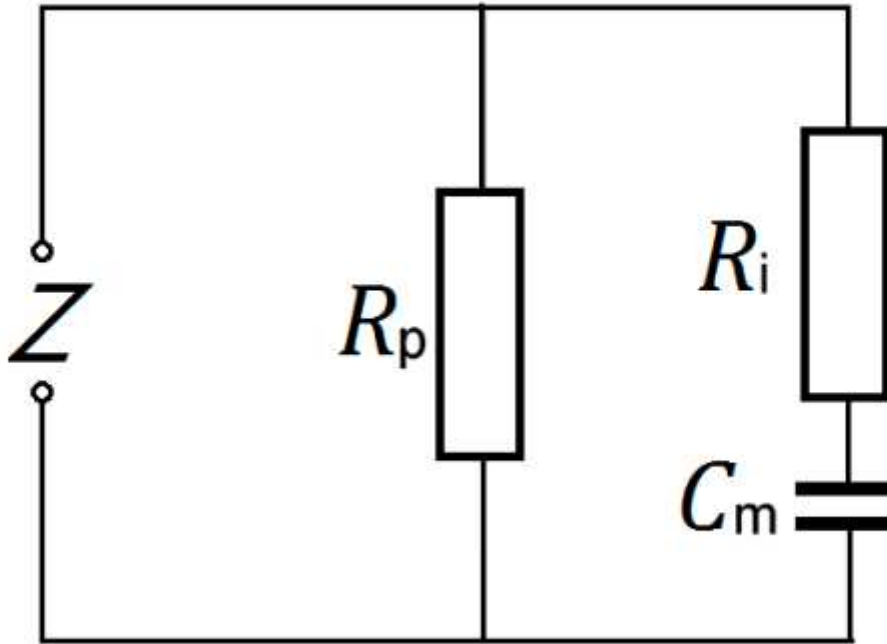


Figure 4

Three-element model of blood, R_p represents plasma resistance, R_i cell interior resistance and C_m cell membrane capacitance.