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1 **Instrumenting a Fetal Membrane on a Chip as Emerging Technology for Preterm Birth Research**

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24 **Key words:** prematurity, pregnancy, infection, microfluidic, chorioamnionitis, PPRM

25

26 Abstract

27 Preterm birth (PTB) is clinically defined as process of giving birth before 37 weeks of gestation and is a
28 leading cause of death among neonates and children under the age of five. Prematurity remains a critical issue in
29 developed countries, yet our understanding of the pathophysiology of PTB remains largely unknown. Among
30 pregnancy complications, subclinical infections such as chorioamnionitis (CAM) are implicated in up to 70% of PTB
31 cases. Specifically, CAM is characterized by the infection of the fetal membranes that surround the developing fetus
32 and extend from the placenta, and is often associated with preterm, premature rupture of the fetal membranes
33 (PPROM). The fetal membrane plays a key structural role in maintaining the fetal and maternal compartments of the
34 gravid uterus. However, our understanding of the mechanisms of PPRM and the spatio-temporal progress of CAM
35 remains vastly unknown. A lack of human-derived models have hindered our understanding of the mechanism that
36 govern spontaneous PTB. Thus, in this short review, we discuss the emerging microfabrication technologies,
37 specifically, organ-on-chip (OoCs) models, that seek to recapitulate the cellular and molecular context of the
38 gestational membranes in vitro. These models show promise to facilitate the investigation of pathologic mechanisms
39 that drive these disease conditions by mimicking the interactive contribution of the major cell types that make up the
40 microenvironment of the fetal membrane and enable high throughput screening. Herein, we histologically characterize
41 the microenvironment of the fetal membrane as a metric for scaling to recapitulate the functional components of the
42 human fetal membrane. We review the current OoC models of the gravid uterus and conceptualize an “Instrumented
43 Fetal Membrane on a Chip” (IFMOC) design as a prototype for PPRM and CAM research. Lastly, we discuss further
44 applications of these OoC models for toxicological or pharmacological screening and personalized medicine. Fetal
45 membrane OoCs offer an innovative and valuable platform to explore complex interactions between multiple drug
46 types, toxic substances, and/or pathogenic microbes and their potential impacts on pregnancy outcomes. Further work
47 will be required by integrating technological and analytical capabilities in order to characterize the fetal membrane
48 microenvironment for preterm birth research.

49 **Introduction**

50 Annually, nearly 15 million preterm births (PTB) occur worldwide (1), making prematurity the leading cause of death
51 in neonates and the second-leading cause in children under 5 years old (2, 3). While there are many causes of PTB, it
52 is most often caused by subclinical infection of the membranes that surround the developing fetus and extend from
53 the placenta, a condition referred to as infectious chorioamnionitis (CAM). This usually the result of bacteria
54 ascending from the vagina to invade the fetal membranes (**Figure 1**) (4). The fetal membranes are a critical protective
55 barrier during normal pregnancy and are composed of three structural layers, including the fetal-derived amnion and
56 chorion and the maternal-derived decidua (5). Despite this relatively simple organ structure, little is known about how
57 fetal membranes participate in immune defense or how microbes evade these defenses.

58
59 Defining the host-microbial interactions within the fetal membrane at a cellular and molecular level will reveal
60 actionable targets for early diagnosis, prevention and treatment of CAM. As many as 70% or more of preterm births
61 are associated with CAM, particularly when the delivery occurs before 30 weeks of gestation (6). Babies exposed to
62 CAM in utero are at increased risk for neonatal sepsis, necrotizing enterocolitis, bronchopulmonary dysplasia, cerebral
63 palsy and retinopathy of prematurity (7). Unfortunately, CAM is often asymptomatic and difficult to diagnose in time
64 to prevent maternal and fetal adverse outcomes. Furthermore, subsets of pregnant women with microbial
65 contamination of amniotic fluid carry their pregnancy to term, suggesting host factors likely influence the risk for
66 CAM-associated PTB (8). Additionally, antibiotic therapies have shown discrepancy between populations of women
67 and have failed, for the most part, to prevent preterm birth (9, 10). A common pregnancy complication that stems
68 from CAM and is a major contributor to the burden of PTB is preterm premature rupture of the fetal membranes
69 (PPROM). Although fetal membrane rupture is an essential part of the delivery process, PPRM at less than 34 weeks
70 of gestation is responsible for approximately 25% of premature births (11). Our limited understanding of the early
71 steps involved in disease pathogenesis impedes solutions to this immense problem.

72
73 There is a significant deficit in tractable model systems of human fetal membranes. Most studies of human fetal
74 membrane immunology employ traditional cell and ex vivo tissue culture models (12, 13), and are limited by either
75 loss of the biological context or an inability to maintain ex vivo tissues for prolonged periods. Tissue culture also lacks
76 the capability to dissect the roles of individual cell types within the context of a tissue microenvironment. Typically,

77 independent cell and tissue culture experiments are conducted and terminated at discrete time points and do not convey
78 the molecular pathways involved throughout the course of infection. This disjointed approach creates challenges for
79 understanding the dynamic host-microbial relationship. In addition, these culture systems often rely on relatively large
80 culture media volumes employed which may dilute paracrine signals involved in cellular crosstalk. Animal models
81 are beneficial for physiologic studies, but the placenta and fetal membranes have tremendous differences in anatomy
82 and physiology amongst mammalian species. These biological differences from humans limit progress towards
83 translational solutions (14, 15). Thus, there is an essential need to develop robust models of human CAM that can
84 eliminate species-specific differences, incorporate all relevant cell subtypes to accelerate research in immunology and
85 microbiology (16, 17).

86
87 Microfluidic organotypic model systems, commonly referred to as Organ-on-Chip (OoC) technologies, are expected
88 to have a major impact on drug discovery, screening, and assessment of efficacy and safety (18, 19). Such 3D platforms
89 may recapitulate inter- and intra-cell signaling and the physiological context of tissue dynamics by
90 compartmentalizing the major cellular components for quantitative and qualitative analysis (18). Apart from their
91 potential role in clinical pharmacology, such OoC models can be used to study the effects of environmental insults
92 (e.g., toxins, radiation, or malnutrition) or infections on human health (20). Reproductive tract organotypic culture
93 models are emerging to meet this need (21). In this review, we describe existing OoC of the gravid uterus and provide
94 conceptual insight into an emerging tool, the instrumented fetal membrane-on-chip (IFMOC), a new model our team
95 is developing. An IFMOC could provide a living, continuously perfused model of the fetal membrane that can be
96 leveraged to shed new light on many physiological and pathophysiological processes, including host-microbial
97 interactions that occur during CAM and PTB. Here, we use PPRM as an example of a gestational membrane disease
98 process that can be examined using this OoC model.

99

100

101 Existing organ-on-chip (OoC) models of the gravid uterus

102 Advances in biomedical engineering are increasingly deployed in microphysiological models geared toward
103 mimicking multiple organs in vitro in many disciplines including reproductive biology (21). By utilizing microfluidic
104 technologies, OoC devices can provide controlled perfusion inside microfluidic structures, which can then refine cell
105 and medium volume ratios and emulate bloodstream-like flow (to continuously supply nutrients and remove wastes
106 while mimicking hemodynamic forces) (22). One major goal is to hasten the speed and improve the accuracy of
107 toxicity testing in preclinical drug development (21), however, such models might also be used to gain new insight
108 into tissue level physiological processes and disease pathogenesis (20). Applications of these technologies as
109 innovative tools for reproductive research have recently emerged as discussed below.

110
111 References cited in this review relevant to OoC models of the gravid female reproductive tract were obtained by
112 searching the MEDLINE database for English language articles using PubMed (United States National Library of
113 Medicine (Bethesda, MD)) for all years available. The following search terms or combination of terms were used:
114 “endometrium”, “embryo”, “microfluidic”, “organ on chip”, “placenta”, “pregnancy”, and “reproductive tract”.
115 Additional references were obtained through bibliographies cited in manuscripts. Literature was reviewed through
116 December 2016.

117 118 OoC models of embryo implantation

119 In this review, we focused on the post-implantation embryo; however, microfluidic models of the pre-implantation
120 embryo have been developed and reviewed elsewhere (23-25). Although early attempts at modeling embryo
121 implantation using a microfluidic 2-chamber device were presented in abstract form in 2007 (24, 26, 27), it was not
122 until 2009 that Kimura and colleagues developed a static, 2-chamber OoC capable of culturing a single mouse embryo
123 on a bed of endometrial stromal cells (22). Their device consisted of an upper polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) chip
124 with multiple cell trap wells and a lower PDMS chamber with a microchannel for chemical supply along with a
125 polyester microporous membrane from a commercially available culture insert plate (22). This approach was believed
126 at the time to be the first single embryo co-culture device for the management of mammalian embryos (22). In 2014,
127 Chen and collaborators advanced the field for co-culturing a single embryo with a lawn of endometrial stromal cells,
128 using a fabricated PDMS dual-chamber device coated with type IV collagen and subjecting the device to a constant

129 media flow (28). This model enhanced the quality of embryo culture by utilizing microfluidic technologies. A more
130 recent, but similar approach was taken by Chang et al. to develop a comprehensive stand-alone microfluidic platform,
131 “Womb-on-a Chip”, that mimics the microenvironment and incorporates key parameters of embryo implantation,
132 including mild biomechanical forces (29). This model used PDMS based microfluidic chambers to directly co-culture
133 primary endometrial stromal fibroblasts with murine embryos with the ability to visualize the implantation process in
134 real time.

135
136 To our knowledge, these devices have not been applied to the clinical problem of PTB, but were developed to address
137 the root mechanisms of infertility and improve assisted reproductive technology (ART). However, there is potential
138 to use such devices to better understand early events during pre-conception and the establishment of pregnancy that
139 may lead preterm birth.

140
141 OoC models of the placenta
142 The human placenta is an understudied organ that has long been appreciated to play a major role in important
143 complications of pregnancy, including prematurity, infection, intrauterine growth restriction, (pre)eclampsia and
144 gestational diabetes (30-33). More recently, attention has focused on the placenta for its potential role in the
145 developmental origins of health and disease (DOHaD), a paradigm that relates early life exposures (including
146 gestational health) to lifespan and disease risk in offspring (34, 35). The possibility that placental pathology could be
147 a critical root mechanism for major causes of morbidity and mortality in adults (36, 37), such as cardiovascular disease,
148 obesity, diabetes, and neurocognitive problems, creates a new importance for defining normal placental structure and
149 function. Knowledge of placental molecular biology lags behind that of other organs; however, this is not surprising,
150 since it is not feasible to sample an individual human placenta at multiple time points throughout pregnancy. Thus,
151 there is a need for new models of placental biology that can be applied to understanding both normal and disease
152 states.

153
154 Recently, two groups have published placenta OoC models (38, 39). The placental chip system reported by Lee, et al.
155 was developed using a technique known as soft lithography, resulting in a microfluidic system made of two PDMS
156 chambers separated by a thin extracellular matrix membrane. An immortalized trophoblast cell line (JEG-3) combined

157 with primary human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVEC) were used to represent two of the major non-immune
158 cell types of the placenta in the device. These cells were seeded onto the opposite sides of the extracellular matrix
159 membrane and cultured under dynamic flow conditions. Confluent layers of trophoblasts and endothelial cells were
160 generated in close apposition in order to mimic the human placental maternal-fetal interface (39). Functional validation
161 of this system was performed by measuring glucose transport across the trophoblast-endothelial interface over time.
162 The permeability of the barrier was analyzed and compared to that obtained from acellular devices and additional
163 control groups comprised of either epithelial or endothelial layers alone (39).

164
165 The OoC model developed by Blundell, et al., was very similar to the Lee report, utilizing a two-chamber PDMS
166 device generated via soft lithography and populated with a primary vascular cell type (human primary placental villous
167 endothelial cells (HPVECs)) and a placental choriocarcinoma epithelial cells (BeWo, ATCC), separated by a porous
168 membrane coated with extracellular matrix components (38). As in the Lee study (39)(38)(39), the investigators
169 demonstrated functionality of the device in terms of permeability, hormone production and nutrient transport (38).
170 Both models of the trophoblast-vascular interface represent important advances in microscale modeling of the human
171 placenta. However, a limitation of these OoC models was the simplified cellular community structure, lacking immune
172 cells and other relevant non-immune cells such as decidual stromal cells. It is anticipated that these types of placental
173 OoCs will further advance our understanding of maternal-fetal nutrient and waste transport, drug toxicity,
174 immunology/tolerance, and the pathogenesis of infectious diseases as well as other complications of reproduction.

175
176 In a recent report, Sticker, et al., developed a multi-chambered microfluidic device that further enhance the
177 development of complex in vitro cell cultures for placental research. These models will be essential for developing a
178 robust culture system that provides the individual assessment of each cell type (40, 41). Professor Peter Ertl's group
179 fabricated a 4-chamber device using a photosensitive thermoset (OSTEMER 322-40) as a porous membrane and used
180 it to establish a compartmentalized tri-culture of human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVEC), BeWo cells, and
181 adipose tissue-derived human mesenchymal stem cells (adMSCs) (40). These organs-on-chips offer an opportunity to
182 enhance the multicellular in vitro models of complex tissues, including the placenta and fetal membranes, and
183 demonstrates the increasing complexity of in vitro tissue modeling. Altogether, these models represent the driving
184 interest in the development of OoCs of the gravid uterus to better understand maternal-fetal interactions.

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Potential OoC Models of the Fetal Membrane

Existing models of the human fetal membrane

Current studies of human fetal membrane immunology employ traditional cell and tissue culture models. Cell culture is limited by the loss of the biological context provided by neighboring cells and matrix, while tissue culture is crippled by an inability to maintain viability *ex vivo* for prolonged periods of time (without contamination). To advance fetal membrane research, transwell platforms have been implemented to dissect the maternal and fetal polarization of these membranes (42-44). In these models, the *ex vivo* human membrane tissue is used to recreate the membrane of a transwell assay and thereby offers the ability to determine differences between the apical (amniotic) and basal (choriodecidual) compartments of the fetal membrane tissue. Although this method allows for whole fetal membrane cultures in similar anatomical context as would be seen *in vivo* including unidirectional pathway of an infection, its reliance on inclusive human tissue acquisition, short term cultures, as well as intra-sample and donor-to-donor variability, impact the reproducibility of results and limit its applications for mechanistic studies.

Tissue culture also lacks the capability to dissect the roles of individual cell types within the context of whole tissue. Typically, independent cell and tissue culture experiments are conducted and terminated at discrete time points throughout the course of infection. This disjointed approach creates challenges for understanding the dynamic host-microbial relationship. In addition, these culture systems suffer from dilutional effects imposed by the relatively large culture media volumes employed (16). Animal models have been invaluable tools; however, they are also limited, presenting endocrine, anatomical and immunological differences from humans (14, 15). Thus, there is an urgent need to develop better human translational CAM models to eliminate species-specific differences and accelerate research in immunology and microbiology (16, 17). Development of innovative OoCs of the fetal membrane would provide a foundation for robust *in vitro* human studies that could supplement *in vivo* animal and *ex vivo* human studies (**Table 1**).

213

Table 1. Potential advantages of an instrumented fetal membrane on a chip (IFMOC) device

Creates a highly defined, living model of human fetal membrane that can be maintained for days-to-weeks
The ability to define the contribution(s) of individual cell types to the immunology of intact membranes, facilitating high-resolution mapping of autocrine and paracrine signaling networks within this compartment
The potential to incorporate transgenic and gene-deficient cell types within the membranes and to define the contribution of particular genes and gene-networks to human reproductive immunology (and physiology)
The capacity to better model covariates such as fetal sex or race/ethnicity at the tissue level
The ability to incorporate the IFMOC into novel imaging tools and downstream analytics while preserving the capacity to perform longitudinal studies throughout the course of infection: from colonization to invasion

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215

216 The Microenvironment of Fetal Membranes

217 Fetal membranes are a deceptively simple tissue structure (5, 45), composed primarily of decidual stromal cells,
 218 chorionic trophoblasts, fibroblasts (mesenchymal cells), a monolayer of amniotic epithelial cells, resident immune
 219 cells and a collagen-rich extracellular matrix. While the exact fetal membrane thickness and cell densities are variable
 220 between individuals, the overall cell ratios and histologic analysis between the somatic cells demonstrate a consistent
 221 composition (**Figure 2**). In our models, we have purposely omitted the structural mesenchymal cells for the sake of
 222 simplicity and focused on the functional reproductive cells. We also summarize the calculated histological
 223 composition of the fetal membrane and its cellular subtypes (**Figure 3a**). These descriptive parameters provide an
 224 idealized scaling design for OoCs that completely or partially recapitulate the cellular components of the fetal
 225 membrane. It is important to keep in mind that these approximations do not consider subpopulations within each cell
 226 type and may change temporally and spatially between each sample. Immune cells exist within this structure, where
 227 approximately 35% of immune cells are T lymphocytes, 14% are NK cells, 9% are monocyte/macrophage cells and
 228 2% are B cells (46, 47). CD68⁺ Macrophages are therefore the major innate immune phagocyte in uninfected fetal
 229 membranes (48-51) and make up approximately 9-13% of total cells residing in the fetal membrane (**Figure 3a**).
 230 However, how macrophages govern host defense and inflammatory responses is uncertain. An interesting feature of
 231 fetal membranes is the coexistence of maternal-derived decidual macrophages and fetal-derived macrophages (a.k.a.

232 placental macrophages or Hofbauer cells) (52-55). Although studies have identified epigenetic differences between
233 maternal and fetal macrophages isolated from the same gestational tissues (53), we lack knowledge regarding
234 functional differences between macrophage subtypes in the context of infection. Animal data suggest that
235 macrophages drive PTB in the setting of inflammation or infection but have not determined the contributions of
236 maternal and fetal macrophages to this process (56-59). By integrating most of these cells in a tissue-level context that
237 recapitulates the dynamic crosstalk of these somatic and immune cells, it may be possible to understand the roles of
238 each cell type in the regulation of inflammation, maintaining homeostasis and avoiding CAM.

239
240 As noted above, CAM is a major cause of PTB (60), preterm premature rupture of membranes (PPROM) (61), stillbirth
241 (62), and neonatal sepsis (63, 64). Bacterial CAM provokes inflammatory responses that trigger early labor (65) and
242 contribute to a fetal inflammatory response syndrome (FIRS) (60). Unfortunately, CAM is often clinically silent until
243 an adverse event occurs (66). Developing accurate, early diagnostic tests and preventive and/or therapeutic
244 interventions requires a better understanding of mechanisms of disease pathogenesis, particularly events occurring
245 early during host-microbial interaction. While the above section described published OoC models of the gravid uterus,
246 there is not, to our knowledge, a functional OoC of the human fetal membrane. Using OoC technologies it may be
247 possible to develop a living fetal membrane model to characterize cellular interactions and response to infections (19).
248 Conceptually, a highly defined in vitro model of human fetal membrane that can be maintained for days-to-weeks
249 with an ability to define the contribution(s) of individual cell types to the immunology of intact membranes would
250 facilitate the high-resolution mapping of autocrine and paracrine signaling networks that occur within this tissue. This
251 compartmentalized model would enable both phenotypic and biochemical analytics to characterize fetal membrane
252 barrier integrity as a method to study CAM mediated disease conditions (e.g. PPRM).

253
254 In order to reduce the burden of intra-sample variability, commercially available cell lines are commonly used as
255 displayed by the OoCs described above. Primary cells obtained from donors or patients also can be implemented
256 within these models. Depending on the source of cells utilized, fetal membrane OoCs could developed to model either
257 healthy or abnormal pregnancies. Primary cells could be employed, for example, from fetal membranes obtained from
258 preterm labors or PPRM and used to study disease pathogenesis. Furthermore, induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs)
259 could be obtained from mother-child pairs, even years postpartum, and differentiated into the unique fetal membrane

260 cell types for use in a membrane OoC. Genetic engineering tools, such as CRISPR/Cas9, can be harnessed to
261 manipulate the contribution of specific genes to membrane biology. Thus, an effective fetal membrane OoC model
262 might be modified to use diverse cell types gain a deeper insight into disease pathogenesis or to understand normal
263 reproductive processes. This ability to incorporate primary cells into OoCs supports both precision and personalized
264 medicine initiatives.

265
266 Herein, we provide an example of an idealized OoC model of the fetal membrane (**Figure 3b.**); however, the design
267 and complexity of models will certainly be subject to alternative configurations to satisfy the driving experimental
268 question. Our team is currently developing an instrumented fetal membrane-on-chip (IFMOC) device to recapitulate
269 anatomical, biochemical and reproductive processes of the fetal membrane that physically separates maternal and fetal
270 components (**Figure 4**). We envision that the IFMOC will model important biological variables such as fetal sex
271 and/or race/ethnicity at the tissue level and incorporate novel imaging tools and downstream analytics into longitudinal
272 studies throughout the course of infection: from colonization to loss of membrane integrity.

273
274 Development of a first generation IFMOC
275 Deconstructing fetal membranes into component cell types in the highly-controlled environment of the IFMOC will
276 provide the capacity to define the contribution of cell-type-specific signaling in response to infection. A major
277 advantage of the IFMOC over native ex vivo fetal membranes is the ability to tightly control cell populations to reduce
278 intra-sample variability (**Figure 4a**). Using microfluidics technologies, we can load, perfuse and stimulate each cell
279 type separately, and inject, recirculate or sample media from each compartment to maintain short or long-term culture
280 experimental designs. We have recently developed a universal dual-chamber microfluidic device using a high-
281 resolution porous membrane to establish a model of the non-gravid endometrial perivascular stroma, which has
282 provided the technology to establish a prototype of the first generation IFMOC. The microfabrication protocol
283 describes a PDMS two-chamber device divided by high-resolution semipermeable resin-based (1002F) transparent
284 membranes (67, 68). This membrane allows for both diffusion of molecules and passage of bacteria. It simultaneously
285 serves as basal lamina to compartmentalize each cell type.

286

287 As a proof of principle of the applications of this device, our group used primary human umbilical vein endothelial
288 cells (HUVECs) and endometrial stromal fibroblasts to model the perivascular stroma of the endometrium (68). Using
289 this microfluidic platform, we functionally measured barrier integrity and hormone sensitivity of the stromal
290 fibroblasts to undergo the process of decidualization in a long-term culture that mimicked the length and hormonal
291 changes associated with an idealized menstrual cycle. These results provide the potential of this microfluidic model
292 to maintain long-term cultures, mimics physiological responses to hormones, offers the potential to model endothelial
293 (or epithelial barrier function) and ensures sufficient sensitivity of the device to biochemically measure paracrine
294 molecules from the conditioned media (68). By applying these microfabrication and engineering technologies to the
295 cells that make up the fetal membrane, we can begin to integrate the first generation of the IFMOC to model the
296 compartmentalization of chorion/decidua and amniotic components of the fetal membrane in vitro while significantly
297 reducing the total volumes required to establish a co-culture. As mentioned, this reduction may provide a stronger
298 signaling network between compartmentalized cells and thus a more robust crosstalk. In the first series of experiments,
299 we have established co-cultures of amniotic epithelial cells and decidual cells using the two-chamber device (**Figure**
300 **4b**). Similarly, we have established amniotic epithelial cell co-cultures with trophoblasts (not shown). The goal
301 remains to compartmentalize each cell type to assess their individual contribution to fetal membrane homeostasis and
302 function, perhaps using existing multi-chambered devices as in the work by Sticker and colleagues (40). We have
303 initially focused the IFMOC to identify possible roles of the choriodecidua in regulating amniotic epithelial barrier
304 integrity in response to bacterial infections during CAM-induced PPROM. After optimization of co-culture of the
305 adherent primary cells inside the IFMOC, (i.e., decidual cells, chorionic trophoblasts, mesenchymal fibroblasts, and
306 amniotic epithelial cells) we will introduce macrophages, as a representative leukocyte, to assess the immunological
307 interaction in CAM. However, the capability to introduce other key immunological cells (e.g., neutrophils) is feasible
308 within this microfluidic platform.

309

310 Assessment of response to infection using IFMOC

311 To utilize the IFMOC as a qualitative and quantitative tool, we propose introducing electrical sensors or biological
312 reporters to assess for markers of alterations in metabolic activity (glucose consumption, extracellular acidification
313 and lactate production) and oxidative stress (superoxide generation). As a demonstration of feasibility of this approach,
314 we have used a microfluidic multianalyte microphysiometer (MAMP) to assess macrophage metabolic responses to

315 infection (69). On-chip metabolism can be measured by utilizing screen-printed electrodes for microphysiometry,
316 allowing real-time assessment of glucose utilization and lactate production, as above (70, 71). Inflammatory mediators
317 and metalloproteinases produced during CAM may lead to PPROM and can be quantified through secretion sampling
318 of spent media through direct enzyme linked immunoassay (ELISA) or high throughput proteomics such as protein
319 multiplex arrays, as well as fluorescence based biosensors and functional enzymatic activity assays (72, 73). As
320 described above, barrier integrity of the amniotic epithelium is important for membrane physiology and quantitative
321 models of this component of the fetal membrane will provide insight into the putative pathophysiological mechanisms
322 of PPROM. This approach will facilitate our ability to test our sub-hypothesis regarding the contribution of
323 macrophages to the pro- and anti-inflammatory balance and effect of inflammation on the integrity of the fetal
324 membrane.

325

326

327 **Discussion**

328 Maternal-fetal health is a field of research that is difficult to study due to both complex ethical and physiological
329 dilemmas, which have undermined our understanding of pregnancy related disease processes including preterm birth.
330 Specifically, the lack of translatable and physiological models that recapitulate human conditions hinder both the
331 ability to examine the mechanisms behind reproductive disorders, such CAM that result in PTB, and identify
332 therapeutic targets. As mentioned above, the fetal membrane plays an integral physiologic function to create a barrier
333 and encapsulate the embryo to form a maternal-fetal interface. Under the correct temporal signals, the orchestrated
334 rupture of this membrane is a necessary process during term deliveries. However, PPROM is a major contributor to
335 prematurity and accounts for approximately 25% (74) of all PTBs. To facilitate our understanding of the
336 pathophysiology of these diseases, we must identify the interactive contributions of the major cell types that comprise
337 the microenvironment of the fetal membrane. This objective requires more robust, quantitative models that recapitulate
338 the human condition. Current models to understand this issue include animal models, human ex vivo tissue approaches,
339 and in vitro cultures of human reproductive cells. Emerging approaches, including OoC and microfluidic technologies
340 offer innovative technologies to enhance the in vitro modelling of human organs and tissues. In recent years,
341 significant interest has been put forth by several agencies including the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), the
342 Human Placenta Project (National Institutes of Health)(75) and the National Center for Advancing Translational

343 Sciences (NCATS) to develop these organotypic models of the reproductive tract, including the gravid uterus. Thus,
344 we introduce the IFMOC as an approach to compartmentalize the cells that form the fetal membrane in order
345 understand the immune-endocrine mechanisms behind CAM and PPROM induced preterm birth.

346
347 The integration between engineering and reproductive biology promises to provide novel robust models as
348 instrumented tools for discovery research and predictive toxicology for environmental chemicals and developing
349 drugs. The ability to dissect the intercellular communication at the tissue-level *in vitro* offers the ability to examine
350 how, for example, endocrine disrupting chemicals, may alter the gravid uterus and drive it towards a pathogenic state
351 (19, 21). Akin to the *ex vivo* fetal membrane experimental models described above, an IFMOC will provide a “living”
352 model of the fetal membrane, including tissue polarity, analysis of cell specific paracrine networks, and membrane
353 barrier function (**Figure 2**). These functional quantitative and qualitative outcomes will facilitate our understanding
354 of bacterial colonization and transmittance from the maternal side to the amnion. Although infections are a common
355 causes of PTB, only a subset of women develop CAM-induced PTB, suggesting that other stressors are at play.

356
357 We and others have observed that environmental toxicants may cause disruptions of immune-endocrine pathways
358 during infection-related processes which may contribute to disease pathogenesis, although, human epidemiological
359 data has been less conclusive (76-78). Animals models have shown that environmental toxicant exposures, such as
360 endocrine disrupting chemicals such as 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzodioxin (TCDD or dioxin) enhance the inflammatory
361 response of pregnant dams resulting in a high incidence of spontaneous preterm birth in response to low level
362 lipopolysaccharide (LPS) stimuli compared to vehicle treated controls (79, 80). The mechanisms behind this
363 phenomenon remain elusive. An IFMOC may provide insight into the disparity between infectious stimuli and PTB
364 by identify adverse outcome pathways from interacting toxicant and CAM pathogenic mechanisms.

365
366 As mentioned, a key advantage of OoCs over current *in vitro* models include its microfluidic nature to maintain
367 individualized chamber perfusion, aid in maintaining long-term cultures, reduce total culture volumes and introduce
368 hemodynamic forces (e.g. shear stress) if desired. However, these microfluidic technologies also offer the possibility
369 to interconnect different OoCs in tandem to mimic the systemic communication between organs. As an example, by
370 interconnecting the IFMOC downstream of a liver organotypic model (e.g., liver-on-a-chip) it may provide a more

371 robust physiologic response by modelling how xenobiotics pass through the liver, where they may be metabolized,
372 prior to reaching the fetal membrane. These serial interactions between organs may continue to enhance the complexity
373 of in vitro systems and provide innovative modelling avenues for reproductive research.

374
375 Lastly, it is important to note that like any in vitro model, the OoCs do have intrinsic limitations in that they cannot
376 fully reproduce all biological and physiological processes. In our first generation IFMOC, we focused on the
377 macrophages as a representative immune cell that plays a critical role in both physiological and pathological processes
378 of the fetal membrane. However, additional or alternative cell types, such as neutrophils or natural killer cells, can be
379 incorporated within the platform to characterize their contribution to inflammatory processes in response to infections.
380 Some technical limitations involve the properties of polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS), the prototypical material from
381 which many of these devices are fabricated, including our first generation IFMOC. While PDMS serves as the gold
382 standard for microfabrication as a biocompatible and air permeable substrate, its hydrophobic nature is prone to absorb
383 lipophilic molecules (81, 82). This effect may hinder the immediate ability to perform detailed
384 pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic (PK/PD) analysis of certain drugs; nonetheless these OoCs can provide an initial
385 phenotypic screening tool until novel alternative materials become available. Lastly, the idealized IFMOC described
386 herein focuses primarily on paracrine communication as a means of crosstalk between cells; however, we must
387 consider that cell-cell contact and cell-ECM play a critical role to mediate tissue homeostasis. While these models
388 may not be able to replicate all physiologic conditions that are found in vivo, OoCs are an innovative emerging
389 technology with the promise of enhancing current human in vitro studies to generate more comprehensive
390 understanding into tissue homeostasis and disease pathogenesis.

391
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605 **Figure Legends**

606

607 **FIGURE 1. Chorioamnionitis and pregnancy complications.** (A.) A simplified model of the pregnant uterus, with
608 the fetal membranes (red) extending from the placenta and surrounding the developing fetus, which is suspended in
609 amniotic fluid. (B.) Bacteria are drawn colonizing the vagina, ascending through the cervical canal, and invading the
610 fetal membranes to provoke an inflammatory response (chorioamnionitis). Infection can spread to the fetus causing
611 fetal inflammatory response syndrome (FIRS) or the placenta (placentitis). Complications of chorioamnionitis include
612 preterm premature rupture of the fetal membranes (PPROM), preterm birth, stillbirth or neonatal sepsis.

613

614 **FIGURE 2. Histologic characterization of the fetal membrane structure.** The fetal membrane is composed of
615 representative layers that include the chorion (A.) primarily consisting of trophoblasts, the decidua (B.), and an
616 amniotic epithelial monolayer (C.). Resident immune cells, including, macrophages (D.), structural mesenchymal cells
617 and extracellular matrix make up the remainder of the microenvironment. The histologic dimensions of each
618 component was approximated by analyzing at least four representative images (original magnification 20X) from six
619 different 2mm punch biopsies of fetal membranes from human term non-laboring pregnancies using a protocol
620 approved by the Vanderbilt University Institutional Review Board. Analysis includes standard deviation of the sample.
621 Macrophages density assessed by measuring positive staining for CD68 by immunohistochemistry. For a
622 representative of the total leukocyte distributions, please refer to (44).

623

624 **FIGURE 3. Conceptualization for an instrumented fetal membrane on a chip (IFMOC).** Allosteric and functional
625 scaling are critical facets of tissue modeling in order to incorporate the appropriate cell types at physiologic ratios.
626 The idealized cellular microenvironment and tissue composition are summarized in (A.) as an aid to scale and develop
627 innovative models of the fetal membrane. (B.) A conceptualized schematic of an IFMOC may recapitulate the
628 microfluidic scaling and compartmentalize the cellular composition of the fetal membrane in a multi-culture system.
629 These models may provide insight into intercellular crosstalk and pathophysiology of CAM and PPRM.

630

631 **FIGURE 4. A prototype of the first generation IFMOC.** (A.) Fetal membranes are primarily composed of amnion
632 epithelial cells, chorion trophoblasts, residing leukocytes and decidual stromal cell. Our interest in macrophages stems

633 from a sub-hypothesis to examine their role in inflammatory processes of the fetal membrane, but it is important to
634 note, that any immune cell of interest can be incorporated within this system. (B.) A schematic of the development of
635 the first generation IFMOC using a two-chamber microfluidic device for analysis of inflammatory networks and
636 membrane barrier integrity. (C.) Immunofluorescent images of a compartmentalized co-culture of amnion epithelial
637 cells and primary decidualized stromal cells. Scale bar represents 400 μm , unless otherwise noted.

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