



The immunophenotype of amniotic fluid leukocytes in normal and complicated pregnancies

Nardhy Gomez-Lopez^{1,2,3}  | Roberto Romero^{1,4,5,6}  | Yi Xu^{1,2} | Derek Miller^{1,2,3} | Yaozhu Leng^{1,2} | Bogdan Panaitescu^{1,2} | Pablo Silva^{1,7} | Jonathan Faro² | Ali Alhousseini² | Navleen Gill² | Sonia S Hassan^{1,2,8} | Chaur-Dong Hsu²

¹Perinatology Research Branch, Division of Obstetrics and Maternal-Fetal Medicine, Division of Intramural Research, Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health, US Department of Health and Human Services, Bethesda, MD and Detroit, MI, USA

²Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Wayne State University School of Medicine, Detroit, MI, USA

³Department of Immunology, Microbiology and Biochemistry, Wayne State University School of Medicine, Detroit, MI, USA

⁴Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, USA

⁵Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI, USA

⁶Center for Molecular Medicine and Genetics, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI, USA

⁷Division of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Faculty of Medicine, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Santiago, Chile

⁸Department of Physiology, Wayne State University School of Medicine, Detroit, MI, USA

Correspondence

Nardhy Gomez-Lopez, Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Wayne State University School of Medicine, Perinatology Research Branch, NICHD/NIH/DHHS, Detroit, MI, USA.

Email: nardhy.gomez-lopez@wayne.edu and

Roberto Romero, Perinatology Research Branch, NICHD/NIH/DHHS, Wayne State University/Hutzel Women's Hospital Detroit, MI, USA.

E-mail: prbchiefstaff@med.wayne.edu

Problem: The immune cellular composition of amniotic fluid is poorly understood. Herein, we determined: 1) the immunophenotype of amniotic fluid immune cells during the second and third trimester in the absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation; 2) whether amniotic fluid T cells and ILCs display different phenotypical characteristics to that of peripheral cells; and 3) whether the amniotic fluid immune cells are altered in women with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation.

Method of Study: Amniotic fluid samples (n = 57) were collected from 15 to 40 weeks of gestation in women without intra-amniotic infection/inflammation. Samples from women with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation were also included (n = 9). Peripheral blood mononuclear cells from healthy adults were used as controls (n = 3). Immunophenotyping was performed using flow cytometry.

Results: In the absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation, the amniotic fluid contained several immune cell populations between 15 and 40 weeks. Among these immune cells: (i) T cells and ILCs were greater than B cells and natural killer (NK) cells between 15 and 30 weeks; (ii) T cells were most abundant between 15 and 30 weeks; (iii) ILCs were most abundant between 15 and 20 weeks; (iv) B cells were scarce between 15 and 20 weeks; yet, they increased and were constant after 20 weeks; (v) NK cells were greater between 15 and 30 weeks than at term; (vi) ILCs expressed high levels of ROR γ t, CD161, and CD103 (ie, group 3 ILCs); (vii) T cells expressed high levels of ROR γ t; (viii) neutrophils increased as gestation progressed; and (ix) monocytes/macrophages emerged after 20 weeks and remained constant until term. All of the amniotic fluid immune cells, except ILCs, were increased in the presence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation.

Conclusion: The amniotic fluid harbors a diverse immune cellular composition during normal and complicated pregnancies.

KEYWORDS

B cells, bacteria, fetal immunity, immune cells, innate lymphoid cells, intra-amniotic infection, intra-amniotic inflammation, leukocytes, macrophages, microbes, microbial invasion of the amniotic cavity, monocytes, mucosal immunity, neutrophils, natural killer (NK) cells, T cells

1 | INTRODUCTION

Amniotic fluid is the protective liquid that surrounds the fetus throughout gestation and, therefore, is essential for fetal development and maturation.¹ Besides containing nutrients and other factors required for fetal growth, the amniotic fluid provides mechanical cushioning and represents an immunological barrier against invading pathogens.^{1,2} The amniotic fluid is used as a diagnostic tool for assessing fetal well-being,³⁻⁷ lung maturity,⁸⁻¹¹ karyotype,¹²⁻¹⁵ and intra-amniotic infection and/or inflammation.¹⁶⁻⁷⁴ During early development, the amniotic fluid is an extension of the fetal extracellular matrix.⁷⁵ As the placenta and fetal vessels emerge, water and solutes from the maternal plasma diffuse into the amniotic fluid.⁷⁶ By 8 weeks of gestation, the urethra is formed and the fetal kidneys start producing urine.⁷⁷ Shortly after, fetal swallowing begins,⁷⁵ however, these processes do not contribute to the amniotic fluid volume until the second half of pregnancy.⁷⁷ After 25 weeks of gestation, the fetal skin is fully keratinized⁷⁸ and the amniotic fluid volume is determined by factors comprising the amniotic fluid circulation (fetal urine, respiratory system, gastrointestinal system, umbilical cord, and placenta).^{75,77-80}

The amniotic fluid contains soluble and cellular components.⁷⁷ The soluble components include carbohydrates, proteins, peptides, lipids, lactate, pyruvate, electrolytes, enzymes, and hormones, among others,⁸¹⁻⁹⁹ many of which act as the first line of defense against pathogens invading the amniotic cavity.¹⁰⁰⁻¹⁰⁶ The cellular components of the amniotic fluid include different cell types derived from exfoliating surfaces of the developing fetus, including the skin, respiratory system, urinary tract, and gastrointestinal tract as well as stem cells.¹⁰⁷⁻¹¹⁵ Some cytological studies have shown that, in the absence of infection, the amniotic fluid also includes a low number of innate immune cells including macrophages,^{110,111,116-118} neutrophils,^{23,69} and the recently described innate lymphoid cells or ILCs.¹¹⁹ Yet, the number of macrophages and/or ILCs is increased in pathological conditions in which fetal organs are exposed to the amniotic fluid (eg, neural tube defects^{118,120-125} and gastroschisis^{118,126-128}). The number of amniotic fluid neutrophils, on the other hand, is a useful marker for intra-amniotic inflammation.^{23,27,67-69,129-132} However, in the absence of infection and/or inflammation or birth defects, the immune cellular composition of the amniotic fluid is still poorly understood.

The aims of this study were (i) to determine the immunophenotype of amniotic fluid immune cells during the second and third trimester, (ii) to investigate whether amniotic fluid T cells and ILCs display different phenotypical characteristics from that of peripheral cells; and (iii) to evaluate whether the amniotic fluid immune cells are altered in women with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Study population

This was a cross-sectional study of patients who underwent transabdominal amniocentesis due to clinical indications or amniocentesis

during a cesarean delivery. Patients were enrolled at Hutzel Women's Hospital of the Detroit Medical Center. The first group of patients ($n = 57$, absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation) was selected based on the following exclusion criteria: a positive amniotic fluid culture,^{20,39,54} a white blood cell (WBC) count >50 cells/mm,²³ a glucose concentration <14 mg/dL,²² an amniotic fluid interleukin (IL)-6 concentration >2.6 ng/mL,³⁹ a positive Gram stain,¹⁷ and/or a bacterial live/dead staining,⁶⁸ and samples from women with an intra-uterine fetal demise and/or birth defects. A second group of patients with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation was also included ($n = 9$). Intra-amniotic infection/inflammation was defined as the presence of microbial invasion of the amniotic cavity (MIAC) with intra-amniotic inflammation.^{39,47,48,50-56} All of the samples with visible blood contamination were excluded from this study. Viable cell numbers were determined using an automatic cell counter (Cellometer Auto 2000; Nexcelom Bioscience, Lawrence, MA, USA).

All patients provided written informed consent to donate additional amniotic fluid for research purposes, according to protocols approved by the Institutional Review Boards of the Detroit Medical Center (Detroit, MI, USA), Wayne State University and the Perinatology Research Branch, an intramural program of the Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health, U. S. Department of Health and Human Services (NICHD/NIH/DHHS).

2.2 | Sample collection

Amniotic fluid was retrieved by transabdominal amniocentesis under antiseptic conditions using a 22-gauge needle monitored by ultrasound. Amniotic fluid was also retrieved by amniocentesis during cesarean deliveries under antiseptic conditions. Amniotic fluid samples were transported to the clinical laboratory in a capped sterile syringe and were cultured for aerobic and anaerobic bacteria as well as for genital Mycoplasmas.^{20,23,39,54} Shortly after collection, a WBC count in amniotic fluid samples was determined using a hemocytometer chamber, according to methods previously described.²³ Glucose concentration²² was also determined and a Gram stain¹⁷ was performed in amniotic fluid samples. Cultures, WBC counts, glucose concentrations, and Gram stains were not performed in amniotic fluid samples collected during cesarean section, as these samples were collected for research purposes only. However, both IL-6 concentration³⁹ and the presence of bacteria (bacterial live/dead staining⁶⁸) were assessed in all of the amniotic fluid samples.

2.3 | Determination of interleukin-6 in the amniotic fluid

IL-6 concentration in the amniotic fluid was determined using a sensitive and specific enzyme immunoassay obtained from R&D Systems (Minneapolis, MN, USA). IL-6 concentration was determined by interpolation from the standard curves. The inter- and intra-assay coefficients of variation for IL-6 were 8.7% and 4.6%, respectively. The detection limit of the IL-6 assay was 0.09 pg/mL.

2.4 | Detection of live/dead bacteria in the amniotic fluid

The presence of bacteria in the amniotic fluid ($n = 66$) was evaluated as previously described,^{68,133} using the LIVE/DEAD BacLight™ Bacterial Viability Kit (Cat# L7007, Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY, USA) in a sterile biosafety cabinet. Briefly, 100 μ L of amniotic fluid were mixed with 900 μ L of sterile 1 \times phosphate buffered saline (PBS; Life Technologies). Three microliters of the dye mix (Component A and B were mixed at a 1:1 ratio) were added to the cell suspension and incubated for 15 min at room temperature in the dark. Next, the cells were centrifuged at 10 000 $\times g$ for 5 min and the supernatant was discarded. The cell pellet was then re-suspended in 5 μ L of 1 \times PBS, and a slide smear was prepared and air-dried. Lastly, the slide was gently rinsed with 1 \times PBS and mounted with ProLong Diamond Antifade Mountant with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole or DAPI (Life Technologies). The presence of bacteria was evaluated using an Olympus BX 60 fluorescence microscope with an Olympus DP71 camera and DP Controller Software (Olympus Corporation, Tokyo, Japan).

2.5 | Isolation of peripheral blood mononuclear cells

Peripheral blood samples were collected by venipuncture into EDTA-containing tubes from healthy individuals ($n = 3$). Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated using the density gradient reagent Ficoll-Paque Plus (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Piscataway, NJ, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

2.6 | Immunophenotyping

Amniotic fluid samples (5–6 mL; $n = 66$) were passed through a sterile 15 μ m filter (Cat#43-50015-03; pluriSelect Life Science, Leipzig, Germany) to remove most of the epithelial cells and centrifuged at 200 $\times g$ for 5 minutes at room temperature. The resulting amniotic fluid leukocyte pellet or PBMCs were re-suspended in 1 mL of 1 \times PBS and stained with the BD Horizon Fixable Viability Stain 510 dye (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA), prior to incubation with extracellular monoclonal antibodies (Table S1). Cells were washed in 1 \times PBS and incubated with 20 μ L of human FcR blocking reagent (Miltenyi Biotec, San Diego, CA, USA) in 80 μ L of BD FACS stain buffer (Cat#554656; BD Biosciences) for 10 minutes at 4°C. Next, cells were incubated with extracellular fluorochrome-conjugated anti-human monoclonal antibodies for 30 minutes at 4°C in the dark (Table S1). Following extracellular staining, cells were fixed and permeabilized using the FoxP3 transcription factor fixation/permeabilization solution (Cat#00-5523-00; eBioscience, San Diego, CA, USA). Following fixation and permeabilization, cells were washed with 1 \times FoxP3 permeabilization buffer (eBioscience), re-suspended in 50 μ L of the same buffer, and stained with intracellular antibodies for 30 minutes at 4°C in the dark (Table S1). Isotope controls were also prepared. Stained cells were then washed with 1 \times permeabilization buffer, re-suspended in 0.5 mL of BD FACS stain buffer, and

acquired using the BD LSR Fortessa flow cytometer (BD Bioscience) and BD FACSDiva 6.0 software (BD Bioscience). The analysis was performed and the figures were generated using the FlowJo v10 software (FlowJo, Ashland, OR, USA). The absolute number of cells was determined using CountBright absolute counting beads (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR, USA).

2.7 | Imaging flow cytometry of amniotic fluid leukocytes

Amniotic fluid samples (1–10 mL; $n = 5$) were passed through a sterile 15 μ m filter to remove most of the epithelial cells and centrifuged at 200 $\times g$ for 5 minutes at room temperature. The cell pellet (mostly leukocytes) was washed with 1 \times PBS, re-suspended in 80 μ L of BD FACS stain buffer containing 20 μ L of human FcR blocking reagent (Miltenyi Biotec), and incubated for 10 min at 4°C. Next, the amniotic fluid leukocytes were stained separately with the following two panels of extracellular fluorochrome-conjugated anti-human antibodies (BD Biosciences) for 30 minutes at 4°C in the dark. One antibody panel included CD45-APC (Clone HI30, Cat#555485), CD56-PE (clone NCAM16.2, Cat#340363), CD14- Alexa Fluor® 488 (clone M ϕ P9, Cat#562689) and CD15-PE-CF594 (clone W6D3, Cat#562372). The second panel included CD45-APC (Clone HI30), CD19- PE (clone HIB19, Cat#555413), CD3- Alexa Fluor® 488 (clone UCHT1, Cat#557694), and CD127-PE-CF594 (clone HIL-7R-M21, Cat#562397). Following antibody staining, amniotic fluid leukocytes were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, PA, USA) for 20 minutes at room temperature. Amniotic fluid cells were then rehydrated in 1 \times PBS and stained with 3 μ mol/L DAPI (Cat#D9542, Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) in a nuclear permeabilization buffer (Cat#00-8333-56, eBiosciences) for 15 minutes at room temperature. Lastly, amniotic fluid cells were suspended in 50 μ L of BD FACS stain buffer containing 1 mg/mL EDTA (Cat#15575-038, Life Technologies). Samples were acquired using an ImageStream®X Mk II imaging cytometer (Amnis, Seattle, WA, USA) at the Microscopy, Imaging, and Cytometry Resources Core at the Wayne State University School of Medicine (Detroit, MI, USA) (<http://micr.med.wayne.edu/>). Images were obtained at a magnification of 60 \times using the low flow rate/high sensitivity INSPIRE software (Amnis) and the following lasers: 405, 488, and 642 nm. Acquired images were analyzed using the IDEALS 6.2 software (Amnis).

2.8 | Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS v19 software (SPSS Inc., IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY, USA). Kruskal-Wallis tests followed by Mann-Whitney *U*-tests were used for unpaired comparisons among study groups. Wilcoxon signed rank tests were used for paired comparisons. t-SNE plots were generated using the FlowJo v10 software. A *P*-value ≤ 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Characteristics of the study population

A total of 66 amniotic fluid samples from women who underwent transabdominal amniocentesis before delivery or during a cesarean delivery were included in this study. Demographic and clinical characteristics of the study population are displayed in Tables 1 and 2. Most of the amniotic fluid samples were collected from African-American women (Table 1). The number of amniotic fluid samples per group is displayed in Table 2. Amniotic fluid samples obtained between 15 and 20 weeks of gestation were mostly collected from women who underwent an amniocentesis for fetal karyotyping and delivered a term neonate (Table 2). Amniotic fluid samples obtained between 20 and 36 weeks of gestation were collected from women who underwent an amniocentesis for the detection of intra-amniotic infection and/or inflammation (negative) and delivered a preterm neonate (Table 2). Amniotic fluid samples obtained between 36 and 40 weeks of gestation were mostly collected from women during the cesarean delivery procedure and who delivered a term neonate (Table 2). Amniotic fluid samples from women with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation were collected between 18 and 40 weeks of gestation (Table 2).

TABLE 1 Demographic characteristics of the study population

	Study population (n = 66)
Maternal age, years; median (IQR)	25.5 (23-29.3)
Body mass index, kg/m ² ; median (IQR)	30.8 (24.6-38.6)
Primiparity (%)	18.8
Race (%)	
African-American	89.1
Caucasian	4.7
Asian	3.1
Other	3.1
Smoking (%)	21.9

IQR, interquartile range.

TABLE 2 Clinical characteristics of the study population

Groups	Number of samples	Gestational age at amniocentesis (weeks; median [IQR])	IL-6 concentration (ng/mL; median [IQR])	Gestational age at delivery (weeks; median [IQR])
Absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation (wks)				
15-20	6	17.7 (16.4-18.8)	0.3 (0.1-0.8)	38.4 (38.4-39.3)
20-30	8	23.2 (21.6-27.2)	0.5 (0.2-0.9)	28.6 (24.5-35.6)
30-36	9	32.3 (31.4-33.3)	0.3 (0.2-0.4)	33.9 (32.3-36)
37-40	34	39 (38.9-39.3)	0.3 (0.3-0.7)	39 (38.9-39.3)
Presence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation (18-40 wks)	9	38.1 (22.3-39.6)	70.6 (6.4-118.7)	38.1 (22.7-39.6)

IQR, interquartile range.

3.2 | The immunophenotype of amniotic fluid leukocytes during the second and third trimester in the absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation

First, we investigated the diversity of amniotic fluid leukocytes during the second and third trimester. Figure 1 shows representative t-SNE plots demonstrating that different immune cell populations are present throughout gestation. T cells and ILCs were the most abundant immune cell populations between 15 and 20 weeks of gestation (Figure 1A). Between 20 and 30 weeks of gestation, B cells, monocytes, and neutrophils emerged, while T cells were still abundant and ILCs were drastically reduced (Figure 1B). Between 30 and 36 weeks of gestation, neutrophils and monocytes were greater than other cell types, and B cells were lower than earlier in gestation (Figure 1C). Lastly, neutrophils were the larger immune cell population between 37 and 40 weeks of gestation; yet, monocytes were still abundant and B cells were detectable (Figure 1D).

3.3 | Lymphoid cells in the amniotic fluid during the second and third trimester in the absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation

Lymphoid cells were abundant between 15 and 30 weeks of gestation (Figure 1A,B); therefore, we first determined which lymphoid subset was more abundant during this period. The gating strategy used to identify lymphoid cells in the amniotic fluid is shown in Figure 2A. Briefly, total leukocytes were identified as CD45⁺ cells within the singlets and viability gates. Identified lymphoid cells in the amniotic fluid included: T cells (CD45⁺CD15⁻CD14⁻CD19⁻CD3⁺ cells), B cells (CD45⁺CD15⁻CD14⁻CD3⁻CD19⁺ cells), NK cells (CD45⁺CD15⁻CD14⁻CD19⁻CD3⁻CD94⁺CD56⁺ cells), and ILCs (CD45⁺CD15⁻CD14⁻CD19⁻CD3⁻CD94⁻CD127⁺ cells) (Figure 2A). A previous report showed that most of the amniotic fluid ILCs expressed CD56;¹¹⁹ therefore, we detected both CD56⁺ and CD56⁻ ILCs (Figure 2A). Flow cytometry quantification revealed that T cells and ILCs were more abundant than B cells and NK cells in the amniotic fluid of women between 15 and 30 weeks of gestation (Figure 2B). In addition, we found that the CD56⁺ and CD56⁻ ILC subsets were present in similar numbers (Figure 2C).

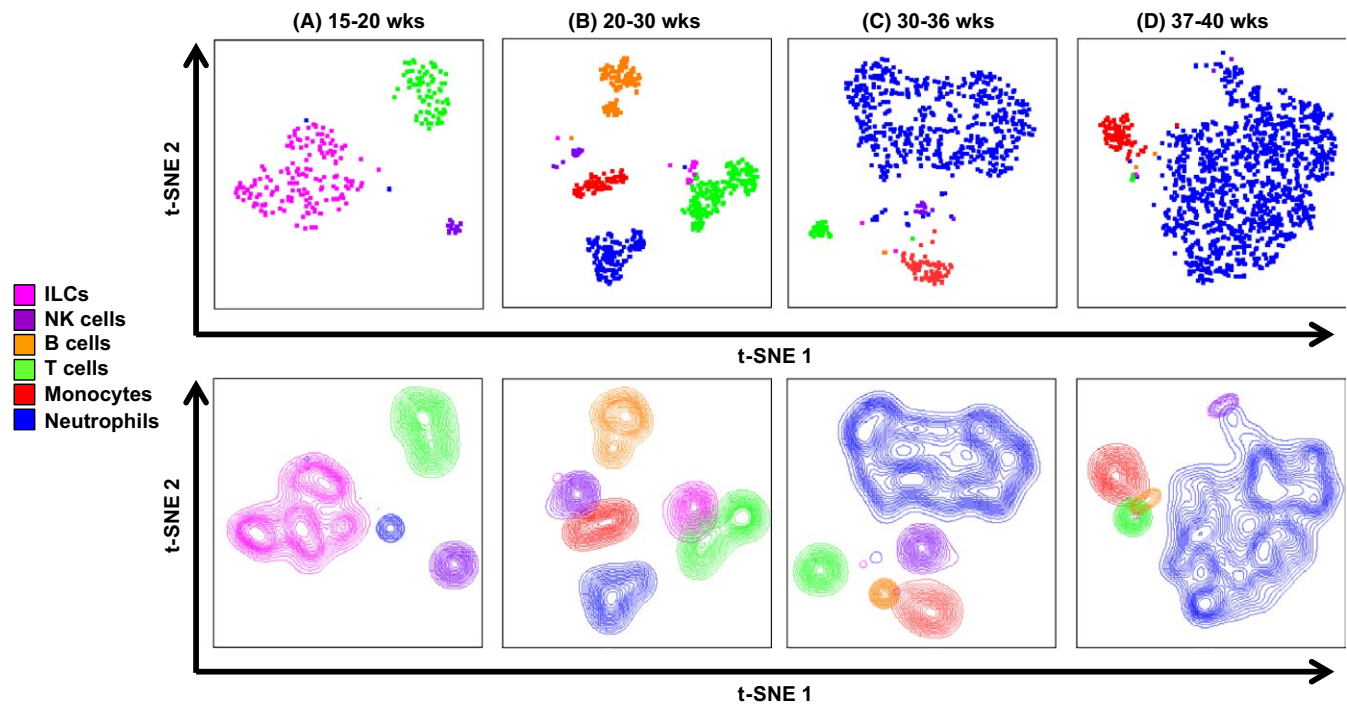


FIGURE 1 The immunophenotype of amniotic fluid leukocytes during the second and third trimester. Flow cytometry analysis of amniotic fluid leukocytes was performed using t-SNE plots. Dot plots (upper row) and contour plots (lower row) represent immune cell diversity and abundance in amniotic fluid samples collected at A, 15-20; B, 20-30; C, 30-36, or D, 37-40 weeks of gestation. Pink = ILCs, purple = NK cells, orange = B cells, green = T cells, red = monocytes/macrophages, and blue = neutrophils

These data indicate that T cells and ILCs are the most abundant populations in the amniotic fluid of women between 15 and 30 weeks of gestation in the absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation.

Next, we determined the abundance of all of the lymphoid cell populations during the second and third trimester (Figure 3). Amniotic fluid T cells were more abundant between 20 and 30 weeks of gestation than after 37 weeks of gestation (Figure 3A). A flow cytometry image of an amniotic fluid T cell during the second trimester is shown in Figure 3B. Amniotic fluid ILCs were most abundant between 15 and 20 weeks of gestation (Figure 3C), as previously reported.¹¹⁹ Yet, their number reduced after 20 and 30 weeks of gestation and remained low after 37 weeks of gestation (Figure 3C). A flow cytometry image of an amniotic fluid ILC during the second trimester is shown in Figure 3D. Amniotic fluid B cells did not significantly change during the second and third trimester; yet, their lowest number was observed between 15 and 20 weeks of gestation (Figure 3E). A flow cytometry image of an amniotic fluid B cell during the second trimester is shown in Figure 3F. Amniotic fluid NK cells were more abundant between 15 and 30 weeks of gestation than at term (>37 weeks; Figure 3G). A flow cytometry image of an amniotic fluid NK cell during the second trimester is shown in Figure 3H. Together, these data indicate that amniotic fluid T cells and ILCs, followed by NK cells, are most abundant between 15 and 30 weeks of gestation. These results also show that although B cells are low in number such cells are a constant immune cell population in the amniotic fluid during the second and third trimester in the absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation.

3.4 | Immunophenotyping of ILCs and T cells in the amniotic fluid in the absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation

A previous study reported that most of the amniotic fluid ILCs belong to the group 3 as they express ROR γ t and CD161 as well as produce high levels of IL-17 and TNF α .¹¹⁹ It was also shown that these fetal group 3 ILCs express CD103 (a hallmark of intraepithelial cells) and were present in the amniotic fluid but not in the peripheral circulation.¹¹⁹ We, therefore, investigated whether ILCs express ROR γ t, CD161, and CD103 in the amniotic fluid and peripheral blood of healthy adults (Figure 4A). Most of the amniotic fluid ILCs expressed ROR γ t as well as were double positive for CD161 and CD103 (ie, group 3 ILCs) (Figure 4B,C); however, the expression of these markers was minimal in peripheral ILCs (Figure 4B,C). Flow cytometric quantification consistently revealed that the proportions of CD56+/CD56-ROR γ t+ ILCs (Figure 4D,E) and CD56+/CD56-CD161+CD103+ ILCs (Figure 4F,G) were higher in the amniotic fluid than in the peripheral circulation.

T cells were abundant in the amniotic fluid of women between 15 and 30 weeks of gestation; therefore, we determined whether such cells expressed the same markers as ILCs. Similar to amniotic fluid ILCs, a high proportion of amniotic fluid T cells (Figure 5A) expressed ROR γ t (Figure 5B). The proportion of ROR γ t+ T cells was greater in the amniotic fluid than in the peripheral circulation (Figure 5D). Distinct from amniotic fluid ILCs, only ~30% of amniotic fluid T cells were double positive for CD161 and CD103 (Figure 5C).

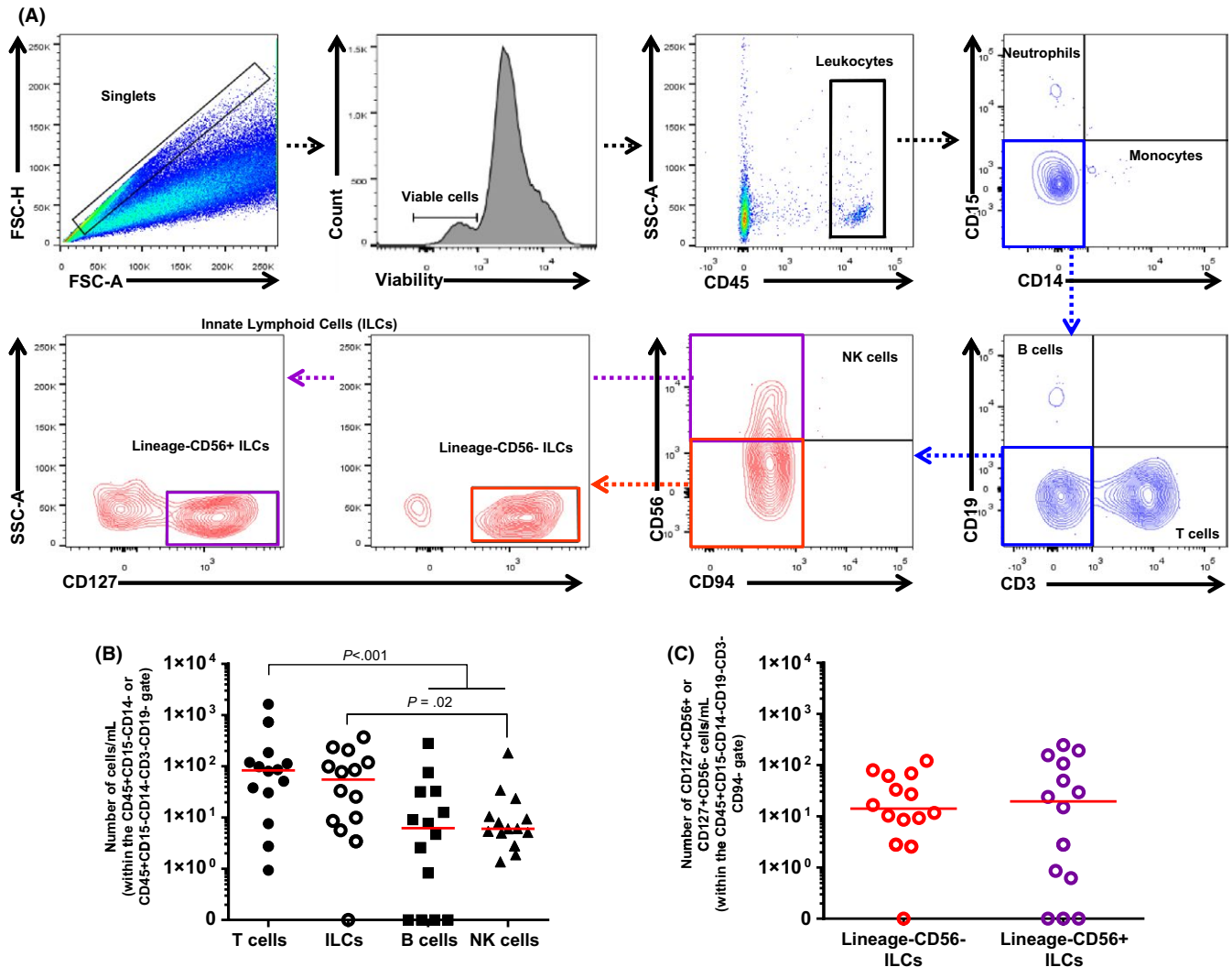


FIGURE 2 T cells and ILCs are the dominant immune cell subsets in the amniotic fluid during the second trimester. A, Flow cytometry gating strategy for immunophenotyping of immune cells. Immune cells were initially gated within the viability gate and CD45+ gate followed by lineage gating (CD15, CD14, CD19, CD3, CD94, CD56, CD127). B, Number of T cells, ILCs, B cells, and NK cells in the amniotic fluid of women at 15-30 weeks of gestation. C, Number of CD56- or CD56+ ILCs in the amniotic fluid of women at 15-30 weeks of gestation. Red lines represent the medians. $n = 14$ per group

Yet, the proportion of CD161+CD103+ T cells was higher in the amniotic fluid than in the peripheral circulation (Figure 5E).

Taken together, these results indicate that group 3 ILCs and ROR γ t+ T cells are present in the amniotic fluid between 15 and 30 weeks of gestation in the absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation.

3.5 | Myeloid cells in the amniotic fluid during the second and third trimester in the absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation

Next, we quantified the number of myeloid cells in the amniotic fluid of women during the second and third trimester. The gating strategy used to identify neutrophils and monocytes in the amniotic fluid is shown in Figure 6A. Briefly, total leukocytes were identified

as CD45+ cells within the singlets and viability gates. Identified myeloid cells in the amniotic fluid included neutrophils (CD45+CD14-CD15+ cells) and monocytes/macrophages (CD45+CD15-CD14+ cells) (Figure 6A). The number of amniotic fluid neutrophils increased gradually from 15 weeks to term gestation (Figure 6B). The number of amniotic fluid monocytes/macrophages was greater between 20 and 40 weeks compared to 15-20 weeks of gestation (Figure 6C). Yet, the number of these myeloid cells did not peak at term pregnancy as occurred with amniotic fluid neutrophils (Figure 6B vs C). Lastly, neutrophils were more abundant than monocytes/macrophages in the amniotic fluid of women at term (Figure 7A). A flow cytometry image of an amniotic fluid neutrophil or monocyte/macrophage during the third trimester is shown in Figure 7B or C, respectively. These data show the number of amniotic fluid neutrophils increases as gestation progresses, and that monocyte/macrophages are a constant

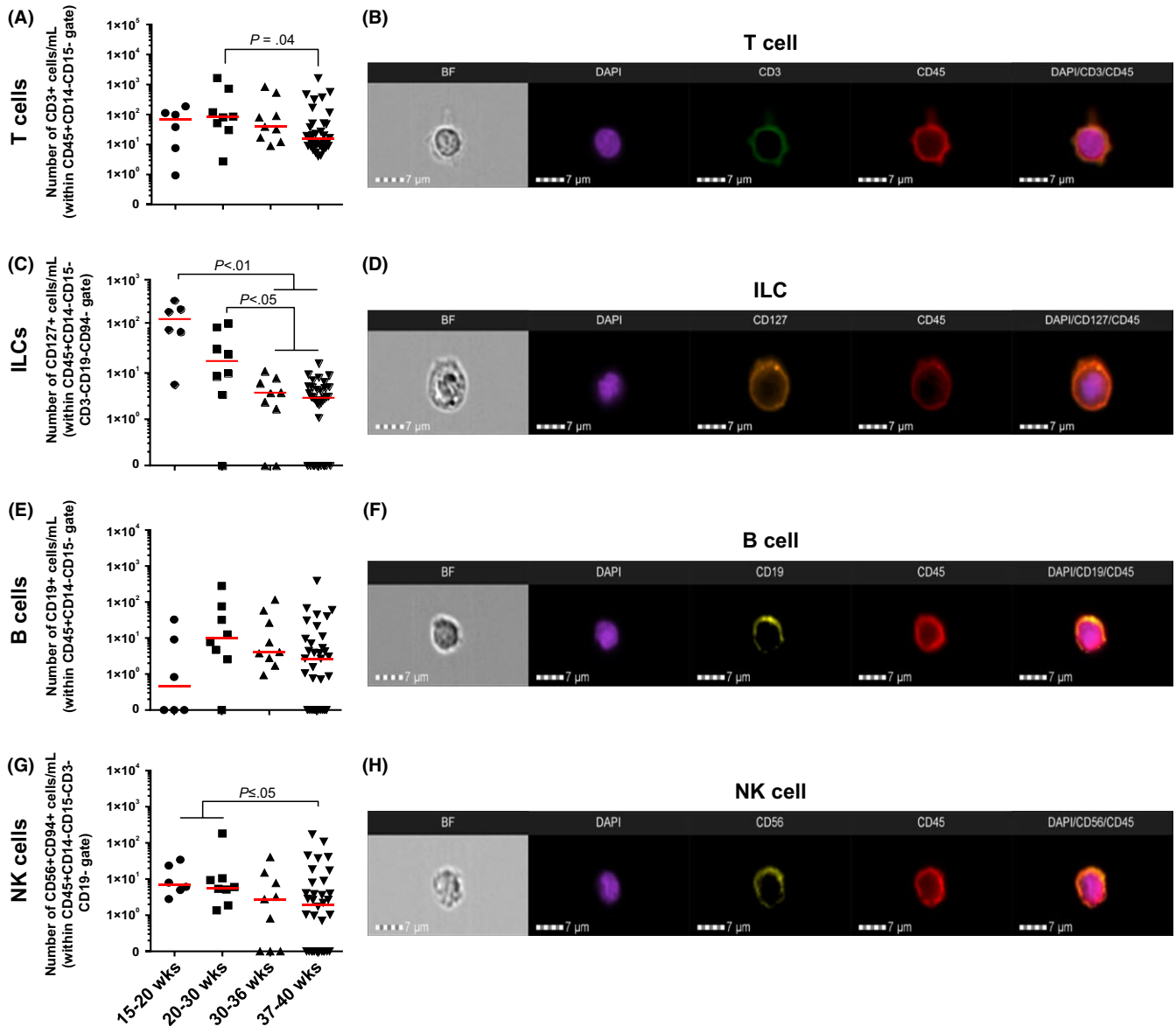


FIGURE 3 Number of lymphoid cells in the amniotic fluid during the second and third trimester. The number of T cells (A), ILCs (C), B cells (E), and NK cells (G) in the amniotic fluid of women at 15-20, 20-30, 30-36, or 37-40 weeks of gestation. Red lines represent the medians. Imaging flow cytometry analysis showing (from Left to Right): BF, bright field imaging, nuclear (DAPI) staining, CD3+ (B), CD127+ (D), CD19+ (F), or CD56+ (H) expression, as well as CD45+ expression, and the merged fluorescence image of an amniotic fluid T, ILC, B, or NK cell, respectively. $n = 6-34$ per group

immune cell population after 20 weeks of gestation in the absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation.

3.6 | Immune cells in the amniotic fluid of women with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation

Previous studies have shown that intra-amniotic infection is characterized by the infiltration of neutrophils and monocytes/macrophages.^{23,27,67-69,129-132} It was recently suggested that amniotic fluid ILCs were also implicated in regulating intra-amniotic infection and inflammation in preterm gestations.¹¹⁹ Therefore, we evaluated whether amniotic fluid immune cells were increased in women with intra-amniotic

infection/inflammation. All of the amniotic fluid immune cells, except ILCs, were increased in cases with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation (Figure 8A-F). The numbers of ILCs in the amniotic fluid collected at 18-22 weeks of gestation from women with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation were similar to those in gestational age-matched amniotic fluid samples from women without intra-amniotic infection/inflammation (Figure S1). The numbers of neutrophils and monocytes/macrophages were greater than T cells, ILCs, B cells, and NK cells in the amniotic fluid of women with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation (Figure 8E vs. A-D&F). Collectively, these data indicate that all of the amniotic fluid immune cells, except ILCs, participate in the inflammatory response implicated in intra-amniotic infection/inflammation.

Amniotic fluid innate lymphoid cells (ILCs)

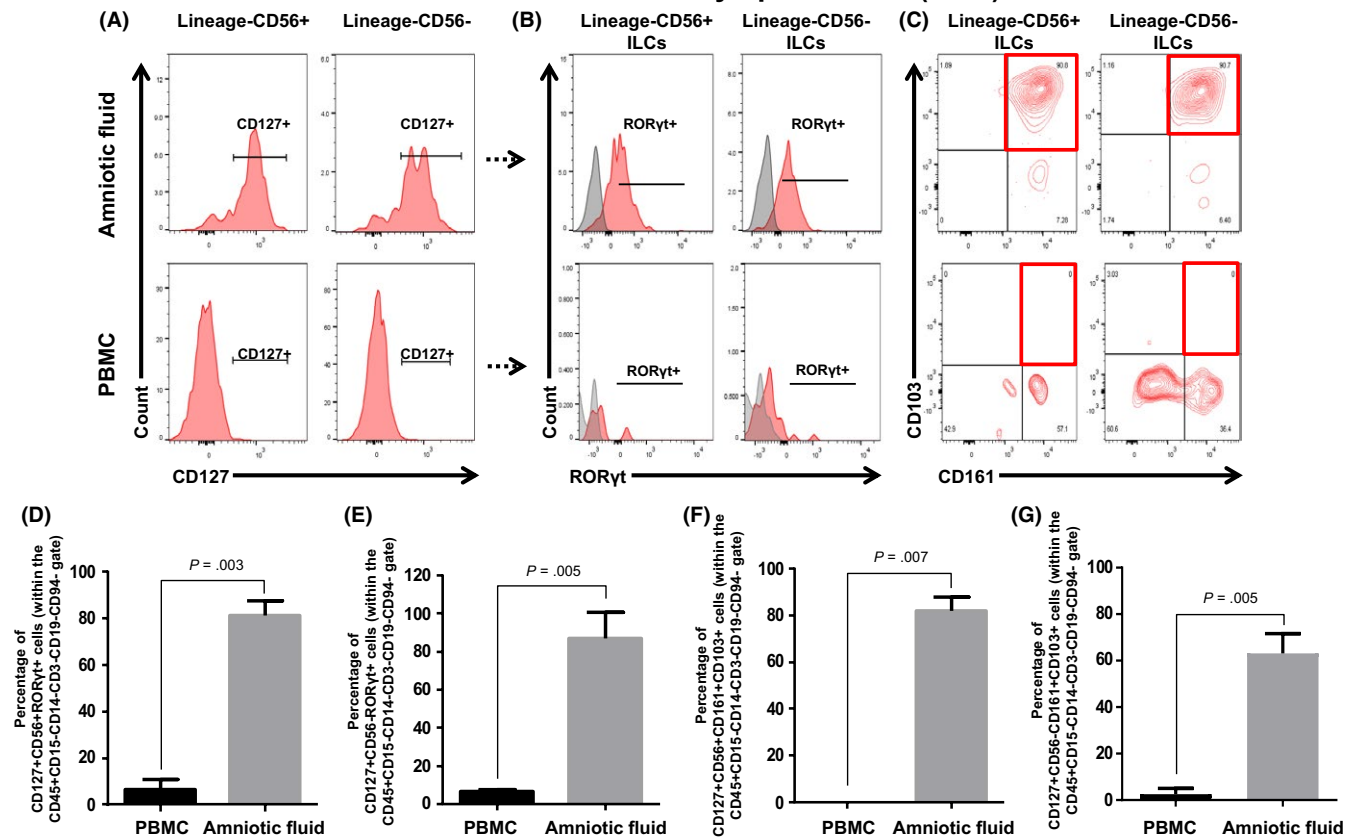


FIGURE 4 Amniotic fluid ILCs expressing ROR γ t, CD161, and CD103. A, Mononuclear cells were isolated from the amniotic fluid of women at 15-30 weeks of gestation or the peripheral blood (PBMCs) from healthy adults. Flow cytometry gating strategy for immunophenotyping of CD127+ ILCs within the lineage negative (Lineage-; CD15-CD14-CD3-CD19-CD94-) and CD56 positive or negative (CD56 \pm) gates. B, Flow cytometry gating strategy for immunophenotyping of ROR γ t+ ILCs within the Lineage-CD56+ CD127+ or Lineage-CD56-CD127+ gates. C, Flow cytometry gating strategy for immunophenotyping of CD103+CD161+ ILCs within the Lineage-CD56+CD127+ or Lineage-CD56-CD127+ gates. D, Percentage of CD127+CD56+ ROR γ t+ ILCs in PBMCs or the amniotic fluid. E, Percentage of CD127+CD56- ROR γ t+ ILCs in PBMCs or the amniotic fluid. F, Percentage of CD127+CD56+CD161+CD103+ ILCs in PBMCs or the amniotic fluid. G, Percentage of CD127+CD56-CD161+CD103+ ILCs in PBMCs or the amniotic fluid. $n = 3-11$ per group

4 | DISCUSSION

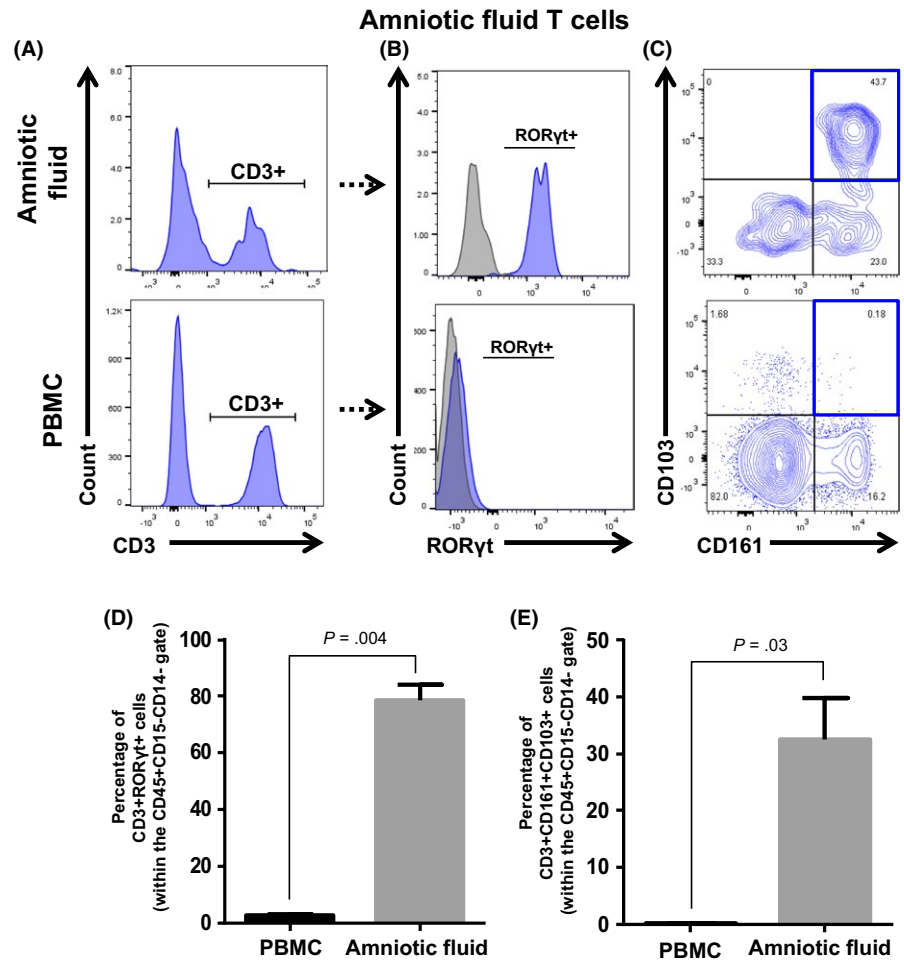
Principal findings: In the absence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation: (i) several immune cell populations were detected in the amniotic fluid during the second and third trimester; (ii) T cells and ILCs were greater than B cells and NK cells in the amniotic fluid between 15 and 30 weeks of gestation; (iii) amniotic fluid T cells were most abundant between 15 and 30 weeks of gestation; (iv) amniotic fluid ILCs were most abundant between 15 and 20 weeks of gestation; (v) amniotic fluid B cells did not significantly vary during the second and third trimester, yet, they were scarce between 15 and 20 weeks of gestation; (vi) amniotic fluid NK cells were greater between 15 and 30 weeks of gestation than at term; (vii) amniotic fluid ILCs expressed high levels of ROR γ t, CD161, and CD103 (ie, group 3 ILCs); (viii) amniotic fluid T-cells expressed high levels of ROR γ t; (ix) amniotic fluid neutrophils increased as gestation progressed; (x) amniotic fluid monocytes/macrophages emerged after 20 weeks of gestation and remained constant until term; and (xi) neutrophils were more abundant than monocytes/macrophages in

the amniotic fluid of women at term. Lastly, we found that all of the amniotic fluid immune cells, except ILCs, were increased in the presence of intra-amniotic infection/inflammation.

4.1 | Amniotic fluid innate lymphoid cells (ILCs)

Recently, it was shown that group 3 ILCs are present in the human amniotic fluid between 15 and 16 weeks of gestation (second trimester).¹¹⁹ Such innate lymphocytes expressed the intraepithelial marker CD103, suggesting that they were derived from the fetal intestine.¹¹⁹ This concept was supported by the fact that group 3 ILCs were found in the fetal small intestine and lung, and these cells displayed a similar phenotype to that detected in the amniotic fluid.¹¹⁹ Herein, we extended these findings by demonstrating that the human amniotic fluid contains group 3 ILCs (ROR γ t+CD161+CD103+ ILCs) during the second and third trimester; yet, their number is highest earlier in pregnancy.

Previous studies have shown that fetal tissues include different subsets of ILCs. In humans, both ILC2-like (Lin-CRTH2+CD127+ cells) and ILC3-like (Lin-CD127+NKp44+ expressing ROR γ t) subsets were



found in the fetal gut at 14-17 weeks of gestation.¹³⁴ In addition, group 2 ILCs (GATA3+ ILCs) have been detected in the umbilical cord blood of term neonates.¹³⁵ In mice, fetal ROR γ t+ ILC progenitors mature in the fetal liver environment^{136,137} in a Notch2-dependent manner.¹³⁸ However, non-hepatic ILC progenitors may exist in the fetal intestine.¹³⁹ While group 3 ILCs exist in the fetal murine intestine early in pregnancy, a particular subset that is only a fraction of murine intestinal ILCs seems to rapidly expand shortly after birth,¹⁴⁰ which may be related to the colonization of the fetal gut by commensal microbes. Moreover, fetuses with gastroschisis had increased group 2 and group 3 ILCs in the sections of intestine exposed to the amniotic fluid, suggesting that these cells participate in the inflammatory environment that leads to fetal bowel damage.¹²⁸

Herein, we showed that amniotic fluid ILCs were not significantly increased in women with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation between 18 and 22 weeks of gestation; yet, this finding needs to be further investigated using a larger number of samples. Collectively, these studies demonstrate that ILCs, in particular, group 3 ILCs, are an important immune cell subset in both the amniotic cavity and the developing fetus.

4.2 | Amniotic fluid T cells

To our knowledge, we are the first to report that T cells are an abundant immune cell population in the amniotic fluid between 15 and

30 weeks of gestation (mostly in the second trimester). It is likely that these adaptive immune cells are derived from the fetus as most of the amniotic fluid leukocytes in early gestation are of fetal origin.⁶⁷ In addition, amniotic fluid T-cells expressed high levels of ROR γ t similar to what was observed in amniotic fluid group 3 ILCs of fetal origin.¹¹⁹

In humans, T cells are detected in the fetal lymphoid tissues as early as 10 weeks of gestation.¹⁴¹ By 12-14 weeks of gestation, T cells are found in the fetal intestine, spleen, and lymph nodes; yet, they are more abundant by the end of the second trimester.¹⁴² At this time, secondary fetal lymphoid tissues contain a high proportion of CD4+CD25+FoxP3+ regulatory T cells or Tregs^{143,144} that are mostly generated in response to maternal alloantigens.¹⁴⁵ Fetal Tregs strongly suppress both natural fetal T-cell activity¹⁴⁴ and responses against maternal antigens to prevent maternal-fetal rejection.^{143,144,146} The induction of maternal-specific fetal Tregs is orchestrated by transforming growth factor β (TGF- β), which is produced by the fetal lymph nodes.¹⁴⁵

Th17 cells have also been identified in the cord blood of term neonates; yet, their proportions are higher in preterm neonates exposed to histologic chorioamnionitis.¹⁴⁷ Th17 cells are characterized by the expression of ROR γ t and the production of IL-17.¹⁴⁸ Indeed, Tregs can promote a Th17-like phenotype in the context of inflammation¹⁴⁹ and Tregs can express ROR γ t to enhance their suppressive

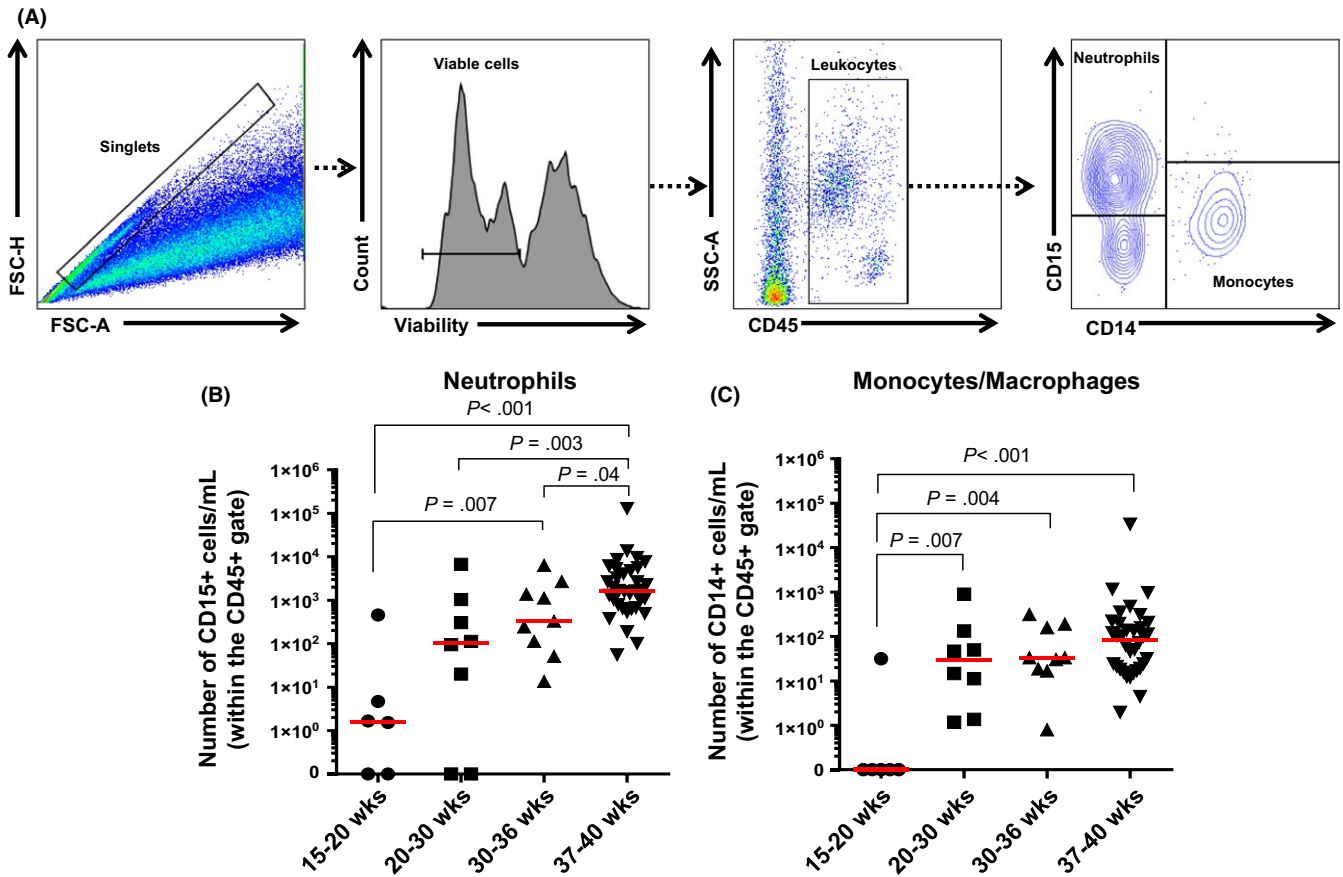
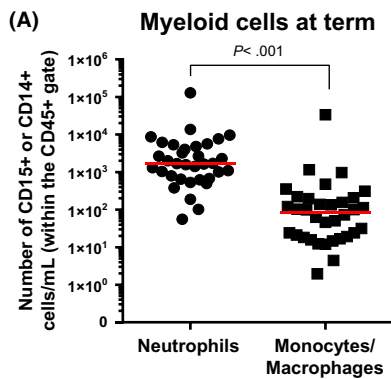
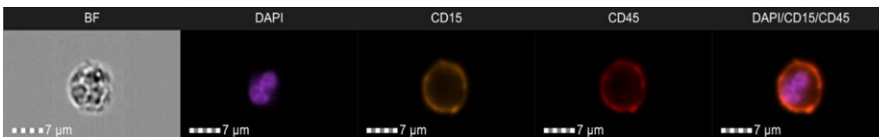


FIGURE 6 Myeloid cells in the amniotic fluid during the second and third trimester. A, Flow cytometry gating strategy for immunophenotyping of myeloid cells. Cells were initially gated within the viability gate and CD45+ gate followed by CD15 and CD14 gating. B, The number of neutrophils in the amniotic fluid of women at 15-20, 20-30, 30-36, or 37-40 weeks of gestation. C, The number of monocytes/macrophages in the amniotic fluid of women at 15-20, 20-30, 30-36, or 37-40 weeks of gestation. Red lines represent the medians. n = 6-34 per group



(B) Neutrophil



(C) Monocyte/Macrophage

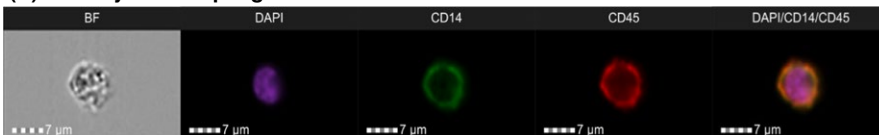


FIGURE 7 Neutrophils are the dominant myeloid subset in the amniotic fluid at term. A, Number of CD15+ neutrophils and CD14+ monocytes/macrophages in the amniotic fluid from women at term. Red lines represent the medians. B, Imaging flow cytometry analysis showing (from L-R): BF, bright field imaging, nuclear (DAPI) staining, CD15+ expression, CD45+ expression, and the merged fluorescence image of an amniotic fluid neutrophil. C, Imaging flow cytometry analysis showing (from L-R): BF, bright field imaging, nuclear (DAPI) staining, CD14+ expression, CD45+ expression, and the merged fluorescence image of an amniotic fluid monocyte/macrophage. n = 34 per group

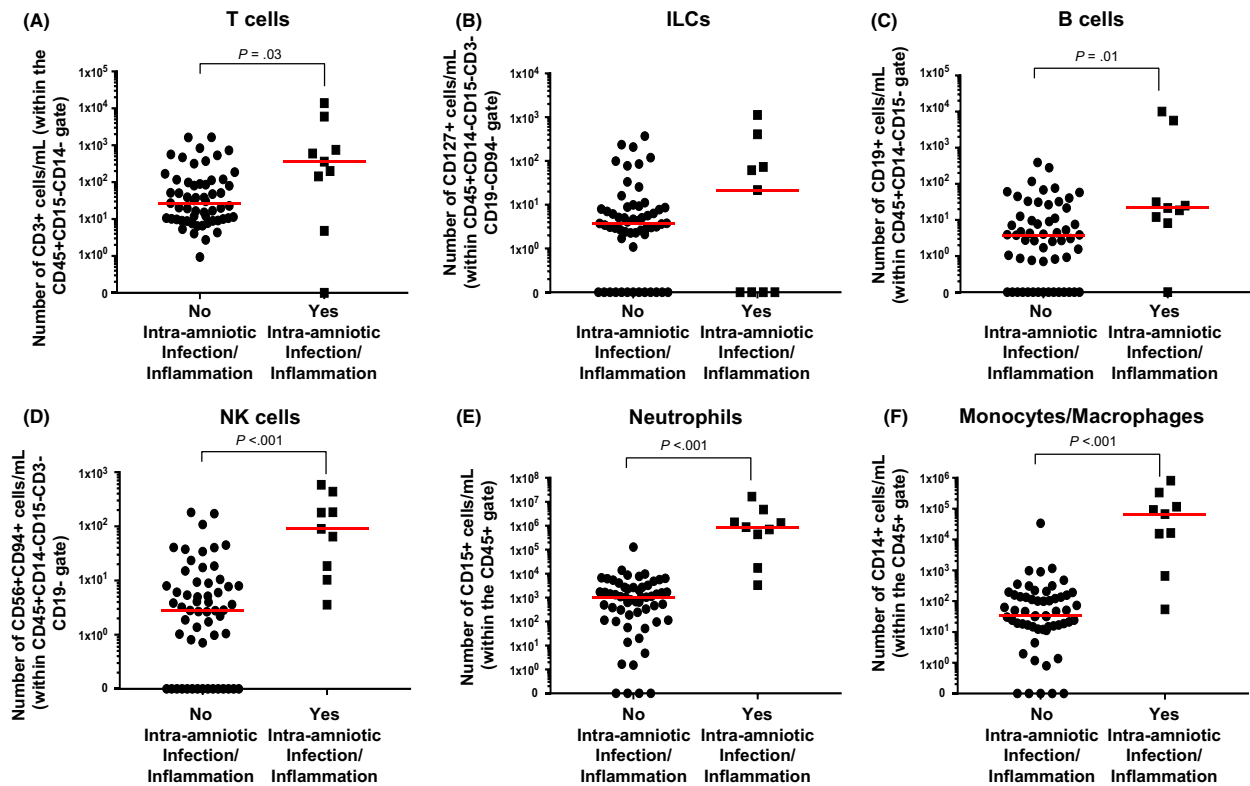


FIGURE 8 Immune cells in the amniotic fluid during intra-amniotic infection/inflammation. The number of T cells (A), ILCs (B), B cells (C), NK cells (D), neutrophils (E), and monocytes/macrophages (F) in the amniotic fluid of women with or without intra-amniotic infection/inflammation. Red lines represent the medians. $n = 9$ –57 per group

activity during intestinal inflammation.¹⁵⁰ Here, we identified T cells in the amniotic fluid that express ROR γ t, which are greater in cases with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation, suggesting that these cells participate in the inflammatory process against MIAC. Further research is required to investigate whether amniotic fluid T cells are indeed of fetal origin and whether these cells have pro-inflammatory and/or immunosuppressive functions.

4.3 | Amniotic fluid B cells

The data herein showed that B cells are constantly present during the second and third trimester; yet, these cells are very rare between 15 and 20 weeks of gestation. Previous observations^{67,119} led us to suggest that amniotic fluid B cells may be of fetal origin. Fetal pro/pre-B cells can be detected in the omentum as early as 8 weeks of gestation and B cells can be detected in the liver and spleen at 12 weeks.¹⁵¹ At this point, approximately 40% of these B cells express CD5, a marker of fetal B cell lineage.^{152,153} By 23 weeks of gestation, 90% of fetal splenic B cells express CD5 (B1-like cells), which gradually reduce to adult levels (25%–35%) by late adolescence.¹⁵⁴ B-1 cells (CD5+ B cells) are responsible for the production of antibodies in response to bacterial cell wall components.¹⁵⁵ Therefore, these cells limit bacterial colonization before the induction of adaptive immune responses.^{156,157} Indeed, it was also suggested that the fetal B cell system could be considered an

intermediate between the innate immune system and the adaptive immune system.¹⁵⁸ Here, we provided evidence that amniotic fluid B cells are increased in women with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation, supporting the hypothesis that these adaptive immune cells participate in the fetal host response against MIAC.

4.4 | Amniotic fluid natural killer (NK) cells

In this study, we found that the amniotic fluid includes NK cells, which are most abundant between 15 and 30 weeks of gestation (mostly in the second trimester). It is likely that amniotic fluid NK cells are derived from the fetus as most of the identified immune cells in this compartment are of fetal origin during this period.^{67,119}

Fetal NK cells are detected as early as 6 weeks of gestation.¹⁵⁹ After 18 weeks of gestation, the proportion of NK cells is increased in the fetal liver equaling the proportion of T cells.¹⁵⁹ Fetal NK cells are implicated in cytokine- and antibody-mediated NK cell responses in utero; yet, they remain hyporesponsive to HLA class I-negative or allogeneic cells,¹⁶⁰ which could be considered a mechanism for maternal-fetal tolerance.^{161,162} Taken together, these findings suggest that amniotic fluid NK cells could participate in the mechanisms of maternal-fetal tolerance taking place in the fetal compartments. The fact that amniotic fluid NK cells are increased in women with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation suggests that these cells are also implicated in the fetal host response against MIAC.

4.5 | Amniotic fluid neutrophils

Our results showed that amniotic fluid neutrophils increased as gestation progressed, and their number was even greater in women with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation. Amniotic fluid neutrophils can be of fetal and/or maternal origin.⁶⁷ Amniotic fluid neutrophils are mostly of fetal origin during preterm gestation, whereas these cells are of maternal origin at term.⁶⁷ Regardless of their origin, amniotic fluid neutrophils are a part of the innate immune host defense mechanisms that take place in the amniotic cavity of women with intra-amniotic infection.^{163,164} This concept is supported by evidence demonstrating that amniotic fluid neutrophils (i) are a source of antimicrobial products^{90,165-168} and cytokines,⁶⁹ (ii) can trap and kill bacteria invading the amniotic cavity by forming neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs),⁶⁸ and (iii) can phagocytize microorganisms commonly found in the lower genital tract, eg, *Streptococcus agalactiae* (also known as group B Streptococcus or GBS), *Ureaplasma urealyticum*, *Gardnerella vaginalis*, and *Escherichia coli*.¹³² Together, these findings show that even in the absence of microbial invasion neutrophils are present in the amniotic fluid throughout gestation and ready to participate in the host defense mechanisms taking place in the amniotic cavity.

4.6 | Amniotic fluid monocytes/macrophages

Macrophages have been previously observed in the amniotic fluid from normal pregnancies using cytological techniques.^{110,111,116,117} Using high-dimensional flow cytometry, we found that monocytes/macrophages are consistently present in the amniotic fluid of women after 20 weeks of gestation. Monocytes emerged during the second trimester, suggesting that they have a fetal origin as the neutrophils do.⁶⁷

Fetal macrophages are observed in the early stages of embryonic development.¹⁶⁹ Such cells originate in the yolk sac, fetal liver, and bone marrow¹⁶⁹⁻¹⁷¹ and can colonize developing organs to become tissue residents that persist until adulthood.¹⁷² During pregnancy, Hofbauer cells (fetal macrophages) reside in the placental villous tree,¹⁷³⁻¹⁷⁵ indicating that this can be a potential source for amniotic fluid macrophages. In cases with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation, monocytes/macrophages are abundant and expressed high levels of IL-1 α and IL-1 β .⁶⁹ These cytokines participate in the process of parturition¹⁷⁶⁻¹⁷⁸ and host response to intra-amniotic infection.^{176,178-185}

5 | CONCLUSIONS

The amniotic fluid harbors a diverse immune cellular composition during the second and third trimester. Between 15 and 20 weeks, ILCs are the most abundant in the amniotic fluid. T cells and ILCs, followed by NK cells, are more abundant between 15 and 30 weeks than at term. B cells are rare between 15 and 20 weeks, but they are a constant immune cell population until full term. While neutrophils increase as gestation progresses, monocytes/macrophages emerged

after 20 weeks and remained constant until term. All of the amniotic fluid immune cells, except ILCs, are increased in cases with intra-amniotic infection/inflammation. These findings provide insight into the biology of the amniotic fluid leukocytes during normal and complicated pregnancies.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was supported, in part, by the Perinatology Research Branch (PRB), Division of Intramural Research, Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (NICHD/NIH/DHHS), and, in part, with federal funds from the NICHD/NIH/DHHS under Contract No.HHSN275201300006C. This research was also supported by the Wayne State University Perinatal Initiative in Maternal, Perinatal, and Child Health. We thank the physicians and nurses from the Center for Advanced Obstetrical Care and Research and the Intrapartum Unit, as well as the research assistants from the PRB Clinical Laboratory, for their help in collecting samples.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declared no potential conflict of interests.

ORCID

Nardhy Gomez-Lopez  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-3406-5262>

Roberto Romero  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-4448-5121>

REFERENCES

- Schmidt W. The amniotic fluid compartment: the fetal habitat. *Adv Anat Embryol Cell Biol.* 1992;127:1-100.
- Davis LE, McLaren LC, Stewart JA, James CG, Levine MD, Skipper BJ. Immunological and microbiological studies of midtrimester amniotic fluid. *Gynecol Obstet Invest.* 1983;16:261-268.
- Cherry SH. Amniotic fluid analysis as an index of fetal health in utero. *Med Times.* 1967;95:713-717.
- Barham KA. Amnioscopy, meconium and fetal well-being. *J Obstet Gynaecol Br Commonw.* 1969;76:412-418.
- Schiffrin BS, Guntjes V, Gergely RC, Eden R, Roll K, Jacobs J. The role of real-time scanning in antenatal fetal surveillance. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1981;140:525-530.
- Clark SL, Romero R, Dildy GA, et al. Proposed diagnostic criteria for the case definition of amniotic fluid embolism in research studies. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2016;215:408-412.
- Tarui T, Kim A, Flake A, et al. Amniotic fluid transcriptomics reflects novel disease mechanisms in fetuses with myelomeningocele. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2017;217:587.e581-587.e587. e510
- Hobbins JC, Brock W, Speroff L, Anderson GG, Caldwell B. L-S ratio in predicting pulmonary maturity in utero. *Obstet Gynecol.* 1972;39:660-664.
- Gluck L. The evaluation of fetal lung maturity. *Calif Med.* 1972;116:58-59.
- Winn HN, Romero R, Roberts A, Liu H, Hobbins JC. Comparison of fetal lung maturation in preterm singleton and twin pregnancies. *Am J Perinatol.* 1992;9:326-328.

11. Palacio M, Bonet-Carne E, Cobo T, et al. Fetal lung texture T: prediction of neonatal respiratory morbidity by quantitative ultrasound lung texture analysis: a multicenter study. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2017;217:196.e191-196.e196. e114.
12. Jacobson CB, Barter RH. Intrauterine diagnosis and management of genetic defects. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1967;99:796-807.
13. Valenti C, Schutta EJ, Kehaty T. Cytogenetic diagnosis of Down's syndrome in utero. *JAMA.* 1969;207:1513-1515.
14. Santesson B, Akesson HO, Book JA, Brosset A. Karyotyping human amniotic-fluid cells. *Lancet.* 1969;2:1067-1068.
15. Lisgar F, Gertner M, Cherry S, Hsu LY, Hirschhorn K. Prenatal chromosome analysis. *Nature.* 1970;225:280-281.
16. Romero R, Emamian M, Quintero R, Wan M, Hobbins JC, Mitchell MD. Amniotic fluid prostaglandin levels and intra-amniotic infections. *Lancet.* 1986;1:1380.
17. Romero R, Emamian M, Quintero R, et al. The value and limitations of the Gram stain examination in the diagnosis of intraamniotic infection. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1988;159:114-119.
18. Romero R, Emamian M, Quintero R, et al. Diagnosis of intra-amniotic infection: the acridine orange stain. *Am J Perinatol.* 1989;6:41-45.
19. Romero R, Manogue KR, Mitchell MD, et al. Infection and labor. IV. Cachectin-tumor necrosis factor in the amniotic fluid of women with intraamniotic infection and preterm labor. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1989;161:336-341.
20. Romero R, Sirtori M, Oyarzun E, et al. Infection and labor. V. Prevalence, microbiology, and clinical significance of intraamniotic infection in women with preterm labor and intact membranes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1989;161:817-824.
21. Romero R, Avila C, Santhanam U, Sehgal PB. Amniotic fluid interleukin 6 in preterm labor. *Association with infection. J Clin Invest.* 1990;85:1392-1400.
22. Romero R, Jimenez C, Lohda AK, et al. Amniotic fluid glucose concentration: a rapid and simple method for the detection of intraamniotic infection in preterm labor. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1990;163:968-974.
23. Romero R, Quintero R, Nores J, et al. Amniotic fluid white blood cell count: a rapid and simple test to diagnose microbial invasion of the amniotic cavity and predict preterm delivery. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1991;165:821-830.
24. Baumann P, Romero R, Berry S, et al. Evidence of participation of the soluble tumor necrosis factor receptor I in the host response to intrauterine infection in preterm labor. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 1993;30:184-193.
25. Cherouny PH, Pankuch GA, Romero R, et al. Neutrophil attractant/activating peptide-1/interleukin-8: association with histologic chorioamnionitis, preterm delivery, and bioactive amniotic fluid leukoattractants. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1993;169:1299-1303.
26. Romero R, Yoon BH, Kenney JS, Gomez R, Allison AC, Sehgal PB. Amniotic fluid interleukin-6 determinations are of diagnostic and prognostic value in preterm labor. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 1993;30:167-183.
27. Gomez R, Romero R, Galasso M, Behnke E, Insunza A, Cotton DB. The value of amniotic fluid interleukin-6, white blood cell count, and gram stain in the diagnosis of microbial invasion of the amniotic cavity in patients at term. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 1994;32:200-210.
28. Hsu CD, Meaddough E, Aversa K, Copel JA. The role of amniotic fluid L-selectin, GRO-alpha, and interleukin-8 in the pathogenesis of intraamniotic infection. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1998;178:428-432.
29. Hsu CD, Meaddough E, Aversa K, et al. Elevated amniotic fluid levels of leukemia inhibitory factor, interleukin 6, and interleukin 8 in intra-amniotic infection. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1998;179:1267-1270.
30. Maymon E, Romero R, Pacora P, et al. Matrilysin (matrix metalloproteinase 7) in parturition, premature rupture of membranes, and intrauterine infection. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2000;182:1545-1553.
31. Maymon E, Romero R, Pacora P, et al. Evidence of in vivo differential bioavailability of the active forms of matrix metalloproteinases 9 and 2 in parturition, spontaneous rupture of membranes, and intra-amniotic infection. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2000;183:887-894.
32. Maymon E, Romero R, Pacora P, et al. Human neutrophil collagenase (matrix metalloproteinase 8) in parturition, premature rupture of the membranes, and intrauterine infection. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2000;183:94-99.
33. Pacora P, Maymon E, Gervasi MT, et al. Lactoferrin in intrauterine infection, human parturition, and rupture of fetal membranes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2000;183:904-910.
34. Yoon BH, Romero R, Kim M, et al. Clinical implications of detection of Ureaplasma urealyticum in the amniotic cavity with the polymerase chain reaction. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2000;183:1130-1137.
35. Hsu CD, Hong SF, Harirah H, Bahado-Singh R, Lu L. Amniotic fluid soluble fas levels in intra-amniotic infection. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2000;95:667-670.
36. Hsu CD, Aversa K, Meaddough E. The role of amniotic fluid interleukin-6, and cell adhesion molecules, intercellular adhesion molecule-1 and leukocyte adhesion molecule-1, in intra-amniotic infection. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 2000;43:251-254.
37. Maymon E, Romero R, Chaiworapongsa T, et al. Amniotic fluid matrix metalloproteinase-8 in preterm labor with intact membranes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2001;185:1149-1155.
38. Yoon BH, Oh SY, Romero R, et al. An elevated amniotic fluid matrix metalloproteinase-8 level at the time of mid-trimester genetic amniocentesis is a risk factor for spontaneous preterm delivery. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2001;185:1162-1167.
39. Yoon BH, Romero R, Moon JB, et al. Clinical significance of intra-amniotic inflammation in patients with preterm labor and intact membranes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2001;185:1130-1136.
40. Keelan JA, Yang J, Romero RJ, et al. Epithelial cell-derived neutrophil-activating peptide-78 is present in fetal membranes and amniotic fluid at increased concentrations with intra-amniotic infection and preterm delivery. *Biol Reprod.* 2004;70:253-259.
41. Espinoza J, Goncalves LF, Romero R, et al. The prevalence and clinical significance of amniotic fluid 'sludge' in patients with preterm labor and intact membranes. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol.* 2005;25:346-352.
42. Kusanovic JP, Espinoza J, Romero R, et al. Clinical significance of the presence of amniotic fluid 'sludge' in asymptomatic patients at high risk for spontaneous preterm delivery. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol.* 2007;30:706-714.
43. Lee SE, Romero R, Jung H, Park CW, Park JS, Yoon BH. The intensity of the fetal inflammatory response in intraamniotic inflammation with and without microbial invasion of the amniotic cavity. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2007;197:294.e291-294.e296.
44. Romero R, Espinoza J, Hassan S, et al. Soluble receptor for advanced glycation end products (sRAGE) and endogenous secretory RAGE (esRAGE) in amniotic fluid: modulation by infection and inflammation. *J Perinat Med.* 2008;36:388-398.
45. Romero R, Espinoza J, Rogers WT, et al. Proteomic analysis of amniotic fluid to identify women with preterm labor and intra-amniotic inflammation/infection: the use of a novel computational method to analyze mass spectrometric profiling. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2008;21:367-388.
46. Romero R, Schaudinn C, Kusanovic JP, et al. Detection of a microbial biofilm in intraamniotic infection. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2008;198:135.e131-135.e135.
47. Romero R, Chaiworapongsa T, Alpay Savasan Z, et al. Damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs) in preterm labor with intact membranes and preterm PROM: a study of the alarmin HMGB1. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2011;24:1444-1455.
48. Gervasi MT, Romero R, Bracalente G, et al. Midtrimester amniotic fluid concentrations of interleukin-6 and interferon-gamma-inducible protein-10: evidence for heterogeneity of

- intra-amniotic inflammation and associations with spontaneous early (<32 weeks) and late (>32 weeks) preterm delivery. *J Perinat Med.* 2012;40:329-343.
49. Gervasi MT, Romero R, Bracalente G, et al. Viral invasion of the amniotic cavity (VIAC) in the midtrimester of pregnancy. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2012;25:2002-2013.
 50. Romero R, Miranda J, Chaiworapongsa T, et al. A novel molecular microbiologic technique for the rapid diagnosis of microbial invasion of the amniotic cavity and intra-amniotic infection in preterm labor with intact membranes. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 2014;71:330-358.
 51. Romero R, Miranda J, Chaiworapongsa T, et al. Sterile intra-amniotic inflammation in asymptomatic patients with a sonographic short cervix: prevalence and clinical significance. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2014;28:1-17.
 52. Romero R, Miranda J, Chaiworapongsa T, et al. Prevalence and clinical significance of sterile intra-amniotic inflammation in patients with preterm labor and intact membranes. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 2014;72:458-474.
 53. Romero R, Miranda J, Chaemsaitong P, et al. Sterile and microbial-associated intra-amniotic inflammation in preterm prelabor rupture of membranes. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2015;28:1394-1409.
 54. Romero R, Miranda J, Kusanovic JP, et al. Clinical chorioamnionitis at term I: microbiology of the amniotic cavity using cultivation and molecular techniques. *J Perinat Med.* 2015;43:19-36.
 55. Chaemsaitong P, Romero R, Korzeniewski SJ, et al. A point of care test for interleukin-6 in amniotic fluid in preterm prelabor rupture of membranes: a step toward the early treatment of acute intra-amniotic inflammation/infection. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2016;29:360-367.
 56. Chaemsaitong P, Romero R, Korzeniewski SJ, et al. A rapid interleukin-6 bedside test for the identification of intra-amniotic inflammation in preterm labor with intact membranes. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2016;29:349-359.
 57. Romero R, Chaemsaitong P, Korzeniewski SJ, et al. Clinical chorioamnionitis at term III: how well do clinical criteria perform in the identification of proven intra-amniotic infection? *J Perinat Med.* 2016;44:23-32.
 58. Romero R, Chaemsaitong P, Korzeniewski SJ, et al. Clinical chorioamnionitis at term II: the intra-amniotic inflammatory response. *J Perinat Med.* 2016;44:5-22.
 59. Yoneda N, Yoneda S, Niimi H, et al. Polymicrobial Amniotic Fluid Infection with Mycoplasma/Ureaplasma and Other Bacteria Induces Severe Intra-Amniotic Inflammation Associated with Poor Perinatal Prognosis in Preterm Labor. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 2016;75:112-125.
 60. Kim SM, Romero R, Lee J, Chaemsaitong P, Docheva N, Yoon BH. Gastric fluid versus amniotic fluid analysis for the identification of intra-amniotic infection due to Ureaplasma species. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2016;29:2579-2587.
 61. Son GH, You YA, Kwon EJ, Lee KY, Kim YJ. Comparative Analysis of Midtrimester Amniotic Fluid Cytokine Levels to Predict Spontaneous Very Pre-term Birth in Patients with Cervical Insufficiency. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 2016;75:155-161.
 62. Maddipati KR, Romero R, Chaiworapongsa T, et al. Lipidomic analysis of patients with microbial invasion of the amniotic cavity reveals up-regulation of leukotriene B4. *FASEB J.* 2016;30:3296-3307.
 63. Yoneda S, Shiozaki A, Yoneda N, et al. Antibiotic Therapy Increases the Risk of Preterm Birth in Preterm Labor without Intra-Amniotic Microbes, but may Prolong the Gestation Period in Preterm Labor with Microbes, Evaluated by Rapid and High-Sensitive PCR System. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 2016;75:440-450.
 64. Park JY, Romero R, Lee J, Chaemsaitong P, Chaiyasit N, Yoon BH. An elevated amniotic fluid prostaglandin F2alpha concentration is associated with intra-amniotic inflammation/infection, and clinical and histologic chorioamnionitis, as well as impending preterm delivery in patients with preterm labor and intact membranes. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2016;29:2563-2572.
 65. Romero R, Chaemsaitong P, Chaiyasit N, et al. CXCL10 and IL-6: Markers of two different forms of intra-amniotic inflammation in preterm labor. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 2017;78:e12685.
 66. Chaiyasit N, Romero R, Chaemsaitong P, et al. Clinical chorioamnionitis at term VIII: a rapid MMP-8 test for the identification of intra-amniotic inflammation. *J Perinat Med.* 2017;45:539-550.
 67. Gomez-Lopez N, Romero R, Xu Y, et al. Are amniotic fluid neutrophils in women with intraamniotic infection and/or inflammation of fetal or maternal origin? *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2017;217:693.e691-693.e693. e616.
 68. Gomez-Lopez N, Romero R, Xu Y, et al. Neutrophil Extracellular Traps in the Amniotic Cavity of Women with Intra-Amniotic Infection: A New Mechanism of Host Defense. *Reprod Sci.* 2017;24:1139-1153.
 69. Martinez-Varea A, Romero R, Xu Y, et al. Clinical chorioamnionitis at term VII: the amniotic fluid cellular immune response. *J Perinat Med.* 2017;45:523-538.
 70. Maymon E, Romero R, Bhatti G, et al. Chronic inflammatory lesions of the placenta are associated with an up-regulation of amniotic fluid CXCR3: A marker of allograft rejection. *J Perinat Med.* 2017;46:123-137.
 71. Musilova I, Andrys C, Krejssek J, et al. Amniotic fluid pentraxins: Potential early markers for identifying intra-amniotic inflammatory complications in preterm pre-labor rupture of membranes. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 2017;e12789.
 72. Oh KJ, Kim SM, Hong JS, et al. Twenty-four percent of patients with clinical chorioamnionitis in preterm gestations have no evidence of either culture-proven intraamniotic infection or intraamniotic inflammation. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2017;216:604.e601-604.e611.
 73. Tarca AL, Fitzgerald W, Chaemsaitong P, et al. The cytokine network in women with an asymptomatic short cervix and the risk of preterm delivery. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 2017;78:e12686.
 74. Rowlands S, Danielewski JA, Tabrizi SN, Walker SP, Garland SM. Microbial invasion of the amniotic cavity in midtrimester pregnancies using molecular microbiology. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2017;217:71.e1-71.e5.
 75. Tong XL, Wang L, Gao TB, Qin YG, Qi YQ, Xu YP. Potential function of amniotic fluid in fetal development—novel insights by comparing the composition of human amniotic fluid with umbilical cord and maternal serum at mid and late gestation. *J Chin Med Assoc.* 2009;72:368-373.
 76. Brace RA. Progress toward understanding the regulation of amniotic fluid volume: water and solute fluxes in and through the fetal membranes. *Placenta.* 1995;16:1-18.
 77. Underwood MA, Gilbert WM, Sherman MP. Amniotic fluid: not just fetal urine anymore. *J Perinatol.* 2005;25:341-348.
 78. Wallenburg HC. The amniotic fluid I. Water and electrolyte homeostasis. *J Perinat Med.* 1977;5:193-205.
 79. Brace RA. Physiology of amniotic fluid volume regulation. *Clin Obstet Gynecol.* 1997;40:280-289.
 80. Ross MG, Brace RA. National Institute of Child H, Development Workshop P: National Institute of Child Health and Development Conference summary: amniotic fluid biology—basic and clinical aspects. *J Matern Fetal Med.* 2001;10:2-19.
 81. Sozanskii AM. The biochemical composition of amniotic fluid and of maternal and fetal blood at various periods of pregnancy. *Biull Eksp Biol Med.* 1961;51:323-326.
 82. Rueda R, Vargas ML, Garcia-Pacheco M, Garcia-Olivares E. Detection of immunoregulatory lipid-like factors in human amniotic fluid. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 1990;24:40-44.
 83. Campbell J, Wathen N, Macintosh M, Cass P, Chard T, Mainwaring Burton R. Biochemical composition of amniotic fluid and

- extraembryonic coelomic fluid in the first trimester of pregnancy. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol.* 1992;99:563-565.
84. Romero R, Baumann P, Gonzalez R, et al. Amniotic fluid prostanoid concentrations increase early during the course of spontaneous labor at term. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1994;171:1613-1620.
 85. Romero R, Munoz H, Gomez R, et al. Increase in prostaglandin bio-availability precedes the onset of human parturition. *Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids.* 1996;54:187-191.
 86. Edwin SS, Romero RJ, Munoz H, Branch DW, Mitchell MD. 5-Hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid and human parturition. *Prostaglandins.* 1996;51:403-412.
 87. Petraglia F, Gomez R, Luisi S, et al. Increased midtrimester amniotic fluid activin A: a risk factor for subsequent fetal death. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1999;180:194-197.
 88. Drohse H, Christensen H, Myrholm V, Sorensen S. Characterisation of non-maternal serum proteins in amniotic fluid at weeks 16 to 18 of gestation. *Clin Chim Acta.* 1998;276:109-120.
 89. Yoshio H, Tollin M, Gudmundsson GH, et al. Antimicrobial polypeptides of human vernix caseosa and amniotic fluid: implications for newborn innate defense. *Pediatr Res.* 2003;53:211-216.
 90. Espinoza J, Chaiworapongsa T, Romero R, et al. Antimicrobial peptides in amniotic fluid: defensins, calprotectin and bacterial/permeability-increasing protein in patients with microbial invasion of the amniotic cavity, intra-amniotic inflammation, preterm labor and premature rupture of membranes. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2003;13:2-21.
 91. Akinbi HT, Narendran V, Pass AK, Markart P, Hoath SB. Host defense proteins in vernix caseosa and amniotic fluid. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2004;191:2090-2096.
 92. Cho CK, Shan SJ, Winsor EJ, Diamandis EP. Proteomics analysis of human amniotic fluid. *Mol Cell Proteomics.* 2007;6:1406-1415.
 93. Bujold E, Romero R, Kusanovic JP, et al. Proteomic profiling of amniotic fluid in preterm labor using two-dimensional liquid separation and mass spectrometry. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2008;21:697-713.
 94. Lee SE, Romero R, Park IS, Seong HS, Park CW, Yoon BH. Amniotic fluid prostaglandin concentrations increase before the onset of spontaneous labor at term. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2008;21:89-94.
 95. Perluigi M, Di Domenico F, Cini C, et al. Proteomic analysis for the study of amniotic fluid protein composition. *J Prenat Med.* 2009;3:39-41.
 96. Romero R, Mazaki-Tovi S, Vaisbuch E, et al. Metabolomics in premature labor: a novel approach to identify patients at risk for preterm delivery. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2010;23:1344-1359.
 97. Witkin SS, Chervenak J, Bongiovanni AM, Herway C, Linhares IM, Skupski D. Influence of mid-trimester amniotic fluid on endogenous and lipopolysaccharide-mediated responses of mononuclear lymphoid cells. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 2012;67:28-33.
 98. Maddipati KR, Romero R, Chaiworapongsa T, et al. Eicosanomic profiling reveals dominance of the epoxygenase pathway in human amniotic fluid at term in spontaneous labor. *FASEB J.* 2014;28:4835-4846.
 99. Maddipati KR, Romero R, Chaiworapongsa T, et al. Clinical chorioamnionitis at term: the amniotic fluid fatty acyl lipidome. *J Lipid Res.* 2016;57:1906-1916.
 100. Galask RP, Snyder IS. Antimicrobial factors in amniotic fluid. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1970;106:59-65.
 101. Larsen B, Snyder IS, Galask RP. Bacterial growth inhibition by amniotic fluid. I. In vitro evidence for bacterial growth-inhibiting activity. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1974;119:492-496.
 102. Schlievert P, Johnson W, Galask RP. Isolation of a low-molecular-weight antibacterial system from human amniotic fluid. *Infect Immun.* 1976;14:1156-1166.
 103. Schlievert P, Johnson W, Galask RP. Amniotic fluid antibacterial mechanisms: newer concepts. *Semin Perinatol.* 1977;1:59-70.
 104. Tafari N, Ross SM, Naeye RL, Galask RP, Zaar B. Failure of bacterial growth inhibition by amniotic fluid. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1977;128:187-189.
 105. Niemela A, Kulomaa M, Vija P, Tuohimaa P, Saarikoski S. Lactoferrin in human amniotic fluid. *Hum Reprod.* 1989;4:99-101.
 106. Pierce J, Jacobson P, Benedetti E, et al. Collection and characterization of amniotic fluid from scheduled C-section deliveries. *Cell Tissue Bank.* 2016;17:413-425.
 107. Votta RA, de Gagnetten CB, Parada O, Giulietti M. Cytologic study of amniotic fluid in pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1968;102:571-577.
 108. Wachtel E, Gordon H, Olsen E. Cytology of amniotic fluid. *J Obstet Gynaecol Br Commonw.* 1969;76:596-602.
 109. Pasquinucci C, Dambrosio F, Meroni P, Della Torre L. The amniotic fluid. 3. A morphologic study of cytology. *Ann Ostet Ginecol Med Perinat.* 1969;91:90-106.
 110. Casadei R, D'Ablaing III G, Kaplan BJ, Schwinn CP. A cytologic study of amniotic fluid. *Acta Cytol.* 1973;17:289-298.
 111. Cutz E, Conen PE. Macrophages and epithelial cells in human amniotic fluid: transmission and scanning electron microscopic study. *Am J Anat.* 1978;151:87-101.
 112. Schrage R, Bogelspacher HR, Wurster KG. Amniotic fluid cells in the second trimester of pregnancy. *Acta Cytol.* 1982;26:407-416.
 113. Gosden CM. Amniotic fluid cell types and culture. *Br Med Bull.* 1983;39:348-354.
 114. Fauza D. Amniotic fluid and placental stem cells. *Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol.* 2004;18:877-891.
 115. Lynch W, Rezai S, Henderson CE. Human amniotic fluid: a source of stem cells for possible therapeutic use. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2016;215:401.
 116. Hoyes AD. Ultrastructure of the cells of the amniotic fluid. *J Obstet Gynaecol Br Commonw.* 1968;75:164-171.
 117. Sutherland GR, Bauld R, Bain AD. Observations on human amniotic fluid cell strains in serial culture. *J Med Genet.* 1974;11:190-195.
 118. Medina-Gomez P, McBride WH. Amniotic fluid macrophages from normal and malformed fetuses. *Prenat Diagn.* 1986;6:195-205.
 119. Marquardt N, Ivarsson MA, Sundstrom E, et al. Fetal CD103 + IL-17-Producing Group 3 Innate Lymphoid Cells Represent the Dominant Lymphocyte Subset in Human Amniotic Fluid. *J Immunol.* 2016;197:3069-3075.
 120. Sutherland GR, Brock DJ, Scrimgeour JB. Letter: Amniotic-fluid macrophages and anencephaly. *Lancet.* 1973;2:1098-1099.
 121. Sutherland GR, Brock DJ, Scrimgeour JB. Amniotic fluid macrophages and the antenatal diagnosis of anencephaly and spina bifida. *J Med Genet.* 1975;12:135-137.
 122. Gosden C, Brock DJ. Combined use of alphafetoprotein and amniotic fluid cell morphology in early prenatal diagnosis of fetal abnormalities. *J Med Genet.* 1978;15:262-270.
 123. Papp Z, Bell JE. Uncultured cells in amniotic fluid from normal and abnormal fetuses. *Clin Genet.* 1979;16:282-290.
 124. Chapman PA, Blenkinsopp WK, Lewis BV. The detection of neural tube closure defects by exfoliative cytology of amniotic fluid. *Acta Cytol.* 1981;25:367-372.
 125. Chapman PA. Cytology as a means of detecting neural tube defects. *Med Lab Sci.* 1982;39:215-222.
 126. Morrison JJ, Klein N, Chitty LS, et al. Intra-amniotic inflammation in human gastroschisis: possible aetiology of postnatal bowel dysfunction. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol.* 1998;105:1200-1204.
 127. Guibourdenche J, Berrebi D, Vuillard E, et al. Biochemical investigations of bowel inflammation in gastroschisis. *Pediatr Res.* 2006;60:565-568.
 128. Frascoli M, Jeanty C, Fleck S, et al. Heightened Immune Activation in Fetuses with Gastroschisis May Be Blocked by Targeting IL-5. *J Immunol.* 2016;196:4957-4966.

129. Romero R, Yoon BH, Mazor M, et al. The diagnostic and prognostic value of amniotic fluid white blood cell count, glucose, interleukin-6, and gram stain in patients with preterm labor and intact membranes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1993;169:805-816.
130. Romero R, Yoon BH, Mazor M, et al. A comparative study of the diagnostic performance of amniotic fluid glucose, white blood cell count, interleukin-6, and gram stain in the detection of microbial invasion in patients with preterm premature rupture of membranes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1993;169:839-851.
131. Yoon BH, Yang SH, Jun JK, Park KH, Kim CJ, Romero R. Maternal blood C-reactive protein, white blood cell count, and temperature in preterm labor: a comparison with amniotic fluid white blood cell count. *Obstet Gynecol.* 1996;87:231-237.
132. Gomez-Lopez N, Romero R, Garcia-Flores V, et al. Amniotic fluid neutrophils can phagocytize bacteria: A mechanism for microbial killing in the amniotic cavity. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 2017;78:e12723.
133. Kim MJ, Romero R, Gervasi MT, et al. Widespread microbial invasion of the chorioamniotic membranes is a consequence and not a cause of intra-amniotic infection. *Lab Invest.* 2009;89:924-936.
134. Mjosberg JM, Trifari S, Crellin NK, et al. Human IL-25- and IL-33-responsive type 2 innate lymphoid cells are defined by expression of CRTH2 and CD161. *Nat Immunol.* 2011;12:1055-1062.
135. Forsberg A, Bengtsson M, Eringfalt A, Ernerudh J, Mjosberg J, Jenmalm MC. GATA binding protein 3(+) group 2 innate lymphoid cells are present in cord blood and in higher proportions in male than in female neonates. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2014;134:228-230.
136. Mebius RE, Miyamoto T, Christensen J, et al. The fetal liver counterpart of adult common lymphoid progenitors gives rise to all lymphoid lineages, CD45 + CD4 + CD3- cells, as well as macrophages. *J Immunol.* 2001;166:6593-6601.
137. Sawa S, Cherrier M, Lochner M, et al. Lineage relationship analysis of RORgammat+ innate lymphoid cells. *Science.* 2010;330:665-669.
138. Possot C, Schmutz S, Chea S, et al. Notch signaling is necessary for adult, but not fetal, development of RORgammat(+) innate lymphoid cells. *Nat Immunol.* 2011;12:949-958.
139. Bando JK, Liang HE, Locksley RM. Identification and distribution of developing innate lymphoid cells in the fetal mouse intestine. *Nat Immunol.* 2015;16:153-160.
140. Klose CS, Kiss EA, Schwierzeck V, et al. A T-bet gradient controls the fate and function of CCR6-RORgammat+ innate lymphoid cells. *Nature.* 2013;494:261-265.
141. Haynes BF, Heinly CS. Early human T cell development: analysis of the human thymus at the time of initial entry of hematopoietic stem cells into the fetal thymic microenvironment. *J Exp Med.* 1995;181:1445-1458.
142. Spencer J, MacDonald TT, Finn T, Isaacson PG. The development of gut associated lymphoid tissue in the terminal ileum of fetal human intestine. *Clin Exp Immunol.* 1986;64:536-543.
143. Cupedo T, Nagasawa M, Weijer K, Blom B, Spits H. Development and activation of regulatory T cells in the human fetus. *Eur J Immunol.* 2005;35:383-390.
144. Michaelsson J, Mold JE, McCune JM, Nixon DF. Regulation of T cell responses in the developing human fetus. *J Immunol.* 2006;176:5741-5748.
145. Mold JE, Michaelsson J, Burt TD, et al. Maternal alloantigens promote the development of tolerogenic fetal regulatory T cells in utero. *Science.* 2008;322:1562-1565.
146. Mold JE, McCune JM. Immunological tolerance during fetal development: from mouse to man. *Adv Immunol.* 2012;115:73-111.
147. Rito DC, Viehl LT, Buchanan PM, Haridas S, Koenig JM. Augmented Th17-type immune responses in preterm neonates exposed to histologic chorioamnionitis. *Pediatr Res.* 2017;81:639-645.
148. Ivanov II, McKenzie BS, Zhou L, et al. The orphan nuclear receptor RORgammat directs the differentiation program of proinflammatory IL-17 + T helper cells. *Cell.* 2006;126:1121-1133.
149. Crome SQ, Wang AY, Levings MK. Translational mini-review series on Th17 cells: function and regulation of human T helper 17 cells in health and disease. *Clin Exp Immunol.* 2010;159:109-119.
150. Yang BH, Hagemann S, Mamareli P, et al. Foxp3(+) T cells expressing RORgammat represent a stable regulatory T-cell effector lineage with enhanced suppressive capacity during intestinal inflammation. *Mucosal Immunol.* 2016;9:444-457.
151. Solvason N, Kearney JF. The human fetal omentum: a site of B cell generation. *J Exp Med.* 1992;175:397-404.
152. Antin JH, Emerson SG, Martin P, Gadol N, Ault KA. Leu-1 + (CD5 +) B cells. A major lymphoid subpopulation in human fetal spleen: phenotypic and functional studies. *J Immunol.* 1986;136:505-510.
153. Hardy RR, Hayakawa K. CD5 B cells, a fetal B cell lineage. *Adv Immunol.* 1994;55:297-339.
154. Bhat NM, Kantor AB, Bieber MM, Stall AM, Herzenberg LA, Teng NN. The ontogeny and functional characteristics of human B-1 (CD5 + B) cells. *Int Immunol.* 1992;4:243-252.
155. Masmoudi H, Mota-Santos T, Huetz F, Coutinho A, Cazenave PA. All T15 Id-positive antibodies (but not the majority of VHT15 + antibodies) are produced by peritoneal CD5+ B lymphocytes. *Int Immunol.* 1990;2:515-520.
156. Baumgarth N, Herman OC, Jager GC, Brown LE, Herzenberg LA, Chen J. B-1 and B-2 cell-derived immunoglobulin M antibodies are nonredundant components of the protective response to influenza virus infection. *J Exp Med.* 2000;192:271-280.
157. Martin F, Oliver AM, Kearney JF. Marginal zone and B1 B cells unite in the early response against T-independent blood-borne particulate antigens. *Immunity.* 2001;14:617-629.
158. Hardy RR. B-1 B cell development. *J Immunol.* 2006;177:2749-2754.
159. Phillips JH, Hori T, Nagler A, Bhat N, Spits H, Lanier LL. Ontogeny of human natural killer (NK) cells: fetal NK cells mediate cytolytic function and express cytoplasmic CD3 epsilon, delta proteins. *J Exp Med.* 1992;175:1055-1066.
160. Ivarsson MA, Loh L, Marquardt N, et al. Differentiation and functional regulation of human fetal NK cells. *J Clin Invest.* 2013;123:3889-3901.
161. Mor G, Aldo P, Alvero AB. The unique immunological and microbial aspects of pregnancy. *Nat Rev Immunol.* 2017;17:469-482.
162. Hu XH, Tang MX, Mor G, Liao AH. Tim-3: Expression on immune cells and roles at the maternal-fetal interface. *J Reprod Immunol.* 2016;118:92-99.
163. Romero R, Ceska M, Avila C, Mazor M, Behnke E, Lindley I. Neutrophil attractant/activating peptide-1/interleukin-8 in term and preterm parturition. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1991;165:813-820.
164. Romero R, Kusanovic JP, Espinoza J, et al. What is amniotic fluid 'sludge'? *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol.* 2007;30:793-798.
165. Maymon E, Romero R, Chaiworapongsa T, et al. Value of amniotic fluid neutrophil collagenase concentrations in preterm premature rupture of membranes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2001;185:1143-1148.
166. Helmig BR, Romero R, Espinoza J, et al. Neutrophil elastase and secretory leukocyte protease inhibitor in prelabor rupture of membranes, parturition and intra-amniotic infection. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2002;12:237-246.
167. Gravett MG, Novy MJ, Rosenfeld RG, et al. Diagnosis of intra-amniotic infection by proteomic profiling and identification of novel biomarkers. *JAMA.* 2004;292:462-469.
168. Soto E, Espinoza J, Nien JK, et al. Human beta-defensin-2: a natural antimicrobial peptide present in amniotic fluid participates in the host response to microbial invasion of the amniotic cavity. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2007;20:15-22.
169. Ginhoux F, Jung S. Monocytes and macrophages: developmental pathways and tissue homeostasis. *Nat Rev Immunol.* 2014;14:392-404.

170. Gomez Perdiguero E, Klapproth K, Schulz C, et al. Tissue-resident macrophages originate from yolk-sac-derived erythro-myeloid progenitors. *Nature*. 2015;518:547-551.
171. Hoeffel G, Chen J, Lavin Y, et al. C-Myb(+) erythro-myeloid progenitor-derived fetal monocytes give rise to adult tissue-resident macrophages. *Immunity*. 2015;42:665-678.
172. Hashimoto D, Chow A, Noizat C, et al. Tissue-resident macrophages self-maintain locally throughout adult life with minimal contribution from circulating monocytes. *Immunity*. 2013;38:792-804.
173. Wynn RM. Derivation and ultrastructure of the so-called Hofbauer cell. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 1967;97:235-248.
174. Kim JS, Romero R, Kim MR, et al. Involvement of Hofbauer cells and maternal T cells in villitis of unknown aetiology. *Histopathology*. 2008;52:457-464.
175. Simoni MK, Jurado KA, Abrahams VM, Fikrig E, Guller S. Zika virus infection of Hofbauer cells. *Am J Reprod Immunol*. 2017;77:e12613.
176. Romero R, Brody DT, Oyarzun E, et al. Infection and labor. III. Interleukin-1: a signal for the onset of parturition. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 1989;160:1117-1123.
177. Romero R, Parvizi ST, Oyarzun E, et al. Amniotic fluid interleukin-1 in spontaneous labor at term. *J Reprod Med*. 1990;35:235-238.
178. Romero R, Mazor M, Brandt F, et al. Interleukin-1 alpha and interleukin-1 beta in preterm and term human parturition. *Am J Reprod Immunol*. 1992;27:117-123.
179. Hillier SL, Witkin SS, Krohn MA, Watts DH, Kiviat NB, Eschenbach DA. The relationship of amniotic fluid cytokines and preterm delivery, amniotic fluid infection, histologic chorioamnionitis, and chorioamnion infection. *Obstet Gynecol*. 1993;81:941-948.
180. Gomez R, Ghezzi F, Romero R, Munoz H, Tolosa JE, Rojas I. Premature labor and intra-amniotic infection. Clinical aspects and role of the cytokines in diagnosis and pathophysiology. *Clin Perinatol*. 1995;22:281-342.
181. Yoon BH, Romero R, Jun JK, et al. Amniotic fluid cytokines (interleukin-6, tumor necrosis factor-alpha, interleukin-1 beta, and interleukin-8) and the risk for the development of bronchopulmonary dysplasia. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 1997;177:825-830.
182. Gonzalez-Bosquet E, Cerqueira MJ, Dominguez C, Gasser I, Bermejo B, Cabero L. Amniotic fluid glucose and cytokines values in the early diagnosis of amniotic infection in patients with preterm labor and intact membranes. *J Matern Fetal Med*. 1999;8:155-158.
183. Figueroa R, Garry D, Elimian A, Patel K, Sehgal PB, Tejani N. Evaluation of amniotic fluid cytokines in preterm labor and intact membranes. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2005;18:241-247.
184. Sadowsky DW, Adams KM, Gravett MG, Witkin SS, Novy MJ. Preterm labor is induced by intraamniotic infusions of interleukin-1beta and tumor necrosis factor-alpha but not by interleukin-6 or interleukin-8 in a nonhuman primate model. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2006;195:1578-1589.
185. Marconi C, de Andrade Ramos BR, Peracoli JC, Donders GG, da Silva MG. Amniotic fluid interleukin-1 beta and interleukin-6, but not interleukin-8 correlate with microbial invasion of the amniotic cavity in preterm labor. *Am J Reprod Immunol*. 2011;65:549-556.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the supporting information tab for this article.

How to cite this article: Gomez-Lopez N, Romero R, Xu Y, et al. The immunophenotype of amniotic fluid leukocytes in normal and complicated pregnancies. *Am J Reprod Immunol*. 2018;79:e12827. <https://doi.org/10.1111/aji.12827>