# Comparative analysis of rhesus macaque and human placental organoids highlights evolutionary differences in placentation

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**Abstract**

Throughout evolution, the placenta has diversified in both structure and cellular composition while maintaining its fundamental function. Trophoblasts are fetal-derived cells responsible for nourishing and protecting the developing fetus and are a universal component of all placentas. While primate placentas exhibit many shared morphological features, species-specific differences in gene expression remain largely unexplored, primarily due to the lack of suitable *in vitro* models. To address this gap, we developed organoids from rhesus macaque placentas, including trophoblast and maternal-derived decidua types, and compared them with organoids derived from human placentas. We performed comparative single-cell RNA sequencing to delineate shared and distinct transcriptional signatures between rhesus macaque and human trophoblasts. We further defined the differentiation trajectories leading to the multinucleated syncytiotrophoblast, highlighting both shared and unique transcriptional signatures between rhesus macaque and human placentas. This work establishes novel *in vitro* models of the non-human primate placenta and characterizes distinct trophoblast gene profiles in rhesus macaques and humans, providing insights into interspecies variations in placental biology.

**Introduction**

The placenta lies at the maternal-fetal interface during pregnancy, and both nourishes and protects the developing fetus. Hemochorial placentas are characterized by direct contact between fetal cells and maternal blood. Trophoblasts are fetal-derived cells that are essential for proper formation and function of the placenta. In hemochorial mammals like humans and rhesus macaques, a trophoblast layer called the chorion fuses with the allantois, an extra-embryonic membrane that forms from the embryo's hindgut, to develop a chorioallantoic placenta. As the chorioallantoic placenta has evolved, trophoblasts have been conserved over time[1] and now include a variety of trophoblast populations. In hemochorial mammals, these populations include cytotrophoblasts (CTBs) that can differentiate into other trophoblast subtypes including extravillous trophoblasts (EVTs) and the syncytiotrophoblast (STB). EVTs are located at the villous columns and invade into the decidualized endometrium where the placenta is attached during pregnancy. In early stages of gestation, EVTs remodel the maternal microvasculature to facilitate the entry of maternal blood into the intervillous space. The STB is the multinucleated trophoblast monolayer covering the surface of the hemochorial placenta and is formed by the fusion of mononuclear CTBs. The cellular heterogeneity and complexity of the placenta presents a major challenge to accurately recapitulate placental biology *in vitro*, especially across species.

Rhesus macaques and humans develop morphologically similar placentas that contain comparable cell layers [2]. These similarities, along with the close evolutionary relationship between rhesus macaques and humans, make rhesus macaques an excellent research model to study human placentation and pregnancy. However, despite their similarities, previous studies have identified key differences in the transcriptional signatures between rhesus macaque and human trophoblasts[3]. For example, while human trophoblast populations express markers including HLA-G, SIGLEC-6, and ERVW-1, these markers are absent in the rhesus macaque placenta[4-7]. However, these previous comparative studies were performed using whole placental tissue rather than in distinct trophoblast cell populations.

Organoids are three-dimensional models that often contain the cellular heterogeneity existing within their tissue of origin. Human trophoblast organoids have been validated as a model that accurately recapitulates the cellular heterogeneity within the human placenta and can be propagated and cryopreserved[8-10]. Our laboratory has previously developed human trophoblast organoids (hTO) and decidua organoids (hDO) from full-term placental tissue[10]. These organoids release pregnancy-associated hormones, differentiate to contain key trophoblast subpopulations present in the human placenta, and accurately recapitulate the transcriptional profile of trophoblasts observed *in vivo*[10,11]. Moreover, despite their isolation from full-term tissue, hTOs more closely resemble trophoblasts in first-trimester tissue[10,11]. These qualities make placental organoids a more physiologically relevant model than other *in vitro* models, such as cell lines derived from choriocarcinomas. In addition to tissue-derived organoids, trophoblast stem cells (TSC) have been developed as an *in vitro* model of both the human and rhesus macaque placentas[12,13]. TSC models consist of proliferative mononuclear cytotrophoblasts that do not spontaneously differentiate into trophoblast lineages but instead require exogenous agents (e.g., forskolin) to induce differentiation. While recapitulating aspects of trophoblast biology, there are key differences between tissue-derived TOs and TSCs, with TSC-derived models lacking key transcriptional signatures associated with trophoblast lineages[11,14].

Here, we developed rhesus macaque trophoblast organoids (rTO) and decidua organoids (rDO) from matched late gestation placentas. Morphologically, rTOs and rDOs closely resembled organoids derived from human tissue and expressed canonical markers of placental tissue. Moreover, these organoids recapitulated the hormone release and transcriptional signature of rhesus macaque placental tissue. To characterize the cellular heterogeneity of rTOs, we performed single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) and conducted comparative analyses with hTOs. Using this approach, we defined the transcriptional signatures of distinct rhesus macaque trophoblast populations and identified shared and unique gene signatures in human trophoblasts. Lastly, we compared the differentiation trajectory from CTBs to the STB between rTOs and hTOs

and identified species-specific genes associated with STB formation. Altogether, this work

establishes new *in vitro* models of the rhesus macaque placenta, allowing for direct cross-species

comparisons to model human and non-human primate placentation.

**Results**

**Derivation of trophoblast and decidua organoids from rhesus macaque placentas**

To generate matched trophoblast and decidua organoids, we dissected fetal and maternal tissues

from mid-late third trimester gestation rhesus macaque placentas (143-154 gestational days)

(**Figure 1A**). The architecture of chorionic villi is similar between rhesus macaque and human

placentas, but rhesus macaques exhibit shorter, wider, and less branched villi than do humans

(**Figure 1B**).  To develop rhesus macaque trophoblast organoids (rTOs), we dissected the

chorionic villi and smooth chorion and carefully removed any decidua tissue. The chorionic villi

and smooth chorion were homogenized using similar protocols that were developed previously to

isolate human trophoblast organoids (hTOs) from full-term placental tissue[10]. To develop decidua

organoids (rDOs), we isolated progenitor cells from decidual glands, following a similar approach

as described for human DOs (hDOs). Isolated progenitor cells from the fetal and maternal tissues

were then cultured to develop rhesus macaque placental organoids in previously defined term

trophoblast organoid media (TOM) used for hTOs. Organoids were visible ~5-7 days post-

isolation and were passaged every ~7-10 days (rTOs) or every ~5-7 days (rDOs) once

established. Morphologically, rTOs and rDOs resembled hTOs and hDOs (**Figure 1C**) and could

be propagated long-term (>15 passages) without loss of this morphology (**Figure 1D**). Confocal

microscopy for cytokeratin-19 confirmed the architecture of rhesus macaque organoids, which

were similar to those derived from human placental tissue **(Figure S1A-B)**. Collectively, these

data demonstrate the successful derivation of rTOs and rDOs from rhesus macaque placental

tissue.

**Rhesus macaque-derived placenta organoids secrete pregnancy hormones and express canonical markers**

To examine the localization of canonical trophoblast and decidua markers in rTOs and rDOs, we performed immunostaining using cell-type specific markers. In rTOs, this included the STB marker Syndecan-1 (SDC-1) and the CTB marker integrin alpha-6 (ITGA6). rTOs and hTOs both expressed SDC-1, indicating the presence of the fused STB and ITGA6 representing the mononuclear CTBs **(Figure 1E and 1F).** Unlike hTOs, which develop with an inward facing STB, SDC-1 localization suggested that rTOs developed with an outward facing STB **(Figure 1E and 1F**, **Supplemental Movies 1 and 2)**. Additionally, rDOs expressed decidua gland-associated markers including E-cadherin and the mucin MUC5AC, similar to their expression in hTOs **(Figure 1G and 1H)**.

Human TOs secrete essential pregnancy hormones including human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG)[8,10]. During pregnancy, the rhesus macaque placenta secretes chorionic gonadotropin (mCG) early in pregnancy with a peak occurring at approximately gestation day 22-24[15]. In addition, progesterone is secreted during rhesus macaque pregnancy similar to human pregnancy, with fluctuations throughout gestation[15]. Therefore, we investigated whether rTOs secreted mCG and/or progesterone. To do this, we used two approaches including unbiased mass spectrometry of conditioned medium (CM) collected from rTOs and an established radioimmunoassay[16,17]. For mass spectrometry, we collected CM from three independent wells of rTOs derived from two unique placentas and isolated bands migrating at ~26kD and ~10kD, the approximate size of chorionic gonadotropin A (CGA), on a reducing SDS-PAGE gel (**Figure S1C**). Spectral counts for CGA, which is secreted with CG beta subunits to form mCG, were detected in every conditioned media (CM) sample isolated from rhesus trophoblast organoids (rTOs), with high identification probability (**Figure 1I, 1J**). In contrast, no spectral counts for CGA mapped in any non-conditioned medium (NCM) control samples (**Figure 1I, 1J**). To directly quantify the levels of mCG and progesterone secreted from rTOs, we collected CM from three unique rTOs

131     lines and performed a radioimmunoassay described previously[16,17]. NCM controls were assayed

132     in triplicate and subtracted from rTO conditioned media samples. We found high levels of mCG

133     (>1000ng/mL) and progesterone (>1200ng/mL) in rTO conditioned media, **(Figure 1K)**. Similar to

134     hTOs, rTOs can be passaged long-term without loss of mCG or progesterone secretion.

135           Lastly, we performed bulk RNA sequencing of rTOs and rDOs to assess the expression of

known canonical markers of human trophoblasts or glandular epithelial cells, respectively, and to

verify the absence of contamination of other tissues/cells[10,13]. To do this, we compared the

expression profile of canonical markers of rhesus-derived trophoblasts or decidua epithelial

organoids. We found that rTOs highly expressed trophoblast-specific markers, including PGF,

MMP2, and ITGA5 which were absent or expressed at low levels in rDOs **(Figure S1D)**. We also

found that that rTOs expressed markers of distinct trophoblast lineages including the STB (e.g.,

CGA), CTBs (e.g., FOXO4), and EVTs (e.g., MAMU-AG). Conversely, rDOs expressed markers

associated with the maternal decidua including MUC1, MUC20, and SOX17, which were absent

or expressed at low levels in rTOs **(Figure S1D)**. These results were similar to the differences

observed between hTOs and hDOs **(Figure S1E)**.

146           We next analyzed the transcriptional dataset to identify non-annotated genes associated

with rhesus macaque trophoblasts, which included pregnancy-specific glycoproteins (PSGs).

PSGs have been described in many non-human species, including primates, mice, horses, and

cows[18]; however, the driving forces of evolution of these genes is unclear. Rhesus macaque PSGs

have not been annotated with gene names in the recent *Macaca Mulatta* genome assembly,

*Mmul10*. We identified rhesus macaque PSGs in the rTO dataset by comparing the genome

sequence of unannotated macaque genes to the human genome (hg38) using BLAST. We

identified five PSGs that were also expressed in rTOs **(Figure S1F)**. There are ten identified PSGs

in the human genome that are expressed in hTOs **(Figure S1G)**. Together, these data show that

rTOs and rDOs recapitulate the transcriptional profile of the rhesus macaque placenta and

express cell type-associated markers.

**Single-cell RNA-seq mapping of rTOs reveals comparable cellular heterogeneity to hTOs**

Human TOs self-differentiate to contain many of the major trophoblast cell types present in the human placenta. To determine if rTOs recapitulate trophoblast heterogeneity observed *in vivo*, we performed single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq). In parallel, we performed scRNA-seq from hTOs to directly compare trophoblast populations between rTOs and hTOs. Established lines of rTOs and hTOs were dissociated into single cell suspensions and processed separately to identify cell types present in TOs. A total of 11,916 (rTOs) and 15,766 (hTOs) cells passed quality control and were used for cluster analysis and cell-type specific marker expression analysis following integration to correct for batch effects. Clustering analysis revealed five major cell populations present in both rTOs and hTOs (**Figure 2A**, **2B**) which were distributed similarly across all TO lines (**Figure 2C, 2D, S2A**)**.** To define the specific cellular identity of these clusters, we identified gene enrichment profiles of each cluster and mapped these transcriptional signatures to canonical trophoblast markers[3,13]. Clusters in rTOs included two non-proliferative CTB populations (CTB-1 and -2) which accounted for ~31% and ~20% of all populations respectively, two proliferating CTB populations (CTBp-1 and -2) which accounted for ~24% and ~23%, and one STB population which only accounted for 2% (**Figure 2A, 2C**). Given the multinucleated nature of the STB, it is less represented in scRNA-seq datasets from both tissue and TOs[11]. CTB clusters were enriched in canonical markers including KRT7 and CDH1 whereas CTB-p clusters were enriched in genes associated with proliferation (e.g., MKI67, CCNA2) (**Figure 2E, 2G**). One population of CTBs, CTB-2, was enriched in markers of EVTs including NOTCH2 and NCAM1 but was lacking the fully differentiated EVT marker MAMU-AG (**Figure 2E**). The STB population was enriched in canonical markers including TFAP2A, INSL4, HOPX, CGA, and the endogenous retrovirus fusion gene ERVFRD-1 (**Figure 2E, 2G**). Many genes previously identified in TSC-derived rhesus macaque lineages to be expressed in CTBs (**Figure S2C**) and STB/EVTs (**Figure S2D**) were also expressed in a lineage-specific manner[13]. Unbiased cluster gene enrichment analysis also

demonstrated that as expected, both CTBp clusters were enriched for genes associated with cell

division (e.g., CENPF, CCNB1) and histones (e.g., H1-5, H1-3) (**Figure S2E**). In contrast, the

CTB-1 cluster in rTOs was enriched in gene associated with extracellular matrix (e.g., LAMB3,

LAMC2) and the regulation of MMPs (e.g., TIMP1, TIMP3) whereas CTB-2 was enriched in genes

associated with GTPases and GTP-binding proteins (e.g., ARL15, AGAP1) and NOTCH signaling

(e.g., MAML2, MAML3) (**Figure S2E**). These expression profiles were distinct from genes

enriched in the STB, which included canonical markers (e.g., HOPX, CGA) and several non-

annotated genes (e.g., ENSMMUG00000049714, ENSMMUG00000063643) (**Figure S2E**). Many

of the non-annotated STB-enriched genes are predicted to encode for rhesus macaque CGBs

(ENSMMUG00000040968, ENSMMUG00000063643, ENSMMUG00000049714) and PSGs as

we described above (ENSMMUG00000039210, ENSMMUG00000050799,

ENSMMUG00000047533) (**Figure S2F, S2G**). Previous studies described the expression of

CGBs in macaque trophoblast stem cell lines[13,19] but these studies did not state which specific

CGBs were present. The GO terms and genes associated with population-specific trophoblast-

enriched genes included the regulation of cell locomotion, motility, and migration, actin

cytoskeletal organization and processes (e.g., ACTG1, PFN1, CDC42) in CTB-1 whereas those

associated with CTB-2 were involved in the regulation of GTPase and hydrolase activities (e.g.,

RGL1, SNX13, RALGPS2, ARFGEF1) (**Figure S2H, S2I**). These pathways and genes were

distinct from the STB, in which pathways including protein catabolic processes and

endomembrane system organization were enriched (e.g., FOLRF1, EHD3, RAB11A) (**Figure

S2H, S2I**). STB-associated GO terms and associated genes included catabolic processes,

synaptic vesicle maturation, and protein localization to the plasma membrane (**Figure S2H, S2I**).

These data highlight the distinct cellular processes and functions amongst distinct rhesus

macaque trophoblast populations in rTOs.

Clusters in hTOs included two non-proliferative CTB populations (CTB-1 and -2) which

accounted for ~24% and ~15% of all populations respectively, two proliferating CTB populations

(CTBp-1 and -2) which accounted for ~27% and ~24%, and one STB population which only

accounted for 8% (**Figure 2B, 2D**). Gene enrichment in hTOs was similar to rTOs, with pCTBs

highly enriched for markers of proliferation (e.g., MKI67 and CCNA2), CTBs enriched for

canonical markers (e.g., KRT7 and CDH1), and STBs enriched for canonical marker (e.g.,

TFAP2A, INSL4, HOPX, ERVW-1, and CYP19A1) (**Figure 2F, 2H**). Also like rTOs, one CTB

cluster, CTB-2, expressed markers of undifferentiated EVTs including ITGB1 and expressed low

levels of the canonical EVT marker HLA-G (**Figure 2F**). Collectively, these data define the cellular

composition of rhesus macaque- and human derived-trophoblast organoids and show that these

organoids differentiate into multiple trophoblast lineages.

**Pseudotime analysis reveals STB lineage markers in rTOs**

Trajectory analysis is a powerful tool for defining gene expression changes along the

differentiation of CTBs into the fused STB and can map dynamic gene expression to identify key

regulatory genes and pathways critical for STB formation. To define the STB differentiation

trajectory in rTOs and hTOs, we used the Slingshot algorithm for pseudotime gene expression

inference, establishing the global lineage structure with undefined starting and ending clusters[20].

We then depicted the pseudotime trajectory on the UMAP for the STB lineage in both rTOs

(**Figure 3A**) and hTOs (**Figure 3B**). In both cases, there was a continuous trajectory starting from

CTB-p populations, traversing through CTBs, and then culminating in the STB (**Figure 3A, 3B,**

**Table S6, S7**). Next, we conducted pseudotime expression analysis using tradeSeq in both rTOs

and hTOs. We observed an increase in canonical STB marker genes along the rTO STB

differentiation trajectory, including GCM1 and HOPX (**Figure 3C**). In hTOs, there was an increase

in STB marker genes such as HMOX1, INSL4, and CY19A1 (**Figure 3D**). Canonical markers,

including HOPX, showed increased expression along both the rTO and hTO trajectories (**Figures**

**3E and 3F**). In rTOs, other upregulated genes included the CGB homolog

ENSMMUG00000049714 and the endogenous retrovirus fusion gene ERVFRD-1 (**Figure 3G**),

while transcripts associated with replication (e.g., MKI67) and canonical markers of CTBs (e.g.,

CDH1) were downregulated (**Figure 3G**). Similar trajectories were observed in hTOs, where

CGBs and ERVW-1 were upregulated along the STB trajectory, and MKI67 and CDH1 were

downregulated (**Figure 3D and 3H**). These data define gene expression changes underlying the

differentiation of rhesus macaque CTBs into STBs, offering insights into the molecular

mechanisms driving placental development and evolution.

**Defining trophoblast marker divergence and convergence in rTOs and hTOs**

Next, we integrated scRNA-seq datasets from rTOs and hTOs to perform an evolutionary gene

expression analysis, aiming to identify both divergence and convergence in cell marker

expression between the two species. This analysis revealed five conserved clusters, most of

which were comprised of near-equivalent ratios of rTO- and hTO-derived cells (**Figure 4A**, **4B**).

These populations were conserved across independent rTO and hTO lines (**Figure S3A**).

Clusters expressed canonical markers of CTB-p (e.g., MKI67, TOP2A), CTBs (e.g., CDH1,

KRT7), and the STB (e.g., TFAP2A, HOPX) (**Figure 4C**). Expression of these canonical markers

was conserved in both rTO and hTO datasets (**Figure 4D**). Unbiased gene enrichment analysis

identified select genes defining two CTBp clusters (CTBp-1, CTBp-2), two CTB clusters (CTB-1,

CTB-2) and a single STB cluster (**Figure S3B**). We did not observe a distinct EVT clusters in the

combined dataset but select clusters did express both rhesus macaque and human EVT markers

**(Figure S3C)**. Utilizing the clusterProfiler algorithm that allows for analysis and visualization

functional profile of gene clusters[21], we performed gene ontology enrichment analysis on the

rhesus macaque and human pathways and identified pathways associated with molecular

functions that were enriched in the separate datasets (**Figure S3D-F)**.

We next focused on differential expression in the STB cluster between rTOs and hTOs,

as this cell type is conserved across species; however, the extent to which its expression profile

differs remains largely unknown. We found that there was near-equivalent expression of canonical

STB genes including HOPX, INSL4, CGA, amongst others, in both rTOs and hTOs (**Figure 4E**).

We also observed the expression of orthologs in the STB cluster, including genes such as CGBs

and PSGs that were expressed at similar levels in both rTOs and hTOs (**Figure 4F**). To elucidate

differences in the transcriptional profiles of the STB markers rTOs and hTOs, we performed

pseudobulk differential expression analysis using DeSEq2. This analysis identified differences in

STB-associated transcriptional profiles and highlighted variations in gene expression arising from

differences in annotation and/or gene presence between the human and rhesus genomes **(Figure**

**4G)**. Of the STB markers in the integrated dataset, 15.1% were shared between the two species

**(Figure 4G)**. These markers included prostaglandin growth factor (CAPN6), inhibin subunit alpha

( INHA), and ERVFRD-1) (**Figure 4H**). rTO-specific STB markers accounted for 48.4% of the STB

markers and 27.3% of these genes were found only in the rhesus macaque genome (**Figure 4G**).

hTO-specific STB markers made up 36.6% of the STB markers and 25.9% of these markers were

found only in the human genome (**Figure 4G**). We therefore focused on defining gene expression

conservation and variance from genes conserved in both genomes. This analysis revealed

significant differences in STB marker expression between rTOs and hTOs. For example, the STB

in rTOs expressed the peptide hormone corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH), the transcription

factor ELF4, and the cytokeratin KRT81, amongst others (**Figure 4I, 4J**). In contrast, hTOs were

enriched in genes including CYP19A1, the endogenous retrovirus gene ERVV-1, and the

chemokine CCL5 (**Figure 4K, 4L**). These data illustrate that while there are shared markers within

the STB populations of rTOs and hTOs, there are also species-specific markers in this specialized

cell population.

**Pseudotime analysis uncovers species-specific gene trajectories in the STB lineage**

**between rTOs and hTOs**

Given the significant differences in gene expression profile of STB population between rTOs and

hTOs, we conducted a comparative Slingshot pseudotime trajectory analysis using the integrated

rTO and hTO dataset to infer gene expression along the CTBp to STB differentiation. This

pseudotime analysis revealed a continuous STB trajectory, progressing from proliferative CTB to

non-proliferating CTB and finally to the differentiated STB subtype (**Figure 5A**). STB

differentiation was characterized by increased expression of well-known STB markers INSL4,

PDLIM2, HMOX1, GCN1, and ERVFRD-1, which were upregulated in both rTOs and hTOs

**(Figure 5B, 5C, 5D, Table S8)**. Next, we compared species-specific gene trajectories between

rTOs and hTOs by analyzing the integrated dataset, separating the data by condition. This

analysis revealed species-associated differences in gene expression along the STB trajectory in

rTOs and hTOs. The rTO gene trajectory showed increased expression of PAGE4, SLC2A1,

WNT5A, and NGF in the STB trajectory, while these genes were unchanged or downregulated in

the hTO trajectory (**Figure 5E-5H**). Conversely, SDC3, TGFB1, HSPB1, and ESAM specifically

increased only in the hTO STB trajectory, with no similar increase in rTOs (**Figure 5I-5L**).

Altogether, these findings highlight species-specific differences in gene expression dynamics

along the STB differentiation trajectory.

**Cross-species signaling dynamics in hTOs and rTOs**

Trophoblasts are central to the autocrine and paracrine signaling networks that regulate placental

function and are crucial for maintaining a successful pregnancy. However, whether these

networks differ across species remains largely unknown. To define rhesus macaque and human

trophoblast signaling networks using TOs, we utilized the CellChat package in R[22]. This package

facilitates the inference of cell-cell interactions, helping to uncover communication pathways by

leveraging a comprehensive database of ligand-receptor pairs. To enhance this database, we

expanded it to include endogenous retrovirus-receptor interactions (ERVs), hormone signaling

pathways (e.g., hCG, CSH, PRL), and rhesus macaque-specific interactions (e.g., MAMU-E,

MAMU-AG). We used differential CellChat analysis to identify both shared and distinct signaling

pathways across species using the integrated rTO and hTO dataset. This analysis revealed a total

of 51 communication networks in rTOs and 36 networks in hTOs (**Figure S4A, S4B, Table S9,**

**S10**). These networks spanned both outgoing and incoming signals across all cell clusters

(**Figure 6A**). Next, we defined the patterns of this signaling, which identified the recurring

communication behaviors and networks between cell populations, revealing dominant signaling

pathways and highlighting how these pathways are shared or distinct across different populations.

This revealed four independent signaling patterns in rTOs, which included patterns associated

with individual clusters (Pattern 2-4), as well as patterns shared between clusters (Pattern 1)

(**Figure 6B**). Similarly, three patterns were identified in hTOs, which included those shared

amongst both CTBp and CTB populations (Pattern 1) and those specific to either CTB-2 or STB

(**Figure 6C**).

323            We analyzed the cell-type specificity of signaling pathways across distinct trophoblast

populations and between species. This revealed a high degree of autocrine and paracrine

signaling in all cell populations within both rTOs and hTOs (**Figure 6D**, **6E**). In rTOs, 33% of

networks were shared across clusters, with an additional 23% shared among all CTB populations

but absent in STB (**Figure S4C**). Similarly, in hTOs, 41% of pathways were shared across

populations, with 24% specific to CTB-derived clusters (**Figure S4D**). In both rTOs and hTOs, the

STB was most enriched in unique networks, which accounted for 10% and 5%, respectively, of

total networks (**Figure S4C, S4D**). CTB-associated networks included junction interactions (e.g.,

CDH and JAM) and NOTCH signaling, which were conserved between rTOs and hTOs (**Figure**

**6D, 6E**). The CTB-2 population in both rTOs and hTOs showed enrichment for specific pathways

compared to other CTB clusters, including WNT signaling in both rTOs and hTOs, endothelins

(EDNs) in rTOs, and OCLN in hTOs (**Figure 6D, 6E**). The STB population in both rTOs and hTOs

exhibited the most distinct signaling pathways, including CDH5 and ERVs in both species (**Figure**

**6D, 6E**). Additionally, some signaling pathways were enriched in different cell clusters in a

species-specific manner. For example, CCL signaling was active in both rTOs and hTOs, but the

responsible clusters differed: CTBp-1 in rTOs and STB in hTOs (**Figure 6D, 6E**).

Because we observed differences in trophoblast signaling between rTOs and hTOs, we

used comparative CellChat analysis to identify clusters and ligand-receptor pairs driving these

species-specific variations. Using this analysis, we found that although rTOs and hTOs contained

similar numbers of total signaling interactions, the strength of these interactions was significantly

higher in rTOs (**Figure S4E**). These differences were driven primarily by the CTB-2 cluster

(**Figure S4F**).  Over 50% of pathways were conserved between rTOs and hTOs (**Figure S4G**),

with the highest conservation among CTB populations and the lowest in STB (**Figure S4H**).

Species-specific pathways, including those associated with IGF, EGF, and NCAM, were active

only in rTOs (**Figure 6F, Figure S4G**). We then identified ligand-receptor pairs linked to these

differences, focusing on the STB due to its significant species-related variations. Seven ligand-

receptor pairs were significantly downregulated in the STB of rTOs, particularly in PGF, ERVs,

and CCL signaling (**Figure 6G**). Differences in PGF and ERV signaling were mainly due to the

absence of key genes in rTOs, such as the receptor tyrosine kinase FLT1 and the endogenous

retrovirus fusion gene ERVW-1 (**Figure S4I**). In CCL signaling, while the STB of hTOs highly

expressed CCL5, this chemokine was absent in rTOs, where CCL signaling was instead driven

by CCL2 expression across CTB populations (**Figure 6H, S4I**).   There were 21 signaling

upregulated ligand-receptor pairs in the STB of rTOs, the most significant of which was associated

with IGF signaling (**Figure 6I**). This enrichment was driven by the high expression of IGF2

throughout all clusters in rTOs, which was absent from hTOs (**Figure 6I, 6J, Figure S4J**). These

findings underscore the shared and distinct signaling networks between rhesus macaque and

human trophoblasts.

**Discussion**

Existing *in vitro* models fail to reflect the cellular complexity of the rhesus macaque

placenta. In this study, we established and characterized rhesus macaque placental organoids

using immunostaining, bulk RNA-sequencing, and single-cell RNA sequencing, providing a

detailed transcriptional profile of primate placentation. Our findings demonstrate that rTOs

recapitulate the transcriptional signatures and secretory phenotypes of the rhesus macaque

placenta. Single-cell RNA-seq revealed that these organoids can differentiate into distinct

trophoblast lineages, allowing us to identify and define specific markers for rhesus macaque

trophoblast populations. This model enables comparative analysis of rhesus macaque and human

trophoblasts. Through single-cell trajectory analysis, we uncovered distinct STB differentiation

trajectories between the two species. Lastly, we defined the intra- and inter-trophoblast

communication networks between the human and rhesus macaque placentas, which revealed

conserved and species-specific signaling pathways. Collectively, these findings provide valuable

insights into rhesus macaque trophoblast transcriptional profiles and new models for investigating

primate placentation.

Comparisons of many *in vitro* models of human trophoblasts to *in vivo* tissue have

revealed the limitations of these models[23].  For example, while monolayer cell lines (e.g. BeWo,

JEG-3, and JAR) are easy to culture, they are tumor-derived and do not spontaneously

differentiate into multiple trophoblast lineages. While primary human trophoblasts do differentiate

(e.g., to form fused STB), they have limited proliferation capability and a short life span in cell

culture. TSC models overcome many of these limitations but require exogenous agents (e.g.,

forskolin) for proliferative trophoblasts to differentiate into specific trophoblast populations,

particularly when grown in two-dimensions. Previously described human trophoblast and decidua

organoids have provided a physiologically relevant model of the maternal-fetal interface that is

able to spontaneously differentiate into distinct trophoblast lineages and recapitulate the

transcriptional profile of placental tissue across gestation[8,10,11]. Of note, hTOs derived from late

gestation placental tissue more closely recapitulate the transcriptional signature of the first

trimester placenta[10]. It remains uncertain whether the rTOs described here accurately replicate

the rhesus macaque placenta during the first trimester. Comparative studies to address this

question are challenging due to the limited accessibility of this tissue. However, mCG secretion in

macaques occurs only during the early stages of pregnancy and is undetectable after day 40, suggesting that rTOs most likely resemble the first trimester placenta, as we observed mCG secretion.

There is currently no consensus on confirmed EVT markers in the rhesus macaque placenta. Previous studies have shown that many human-associated EVT markers are present in STB cells in rhesus macaques, complicating the identification of true EVT markers in this species [13]. This underscores the species-specific differences in gene expression between rhesus macaque and human placentas. Thus, organoid models provide a critical tool for cross-species comparisons of specific trophoblast cell types, enabling a deeper understanding of the unique and shared aspects of trophoblast biology in different primates. These models will allow for more accurate characterization of EVT and other trophoblast populations in rhesus macaques and facilitate the identification of reliable markers, which could help to resolve the current uncertainty in the field. Further studies, particularly those using single-cell trajectory analysis and optimized approaches to drive EVT differentiation in rTOs, are needed to confirm the differentiation pathways and molecular signatures of EVT populations in the rhesus macaque. This cross-species approach is essential for advancing our understanding of placental development and function in primates.

In both rhesus macaque and human placentas, the STB plays a critical role in nutrient exchange, hormone production, and immune protection by forming the outermost cell layer of the placenta that interfaces with maternal blood. While the overall function of the STB is conserved across both species, there are differences in structure and cellular dynamics.  In humans, the STB is characterized by an extensive, highly vascularized surface area with numerous microvilli and a uniform, thin multinucleated layer, optimizing nutrient and gas exchange. In contrast, the rhesus macaque STB has a slightly less extensive surface area with a change in phenotype that occurs after implantation has begun[24]. These differences reflect species-specific adaptations in placental structure and function. Our findings demonstrate both similarities and differences in the

gene expression profiles of the STB between rhesus macaques and humans. We observed the

expression of canonical markers of the STB, including HOPX, PGF, and HMOX1, in both rhesus

macaque- and human-derived organoids. These markers, known for their roles in trophoblast

function and placental development, were consistently present across both species, underscoring

the conserved nature of STB gene expression across species. Despite conservation of select

canonical markers, we also identified divergence in the transcriptional profiles of the STB between

rhesus macaque and humans. For example, while PAGE4 is a known CTB marker in the human

placenta, its expression increased along the STB trajectory in rTOs[25]. Additionally, genes such as

WNT5A and NGF, which are involved in STB differentiation in rhesus macaques, were not

observed in humans. These genes have been shown to be upregulated in the rhesus macaque

placenta compared to the human placenta[3]. These findings highlight the complex interplay

between conserved functions and species-specific adaptations in the STB, which might provide

valuable insights into the evolutionary pressures shaping placental biology and offering new

models for further comparative studies.

Placental genes and signaling pathways are conserved along primates, but differences in

gene expression have been observed associated with placental development[3]. While the

placentas of rhesus macaques and humans are both hemochorial and discoid, there are

differences in their development and structure. A key difference is the trophoblast invasion in the

rhesus macaque placenta compared to the human placenta. EVT invasion is crucial for anchoring

the placenta to the uterine wall and remodeling maternal blood vessels to ensure adequate blood

supply to the fetus in both rhesus macaque and human placentas. However, in humans, EVT

invasion is more extensive, penetrating deep into the decidua and myometrium, whereas in

rhesus macaques, the invasion is restricted and localized, reflecting species-specific adaptations

in placental structure and function[24,26]. These structural differences in EVTs may stem from distinct

gene expression profiles and signaling cues between rhesus macaque and human trophoblasts.

For instance, in humans, CCL5 is secreted at the maternal-fetal interface, and its receptor is

expressed on EVTs, playing a crucial role in regulating EVT invasion[27,28]. Our findings align with

this, as hTOs displayed high CCL5 expression specifically in the STB population, while it was

absent in rTOs. This difference in CCL5 signaling may contribute to the observed variations in

EVT structure and function between the two species. Overall, these findings underscore the

evolutionary adaptations in placental development and function that have driven species-specific

reproductive strategies and suggest that species-specific organoids can serve as powerful tools

to elucidate these unique mechanisms.

The studies presented here establish *in vitro* models that enable the detailed

characterization of transcriptional profiles in rhesus macaque placental cell types. Our findings

reveal cell-type specific differences between rhesus macaque and human trophoblasts, offering

new insights into species-specific placental biology. The ability to compare human and rhesus

macaque trophoblast organoids provides a powerful platform to explore the evolutionary

adaptations that have shaped placental development across species. Leveraging these organoids

will allow for a better understanding of the divergent and conserved mechanisms underlying

placental function, offering a unique perspective on the evolution of reproductive strategies in

primates.

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staff at TNPRC.

**Materials and Methods**

**Rhesus macaque samples.** Placental tissues were obtained at Caesarian section from seven third trimester pregnant Indian-ancestory rhesus macaques housed at the Tulane National Primate Research Center (TNPRC). The pregnant females included five rhesus cytomegalovirus (RhCMV)- seronegative dams experimentally infected with two RhCMV strains in early second trimester gestation, and two RhCMV-seropositive dams that were experimentally depleted of either CD8+ T-lymphocytes or CD20+ B-lymphocytes in late first trimester gestation. All animals remained healthy until the time of elective Caesarian section conducted between 141-154 gestation days. All macaques were from the specific pathogen free breeding colony at TNPRC and free of SIV, STLV, Type D retrovirus and herpes B virus. The study was approved by the TNPRC Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) and conducted in accordance with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals at the NIH.

**Human samples.** Human tissue used in this study was obtained from Duke University after approval was received from the Duke University Institutional Review Board (IRB) and in accordance with the guidelines of Duke University human tissue procurement. Human placental tissue used in this study for the generation of organoids was collected from third trimester (38th-41st weeks) from Caesarean sections. Tissue was collected from healthy normal donors and tissue was excluded in cases of fetal anomalies or aneuploidy.

**Derivation and culture of organoids from human and rhesus macaque placental samples.**
Placental tissue was carefully dissected and separated into chorionic villi, smooth chorion, amnion, and decidua separated. The amnion layer was kept intact and peeled from the chorion. To remove decidua from the chorion, isolated chorion tissue was carefully scraped with forceps. Stem/progenitor cells isolation from smooth chorion were similar to full-term chorionic villous isolation previously described[10]. Briefly, dissected tissue was cut into small pieces (1-2mm$^2$) and

sequentially digested with 0.2% trypsin-250 (Alfa Aesar, J63993-09)/0.02% EDTA (Sigma-Aldrich

E9884-100G) and 1.0 mg/mL collagenase V (Sigma-Aldrich, C9263-100MG) on a 37°C stir plate

in small bottles containing stir bars. After the collagenase V digestion, tissue was disrupted

manually by vigorous pipetting with a 5-10mL serological pipette (10-20 times) prior to filtration.

Then pool two digests flow-through and pellet by centrifugation (600g for 6 minutes) and finally

resuspend with ice-cold growth-factor-reduced Matrigel (Corning 356231). Matrigel "domes"

(40ul/well) were plated into 24-well tissue culture plates (Corning 3526), placed in a 37°C

incubator to pre-polymerize for approximately 3 minutes, turned upside down to ensure equal

distribution of the isolated cells in domes for another 10 minutes, then carefully overlaid with 500

µL prewarmed media. For both rTOs and hTOs derivation and culture, the term trophoblast

organoid medium (tTOM) consisting of Advanced DMEM/F12 (Life Technologies, 12634-010)

supplemented with 1× B27 (Life Technologies, 17504-044), 1× N2 (Life Technologies, 17502-

048), 10% FBS (vol/vol, Cytiva HyClone, SH30070.03), 2 mM GlutaMAX$^{TM}$ supplement (Life

Technologies, 35050-061), 100 µg/mL Primocin (InvivoGen, ant-pm-1), 1.25 mM N-Acetyl-L-

cysteine (Sigma, A9165), 500 nM A83-01 (Tocris, 2939), 1.5 µM CHIR99021 (Tocris, 4423), 50

ng/mL recombinant human EGF (Gibco, PHG0314), 80 ng/mL recombinant human R-spondin 1

(R & D systems, 4645-RS-100), 100 ng/mL recombinant human FGF2 (Peprotech, 100-18C), 50

ng/mL recombinant human HGF (Peprotech, 100-39), 10mM nicotinamide (Sigma, N0636-100G),

5 µM Y-27632 (Sigma, Y0503-1MG), and 2.5 µM prostaglandin E2 (PGE2, R & D systems, 22-

961-0) was used. To passage, TOs were digested in prewarmed TrypLE Express (Gibco, 12605-

028) at 37°C for 8 min. Further mechanical dissociation was achieved by manual disruption.

Dissociated TOs were collected and washed by centrifuge, then resuspended in fresh ice-cold

Matrigel and replated as domes at the desired density for continuous culture. For freezing,

overlaid media was aspirated, and organoid-Matrigel domes were resuspended in CryoStor CS10

stem cell freezing medium (STEMCell Technologies, 07930) and frozen at -80 ℃ and then

transferred to liquid nitrogen for long-term storage. For thawing cryopreserved TOs, organoids

were thawed as quickly as possible, diluted with 5 times volume of basic TOM containing

Advanced DMEM/F12, 2 mM GlutaMAX supplement, 10 mM HEPES (Gibco, 15630-106), 1 ×

Penicillin/Streptomycin (Lonza, 17-602E) and centrifuged to pellet. Afterwards, TOs were

resuspended in new ice-cold Matrigel and replated for recovery culture and passaged as

described above.

**Derivation and culture of organoids from human and rhesus macaque decidua samples.**

Decidual tissue was dissected from human and rhesus macaque placenta, and further cleaned

by removing as much as possible those attached chorionic villi prior to the isolation of  decidua

glands-enriched suspension as described previously (Turco et al., 2017b; Turco et al., 2017a,

Yang et al., 2022). Briefly, collected decidual tissues were cut into small pieces then digested in

1.25 U/mL Dispase II (Sigma-Aldrich, D4693)/0.4mg/mL collagenase V (Sigma-Aldrich, C-9263).

Following digestion and pipetting, the decidua glandular structures were filtered out with 100  μm

cell strainer, then collect the glandular structures from strainer and pipette to dissociate them into

small pieces before resuspending with ice-cold growth-factor-reduced Matrigel (Corning 356231),

plated as "domes" in 24-well plates (Corning, 3526), and overlaid with 500 μL prewarmed media.

For decidua organoids Expansion Medium (ExM) was used with the same composition as

previously described[29]. ExM was renewed every 2-3 days. Mature decidua organoids were

passaged by mechanical disruption following TrypLE Express (ThermoFisher Scientific,

12605010) digestion.

**Generation of conditioned media.** Overlaid media was collected from mature organoids after 7-

10 days post-passaging. CM was stored at -20°C. Non-conditioned medium (NCM) was TOM

(described above) that had not been exposed to organoids. All experiments using CM were from

at least two independent TO lines.

**Hormone Secretion Assays.** Conditioned media was collected as described above and a

radioimmunoassay was used to quantify mCG and progesterone secretion in cell conditioned

media as previously described[16,17].

**Mass Spectrometry.** CM was collected from rTOs and submitted to Duke University Proteomics

and Metabolomics Core Facility. SDS-PAGE gel bands were subjected to in-gel tryptic digestion

using standardized protocols[30]. Digested peptides were lyophilized to dryness and resuspended

in 12 uL of 0.2% formic acid/2% acetonitrile. Each sample was subjected to chromatographic

separation on a Thermo Neo Vanquish UPLC equipped with a 1.7 $\mu$m HSS T3 C18 75 $\mu$m I.D. X

250 mm reversed-phase column (NanoFlow data). The mobile phase consisted of (A) 0.1% formic

acid in water and (B) 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile.  3 $\mu$L was injected and peptides were trapped

for 3 min on a 5 $\mu$m Symmetry C18 180 $\mu$m I.D. X 20 mm column at 5 $\mu$l/min in 99.9% A.  The

analytical column was then switched in-line and a linear elution gradient of 5% B to 40% B was

performed over 30 min at 400 nL/min. Data collection on the Fusion Lumos mass spectrometer

with a FAIMS Pro device was performed for three difference compensation voltages (-40v, -60v,

-80v). Within each CV, a data-dependent acquisition (DDA) mode of acquisition with a r=120,000

(@ m/z 200) full MS scan from m/z 375 - 1500 with a target AGC value of 4e5 ions was performed.

MS/MS scans with HCD settings of 30% were acquired in the linear ion trap in "rapid" mode with

a target AGC value of 1e4 and max fill time of 35 ms. The total cycle time for each CV was 0.66s,

with total cycle times of 2 sec between like full MS scans. A 20s dynamic exclusion was employed

to increase depth of coverage.

Raw LC-MS/MS data files were processed in Proteome Discoverer 3.0 (Thermo Scientific)

and then submitted to independent Sequest database searches against a Rhesus Macaque

protein database containing both forward (20260 entries) and reverse entries of each

protein. Search tolerances were 2 ppm for precursor ions and 0.8 Da for product ions using

trypsin specificity with up to two missed cleavages. All searched spectra were imported into

Scaffold (v5.3, Proteome Software) and scoring thresholds were set to achieve a peptide false

discovery rate of 1% using the PeptideProphet algorithm. Raw data were also imported into

Protein Discoverer 3.0 for area under the curve measurements of eluting peptides.

**Immunofluorescence.** Organoids were fixed in 4% PFA for 15 min at room temperature, then

washed in PBS. Organoids were placed in 0.25% Triton X-100/PBS to permeabilize for 15 min at

room temperature. Organoids were washed in 1x PBS and then incubated with the indicated

primary antibodies in PBS at 4°C overnight. Organoids were pelleted by gravity, washed with PBS,

and then incubated for 30 min at room temperature with Alexa Fluor-conjugated secondary

antibodies (Invitrogen). Organoids were washed again with PBS and mounted in Vectashield

(Vector Laboratories) containing 4′,6-diamidino- 2-phenylindole (DAPI) and were transferred onto

microscope slides with large-orifice 200 μL-tips (Fisher Scientific, 02707134). The following

antibodies and reagents were used: cytokeratin-19 (Abcam, ab9221, ab52625), SDC-1 (abcam,

ab128936), ITGA6 (Invitrogen, MA5-16884), E-cadherin (Invitrogen, PA5-85088), Mucin 5AC

(Abcam, ab3649), Alexa Fluor 594–conjugated phalloidin (Invitrogen, A12381).

**RNA extraction and Bulk RNA-seq.** Total RNA was isolated with the Sigma GenElute total

mammalian RNA miniprep kit or Qiagen RNAeasy Mini Kit following the manufacturer's instruction

and using supplementary Sigma DNase digestion. RNA quality and concentration were

determined using a Nanodrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer. For bulk RNA-seq analysis, RNA was

isolated from organoids or placenta tissue as described above. Purified Total RNA was verified by

Thermo scientific Nanodrop one. The libraries were prepared by the Duke Center for Genomic

and Computational Biology (GCB) using the Tru-Seq stranded total RNA prep kit (Illumina).

Sequencing was performed on the NovaSeq 6000 by using 150-bp paired-end sequencing. The

reads were aligned to the human or rhesus macaque reference genome (GRCh38, Mmul10) using

QIAGEN CLC Genomics (v20). Differential expression analysis was performed using the DeSeq2

package in R [31], k-means pathway cluster enrichment for GO Biological processes and principal

component analyses (PCA) was performed using iDEP [32,33]. Heatmaps and hierarchical clustering

was performed in R using the pheatmap package and were based on $\log_2$ RPKM (reads per

kilobase million). Files associated with bulk RNA-seq studies have been deposited into Sequence

Read Archive (PRJNA891648). Principal component analyses were performed using pcaExplorer

in R [34]. Volcano plots were generated using the EnhancedVolcano package in R or in Graphpad

Prism version 9.

**Dissociation of organoids for single cell RNA sequencing.** Organoids were dissociated by

scraping Matrigel domes into 1 mL of pre-warmed TrypLE Express (Invitrogen, 12605036) and

incubating at 37°C for 12 min, swirling the tube every 2-3 min. Dissociated organoids were

pelleted at 1250 rpm for 3 min and re-suspended in 200 µL DMEM containing 10% FBS.

Resuspended organoids were subjected to vigorous manual disruption using a single channel

p200 pipette (Ranin, 17008652) for 3 min followed by the addition of 800 µL of DMEM containing

10% FBS. The disrupted suspension was then passed over a 40 µm filter cell strainer (Corning,

352098). Flow through was then centrifuged at 1250 rpm for 5min and the pellet resuspended in

250 µL of 1x PBS for a final volume of ~300 µL and cell counts of ~1 x $10^6$ cells/mL. Cell viability

was determined using trypan blue and followed by automated cell counting (Biorad TC20

automated cell counter), with all samples containing ~80% minimum viability. Sequencing was

performed on two organoid lines from unique placental tissue.

**Single-Cell RNA-seq Library Preparation and Data Analysis.** Libraries were prepared from

10k total cells using the methods described in the 10x Genomics Single Cell 3' Reagent Kit

Protocol (v2 chemistry, Manual Part #CG00052). Sequencing runs were performed on an Illumina

NovaSeq 6000 (Illumina, San Diego) using an S2 flow cell (Illumina, San Diego), which allowed

for ~61k reads/cell.  Post-processing, quality control, and read alignment to the Mmul10 rhesus

macaque reference genome or to the hg38 human reference genome were performed using 10x

CellRanger package (v6.1.2, 10x Genomics). Gene expression matrices generated by the 10x

CellRanger aggregate option were analyzed using Seurat (version 4.0) in R [35-38]. Cells with at

least 200 and no more than 10,000 unique expressed genes were included in downstream

analysis, and cells with more than 10% mitochondrial reads were excluded from analysis. To

eliminate batch effects, datasets from unique donors were normalized using the *sctransform*

function and integrated using the *FindIntegrationAnchors()* in Seurat (version 4.0) in R [38].

Dimensional reduction was performed using the *RunPCA()* function to obtain the first 20 principal

components, which was determined using *ElbowPlots()* across the first 50 dimensions. To identify

clusters, Louvain clustering (Seurat *FindClusters()* function) was performed, and optimal

resolution was determined using the *clustree()* function[39] on a range of resolutions between 0.2-

1.0, with 0.3 used for downstream analyses. Integration of rTO and hTO datasets was performed

on previously integrated datasets using the Harmony algorithm[40] (v1.0) for batch correction and

alignment. Differential expression analysis between clusters was performed using the Wilcoxon

rank sum test implemented in Seurat's FindAllMarkers() function. Genes with a log2 fold change

> 0.25 and an FDR-adjusted p-value < 0.05 were considered significantly differentially expressed.

Marker genes for each cluster were identified by searching for positively enriched genes using

the aforementioned criteria. All files associated with this single-cell RNA-seq study have been

deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO).

The *slingshot* package (version 2.6.0) in R was used to determine differentiation

trajectories from clusters identified in Seurat with unbiased starting and ending roots[20]. The raw

counts and above-generated slingshot object were used to run *evaluateK()* with the total number

of knots ranging from 3 to 9. The optimal number of knots was determined to be 4. The *fitGAM()*

function using *tradeSeq* (1.5.10) was run with this resulting value and gene expression along

lineages identified using the *associationTest()* function[41]. Heatmaps of expression changes

across lineages were generated using *ComplexHeatmap()* on log transformed counts and

rasterized using the *ImageMagick* "Bessel" filter [42]. The *plotGenePseudotime()* function was used

to visualize raw count gene expression in individual cells across lineages from the *slingshot*

object.

**Statistics and reproducibility.** All experiments reported in this study have been reproduced

using independent samples (tissues and organoids) from multiple donors. All statistical analyses

were performed using Prism software (GraphPad Software). Data are presented as mean ± SD,

unless otherwise stated. Statistical significance was determined as described in the figure

legends. Parametric tests were applied when data were distributed normally based on D'Agostino-

Pearson analyses; otherwise, nonparametric tests were applied. For all statistical tests, p value

<0.05 was considered statistically significant, with specific p values noted in the figure legends.

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813 **Figure 1**

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**Figure 1. Establishment and of rhesus macaque trophoblast and decidua organoids. (A),**
Schematic of the rhesus macaque and human placenta denoting full-term human and mid-late
third trimester rhesus macaque fetal trophoblast and maternal decidua tissues used to generate
matched organoids. Created using Biorender. **(B),** Confocal micrographs of rhesus macaque (top)
and human (bottom) chorionic villi. Cytokeratin-19 is shown in green, actin is shown in red, and
DAPI-stained nuclei are in blue. Scale bar, 100μm. **(C),** Top, brightfield images of representative

decidua organoids of rhesus macaque (left) and human (right). Bottom, representative brightfield
images of trophoblast organoids of rhesus macaque (left) and human (right) trophoblast
organoids. Scale bar, 500μm **(D),** Representative brightfield images of rTOs (top) and hTOs
(bottom). Scale bar, 100μm. **(E, F),** Confocal micrographs of rTOs and hTOs immunostained for
SDC1 (green), ACTIN (red), DAPI-stained nuclei are in black and white on the left, ITGA6 (green),
DAPI-stained nuclei are in black and white on the right. Scale bar, 100μm. **(G, H),** Confocal
micrographs of rDOs and hDOs immunostained for E-cadherin (green), ACTIN (red), DAPI-
stained nuclei are in black and white on the left, MUC5AC (green), DAPI-stained nuclei are in
black and white on the right. Scale bar, 100μm. **(I),** Total Spectrum Counts of Chorionic
Gonadotropin (CGA) in non-conditioned media (NCM) and CM isolated from two independent
lines of rTOs. Each point represents an independent replicate/well. **(J),** Quantification of total
spectrum count and protein identification probability of mCG. **(K),** Secretion of progesterone and
mCG from three unique rTO lines measured by radioimmunoassay. Each point represents an
independent replicate/well.

872    **Figure 2**

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875    **Figure 2. Single cell RNA-seq defines trophoblast cell populations present in rhesus**
876    **macaque and human trophoblast organoids. (A, B),** UMAP of cell type clusters from four lines
877    of rhesus macaque (rTOs, A, n=11916 cells) and four lines of human (hTOs, D, n=15776 cells)
878    trophoblast organoids. Single-cell dataset generated from three unique lines of rTOs and four

unique lines of hTOs. Cell types are denoted as follows: cytotrophoblasts (CTB), proliferative cytotrophoblasts (CTB-p), extravillous trophoblasts (EVT), syncytiotrophoblasts (STB). Multiple clusters of one cell type are annotated using -number after the cell name. **(C, D),** Comparison of the enrichment of distinct cell clusters in rTOs (C) and hTOs (D). **(E, F),** Dot plots showing expression levels of indicated genes in each cluster in rTOs (E) and hTOs (F). The indicated genes are established markers for the syncytiotrophoblast (STB), cytotrophoblasts (CTBs), extravillous trophoblasts (EVTs) and trophoblast progenitor cells (CTB-p). Scale is shown at bottom. **(G, H),** Feature plots of trophoblast marker gene expression in rTOs (G) or hTOs (H). Scale is shown at right.

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931 **Figure 3**

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**Figure 3. Syncytiotrophoblast cell differentiation trajectory in rhesus and human**
**trophoblast organoids.**
**(A,B),** Pseudotime was performed using Slingshot analysis to define cellular lineage
reconstruction across datasets. This illustrates the trajectory of the cell types in the clusters in
rTO (A, right) and hTO (B, right). Pseudotime values were assigned to each cell type and input
into a color scale matching the UMAP based on time 0-100 in rTO (A, left) and hTO (B, left). The
arrow across the UMAP shows the order of the trajectory. **(C, D),** Pseudotime values revealed top
genes correlated to the trajectory in rTO (C) and hTO (D). **(E, F),** HOPX gene expression
increases along the differentiation trajectory to STB subtype in rTO (E) and hTO (F). The cell
types presented are represented by the colors denoted in the legend. Logcounts and pseudotime
values are shown as a color scale present in the legend. **(G),** Normalized expression of
ENSMMUG-49714and CDH1 shown along rTO pseudotime. **(H),** Normalized expression of CGB3
and CDH1 shown along hTO pseudotime.
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949 **Figure 4**

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**Figure 4. Integrated analysis of rhesus macaque and human single cell RNA-seq identifies**
**shared and distinct cellular transcriptional profiles. (A),** UMAP of merged cell type clusters
from integrated datasets rTOs and hTOs (n=27,682 total cells). Three unique lines of rTOs and
four unique lines of hTOs were used with four total samples from each species. Left, merged
UMAP of clusters from rTOs and hTOs. Middle, cells from hTOs and right, cells from rTOs. **(B),**
Cluster enrichment from hTO (left) and rTO (right) present in the integrated dataset. **(C),** Dot plots
of canonical trophoblast markers in each cluster present in the integrated dataset. Key at bottom.
**(D, E),** Canonical trophoblast markers in each cluster (D) or in the STB (E) present in the
integrated dataset separated by species with rhesus in red and human in blue. Key at right. **(F),**
Dot plots of rhesus macaque and human CGBs and PSGs (rhesus in red and human in blue).
Key at right. **(G),** Venn diagram of markers in the rhesus and human STB clusters that identifies

shared and distinct markers. Markers that were shared are shown as genes that are present in
both the rhesus macaque and human genome. Distinct rhesus and human STB markers include
genes that are shared in the rhesus macaque and human genome as well as genes that are
specific to one genome. **(H, I, J, K, L),** Dot plots of shared (H), rhesus-enriched (I) or human-
enriched (K) markers found in the STB cluster separated by rTO and hTO conditions (rhesus in
red and human in blue). Feature plot of CRH (J) and CYP19A1 (L) separated by rTO and hTO
conditions.

**Figure 5**

Figure 5. Comparative single cell RNA-seq reveals distinct STB differentiation trajectories between human and rhesus macaque trophoblast organoids.

**(A),** Pseudotime analysis of the integrated rTO and hTO datasets. The trajectory was mapped onto the UMAP, with pseudotime values assigned to each cell. These values were then visualized using a color scale corresponding to pseudotime progression from 0 to 100 across the integrated dataset. **(B),** Heatmap of the top genes associated with the pseudotime enriched in the combined rTO and hTO trajectory dataset. **(C),** Normalized expression of PDLIM2 and INSL4 shown along integrated pseudotime in the combined dataset. **(D),** Heatmap of genes that increase along the trajectory to the STB subtype in the integrated dataset. The cell types presented are represented by the colors denoted in the legend. Logcounts and pseudotime values are shown as a color scale present in the legend. **(E, F, G, H),** Normalized expression of PAGE4, SLC2A1, WNT5A, and NGF

shown across rTO (on left) and hTO (on right) trajectories. **(I, J, K, L),** Normalized expression of SDC3, TGFB1, HSPB1, and ESAM shown along rTO (on left) and hTO (on right) trajectories.

**Figure 6**

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**Figure 6. Analysis of cell-cell communication networks in rTO and hTO. (A),** Ribbon plot of
all cell-cell communication networks in rTO (top) and hTO (bottom). Plots on the left show the
total number of interactions and plots on the right show the interaction strength among the cell
clusters. **(B, C),** River plots of outgoing communications illustrating signals sent by sender cells
correlating with signaling pathways in (B) rTOs and (C) hTOs. **(D, E),** Dot plot of total incoming
(bottom) and outgoing (top) communication pathways of secreting cells based on clusters in rTO
(left) and hTO (right). Key at right. **(F),** Heatmap of outgoing signals based on cell cluster in hTO
(top) and rTO (bottom). The relative signaling strength is shown by the colorbar. Overall signaling
strength of signaling pathway from each cluster is shown by bar plot at right. Key at right. **(G),** Dot
plots of pathways down-regulated in rTOs relative to hTOs. Key at right. **(H),** Chord diagram of
CCL signaling pathway in rTO and hTO. **(I),** Dot plots of pathways up-regulated in rTOs relative
to hTOs. Key at right **(J),** Chord diagram of IGF signaling pathway in rTOs.
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**Figure S1**

**Supplemental Figure 1. Validation of rTOs and rDOs. (A),** Confocal micrographs of rTOs and hTOs immunostained for CYT-19 (green), ACTIN (red), DAPI-stained nuclei are in black and white. Scale bar, 100μm. **(B),** Confocal micrographs of rDOs and hDOs immunostained for CYT-19 (green), ACTIN (red), DAPI-stained nuclei are in black and white. Scale bar, 100μm. **(C),** SDS-PAGE gel of rTO CM samples. Red boxes indicate bands that were excised and used for mass spectrometry. **(D),** Heatmap (based on $\log_2$ RPKM values) of transcripts expressed in rDOs and rTOs that are associated with markers of rhesus macaque trophoblasts and decidua. Data shown is 2 biological replicates and 2 technical replicates in rTOs and rDOs. **(E),** Heatmap (based on $\log_2$ RPKM values) of transcripts expressed in hDOs and hTOs that are associated with markers of human trophoblasts and decidua. Data shown is 2 biological replicates and 2 technical replicates in rTOs and rDOs. **(F),** Heatmap (based on $\log_2$ RPKM values) of identified pregnancy-specific glycoproteins (PSGs) transcripts expressed in rTOs. Data shown is 3 biological replicates and 2 technical replicates in rTOs. **(G),** Heatmap (based on $\log_2$ RPKM values) of known pregnancy-specific glycoproteins (PSGs) transcripts expressed in hTOs. Key at right. Red indicates high levels of expression, blue indicates low levels of expression, and gray indicates no reads detected. Data shown is 3 biological replicates and 2 technical replicates in hTOs.

1116 **Figure S2**

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1119 **Supplemental Figure 1. Defining cell types in rTO and hTO datasets.** Individual UMAPs from
1120 samples of **(A)** Four rTO samples and **(B)** Four hTO samples. Dotplots of gene expression of **(C)**
1121 cytotrophoblast markers and **(D)** syncytiotrophoblast or extravillous trophoblast markers in rTOs.
1122 **(E),** Dotplot of top 10 markers in each cluster in rTOs. Key at right. **(F),** Dotplot of rhesus CGBs
1123 and PSGs in rTOs (left) and human CGBs and PSGs in hTOs (right). Key at right. **(G),** Combined

feature plots of rhesus CGB (ENSMMUG00000049714) and HOPX (left) and rhesus PSG (ENSMMUG00000047533) and HOPX (right) in rTOs. Key at bottom. **(H),** Top biological processes for CTB-1, CTB-2, and STB clusters in rTOs identified using ClusterProfiler. **(I),** Dot plots of genes associated with top biological processes in CTB-1, CTB-2 and STB clusters in rTOs.

**Figure S3**

1177 **Supplemental Figure 3. Defining cell types in integrated dataset with rTO and hTO. (A),**
1178 Individual UMAP of hTO and rTO samples that comprise that integrated dataset. **(B),** Dotplot of
1179 gene expression of cytotrophoblasts, proliferative cytotrophoblasts, and syncytiotrophoblasts. **(C),**
1180 Dotplot of rhesus macaque and human extravillous trophoblast markers in the integrated dataset

(rhesus are shown in red and human shown in blue). **(D, E, F)** Subset of pathways from GO term enrichment in all clusters in subsetted (D) rTO dataset and (E) hTO (F) integrated rTO and hTO dataset. Venn diagram of markers in the rhesus and human **(G)** CTBp-1, **(H)** CTBp-2, **(I)** CTB-1, **(J)** CTB-2 clusters that identifies shared and distinct markers. Markers that were not shared are shown as genes that are present in both the rhesus macaque and human genome as well as markers that are specific to one genome.

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**Figure S4**

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**Supplemental Figure 4. Comparative Cell Chat Analysis in rTOs and hTOs. (A, B)** Heatmap
of outgoing and incoming signaling pathways based on cell cluster in rTO (A) and hTO (B). The
relative signaling strength is shown by the colorbar. Overall signaling strength of signaling
pathway is shown by bar plot at right. Key at right. **(C,D),** Venn diagram of signaling pathway
identified in each cluster in rTOs (C) and hTOs (D). **(E),** Bar plot illustrating the number of inferred
interactions in rhesus and humans (left) and their interaction strength (right). **(F),** Heatmap of
number of interactions and differential interaction strength in the integrated dataset based on the
cluster that sends the signal. **(G)** Venn diagram of total signaling pathways shared and different
between rTOs and hTOs. **(H)** Venn diagrams depicting the number of shared, rTO-specific, and
hTO-specific signaling pathways present based on cluster. **(I),** Dotplots of genes associated with
PGF, ERVs, CCL and IGF signaling pathways in integrated rTO and hTO dataset separated by
hTO and rTO condition. Key at right.

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1253 **Supplemental Table 1. Metadata of animal study design.**

| Tissue Code | |
|---|---|
| 01 | CMV-seropositive healthy pregnancy; CD8b depleted at 55 days gestation, ~141 days gestation age- elective C-section |
| 02 | CMV-seronegative dams inoculated with FL-RhCMV + RhCMV UCD52 in early 2nd trimester and C-section near term gestation |
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| 04 | |
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| 06 | |
| 07 | CMV-seropositive healthy pregnancy; Anti-CD20 antibody administered for B Lymphocyte depletion at 53 days gestation and elective C-section at 144 days gestation |

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1269 **Supplemental Table 2.** Metadata of trophoblast organoid lines.

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| Experiment | TO code | Gestational age | TOs sex | TO passage number |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bulk RNA-seq of rTOs | rTO02 | 154d | F | P3 |
| | rCO02 | 154d | F | P3 |
| | rCO01 | 141d | F | P2 |
| Bulk RNA-seq of rDOs | rDO01 | 141d | F | P5 |
| | rDO02 | 154d | F | P2 |
| Bulk RNA-seq of hTOs | TO74 | 41w | M | P5 |
| | CO80 | 40w | F | P3 |
| | CO82 | 40w | M | P3 |
| Bulk RNA-seq of hDOs | DO77 | 40w | F | P4 |
| | DO76 | 40w | F | P5 |
| Mass Spectrometry | rCO02 | 154d | F | P3, P4, P7 |
| | rCO05 | 143d | F | P3, P6, P7 |
| Radioimmunoassay | rTO02 | 154d | F | P3, P5, P6, P7 |
| | rTO05 | 143d | F | P6, P7 |
| | rTO04 | 149d | F | P4 |
| scRNA-seq of rTOs | rCO01 | 141d | F | P3 |
| | rCO02 | 154d | F | P2 |
| | rTO02 | 154d | F | P4 |
| | rTO05 | 143d | F | P3 |
| scRNA-seq of hTOs | CO80 | 40w | F | P5 |
| | TO68 | 27w | M | P12 |
| | CO82 | 40w | M | P4 |
| | CO81 | 40w | F | P4 |

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**Supplemental Table 3.** Components of term trophoblast organoid (tTOM) media.

| Media Components | Final Concentration |
|---|---|
| 100X  N2 | 1X |
| 50X B27 | 1X |
| 500X Primocin | 100ug/mL |
| 80X  N-Acetyl-L-cysteine (NAC) | 1.25mM |
| 100X L-glutamine | 2mM |
| 10000X A83-01 | 500nM |
| 10000X CHIR99021 | 1.5$\mu$M |
| 2000X Recombinant human EGF | 50ng/mL |
| 2000X Recombinant human R-spondin1 | 80ng/mL |
| 2000X Recombinant human FGF2 | 100ng/mL |
| 2000X Recombinant human HGF | 50ng/mL |
| 100X Nicotinamide | 10mM |
| 200X Y-27632 | 5$\mu$M |
| 2000X PGE2 | 2.5$\mu$M |
| FBS | 10% (vol/vol) |
| Advanced DMEM/F12 | 1X |

1324 **Supplemental Table 4.** Components of decidua organoid media

| Media Components | Final Concentration |
|---|---|
| 100X  N2 | 1X |
| 50X B27 | 1X |
| 500X Primocin | 100ug/mL |
| 80X N-Acetyl-L-cysteine (NAC) | 1.25mM |
| 100X L-glutamine | 2mM |
| 10000X A83-01 | 500nM |
| 2000X Recombinant human EGF | 50ng/mL |
| 2000X Recombinant human R-spondin1 | 80ng/mL |
| 2000X Recombinant human FGF10 | 100ng/mL |
| 2000X Recombinant human HGF | 50ng/mL |
| 1000X Recombinant human Noggin | 100 ng/mL |
| 100X Nicotinamide | 10mM |
| Advanced DMEM/F12 | 1X |

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1372 **Supplemental Table 5.** Antibodies used for immunofluorescence staining.

| Antibody | Source | Catalog number | Additional Information |
|---|---|---|---|
| Mouse monoclonal Cytokeratin-19 | Abcam | ab9221 | 1:500 |
| Rabbit monoclonal Cytokeratin-19 | Abcam | ab52625 | 1:500 |
| Mouse monoclonal Mucin 5AC | Abcam | ab3649 | 1:500 |
| Rabbit polyclonal E-cadherin | Invitrogen | PA5-85088 | 1:500 |
| Rabbit monoclonal SDC-1 | Abcam | ab128936 | 1:500 |
| ITGA6 | | | |
| Alexa Fluor 594-conjugated phalloidin | Invitrogen | A12381 | 1:1000 |
| Alexa Fluor 488 Goat Anti-mouse IgG secondary antibody | Invitrogen | A32723 | Secondary antibody 1:1000 |
| Alexa Fluor 594 Goat Anti-mouse IgG secondary antibody | Invitrogen | A11032 | Secondary antibody 1:1000 |
| Alexa Fluor 594 Goat Anti-rabbit IgG secondary antibody | Invitrogen | A11037 | Secondary antibody 1:1000 |

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**Supplemental Movie 1**: Three-dimensional reconstruction of a rhesus trophoblast organoid

immunostained for SDC-1 (in green) and cytokeratin-19 (in red). DAPI-stained nuclei are shown

in blue.

**Supplemental Movie 2**: Three-dimensional reconstruction of a rhesus decidua organoid

immunostained for cytokeratin-19 (in green) and E-cadherin (in red). DAPI-stained nuclei are

shown in blue.

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