Defining Cellular Diversity at the Swine Maternal-Fetal Interface Using Spatial Transcriptomics and Organoids

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ABSTRACT

The placenta is a dynamic, embryo-derived organ essential for fetal growth and development. While all eutherian mammals have placentas composed of fetal-derived trophoblasts that mediate maternal-fetal exchange, their anatomical and histological structures vary across species due to evolutionary divergence. Despite the cellular heterogeneity of porcine trophoblasts *in vivo*, understanding the mechanisms driving porcine placental development has been limited by the lack of *in vitro* models replicating this heterogeneity. In this study, we derived swine trophoblast organoids (sTOs) from full-term porcine placentas, retaining key transcriptional signatures of *in vivo* trophoblasts. To identify conserved cell populations, we integrated Visium spatial transcriptomics from mid-gestation porcine placentas with single-cell transcriptomics from sTOs. Spatial transcriptomics revealed novel markers of the porcine uterus and placenta, enabling precise separation of histological structures at the maternal-fetal interface. The integration of tissue and sTO transcriptomics showed that sTOs spontaneously differentiate into distinct trophoblast populations, with conserved gene expression and cell communication programs. These findings demonstrate that sTOs recapitulate porcine placental trophoblast populations, offering a powerful model for advancing placentation research. Our work also provides a spatially resolved whole-transcriptome dataset of the porcine maternal-fetal interface, opening new avenues for discoveries in placental development, evolution, and health across mammals.

INTRODUCTION

The defining feature of eutherian mammals is the presence of the fetal derived placenta. The placenta is critical for fetal growth due to its numerous functions ranging from nutrient transfer[1,2], steroidogenesis[3], and immunological defense[4,5]. While these placental functions are largely maintained across species, the placenta has repeatedly evolved via a combination of convergent and divergent evolution resulting in variable placental morphologies across species[6,7].

Placental structure is commonly categorized by the tissue layers separating the maternal and fetal vasculature[7,8]. In the most invasive placental type, termed hemochorial, the placenta erodes the uterine epithelium and remodels the uterine vasculature resulting in the influx of maternal blood which directly bathes the placental epithelial cells, termed trophoblasts [7]. This type of placentation is observed in many species including humans and rodents. Conversely, porcine placentae are considered the least invasive placental type, termed epitheliochorial. In this system the uterine vasculature, stroma and epithelium remain intact due to a lack of invasion by the trophoblast cells [7]. In this case, the primary contact point for the placenta is the uterine epithelium. Critically, regardless of the placental type or structure, all gas and nutrient transfer must occur across the trophoblast layer [9].

In humans, trophoblasts consist of several subpopulations[10,11]. The three primary classes of trophoblasts include cytotrophoblasts (CTBs), extravillous trophoblasts (EVTs), and the multinucleated syncytiotrophoblast (STB). CTBs represent the mononuclear, proliferative, undifferentiated trophoblast population of the placenta[10] whereas EVTs are highly invasive, immunosuppressive cells, that primarily serve to remodel the maternal spiral arteries[12-14]. Conversely, the STB is a terminally differentiated multinuclear trophoblast population that covers the entire surface of the chorionic villi. They serve dual roles as both a barrier to infection and a critical site layer for nutrient and gas transfer[15,16].

Unlike human trophoblasts, which have been heavily characterized and subtyped, the properties and subpopulations of swine trophoblasts are comparatively unknown, but several lines

of evidence suggest that subpopulations exist. First, the point of contact between the fetal

trophoblasts and uterine epithelium, termed the maternal-fetal interface, is extensively folded to

enhance placental surface area[17]. Along these folds, it has been reported that aquaporins [18] and

various transporters vary in expression[19], suggesting that trophoblast polarization along these

folds occurs. Second, the porcine placenta contains areolae, a cluster of specialized, columnar

trophoblast cells that sit atop uterine glands and facilitate the transfer of uterine gland secretions

to the developing fetus[20]. It is known that areolar trophoblasts are primed to uptake uteroferrin

compared to other trophoblasts[21] and express specific markers, such as cathepsin L1 (CTSL)[22],

suggesting a unique pattern of differentiation.

A major hurdle to furthering our understanding of porcine placentation is the lack of

suitable *in vitro* models. Limited access, coupled with high expense render *in vivo* and *ex vivo*

models challenging. While porcine trophoblast cell lines, such as PTr2[23,24], Jag-1[25], and pTR

cells[26] are available, these cells likely represent pre-implantation trophoblasts. Whether these cell

lines recapitulate later stages of placental development or the cellular heterogeneity observed *in*

vivo remains unclear.

In human and murine systems, organoids have proven to be a valuable tool for studying

complex biological systems in part because they can be cryopreserved, are scalable, and are

often tractable[27]. Furthermore, as organoids spontaneously differentiate into various cell

populations, they represent one of the most physiologically relevant *in vitro* models[27]. We and

others have successfully derived trophoblast organoids from human and non-human primate

(NHP) placentas, demonstrating that they recapitulate the cellular heterogeneity and gene

expression patterns of the human and NHP placenta[28-32]. Because of the success of trophoblast

organoid models, we sought to develop a similar model of the swine placenta. Here, we show the

derivation of swine trophoblast organoids (sTOs) from full-term placental tissue. Our data

demonstrate that sTO can be expanded, passaged, and cryopreserved and recapitulate the

expression of canonical markers of the swine placenta. Using Visium spatial transcriptomics of

mid-gestation swine placentas, we identified the gene signatures of diverse trophoblast

populations *in vivo* and identified novel maternal-fetal crosstalk pathways. By coupling spatial

transcriptomics of whole placentas with single-cell transcriptomics from sTO, we found that

organoids spontaneously differentiated into various trophoblast populations, accurately

replicating their gene signatures. Additionally, we identified gene changes along a differentiation

trajectory in sTOs, revealing signatures associated with the differentiation of distinct swine

trophoblast subpopulations. Taken together, these data demonstrate that sTO provide an

accurate and comprehensive model of the swine placenta, offering a powerful tool for advancing

studies of porcine placentation and reproductive biology *in vitro*.

RESULTS

Derivation and long-term expansion of Swine Trophoblast Organoids

To derive swine trophoblast organoids (sTOs), we collected full-term swine placenta tissue and

applied a similar two-step enzymatic digestion protocol used previously for the derivation of

human TOs (hTOs)[29] (**Figure 1A**). Isolated stem/progenitor cells were resuspended in Matrigel

and allowed to self-organize over a period of 7-10 days until spherical structures, reminiscent of

hTOs, were observed via brightfield microscopy (**Figure 1B, 1C**). Organoids were isolated from

initial wells by picking out single organoids, dissociated them, and then passaging using a

combination of enzymatic and mechanical dissociation. sTO growth was robust and scalable, with

an average propagation interval of 5-7 days. Unlike hTOs, which develop with "mini-cavities" at

their centers[28], sTOs exhibited a denser structure with no visible central cavities, which may reflect

species-specific differences in tissue architecture and cellular organization (**Figure 1C, 1D**).

Similar to hTOs, sTOs could be continuously passaged with no apparent phenotypic changes

(e.g., organoid size, morphology, growth kinetics) and can be cryopreserved and revived. We

successfully derived sTOs from five unique swine placentas with 100% success across all tissues

collected.

A limitation of hTOs is their inverted polarity when grown in Matrigel "domes", resulting in

an inward-facing STB that does not accurately mimic the cellular polarity of the human placenta

in vivo[28]. To define the cellular orientation of sTOs, we performed immunostaining with the tight

junction marker ZO-1, which localizes to the apical surface of swine trophoblasts *in vivo* [33]*.* We

found that sTOs expressed ZO-1, which localized to the inner surface of organoids when grown

in Matrigel (**Figure 1E**). We showed previously that hTOs cultured in suspension grow with more

physiologic polarity, with the STB on the outer surface[28]. Using a similar approach, we found that

sTOs also reversed their polarity when grown in suspension for approximately 48 hours and that

ZO-1 relocalized to the organoid outer surface (**Figure 1F**). sTOs grown in suspension also

displayed a more cystic morphology (**Figure 1G**). This suggests that the polarity of sTOs is easily

reversed, allowing for flexibility in experimental design.

To assess the ability of sTOs to recapitulate tissue-specific gene expression profiles, we

performed principal component analysis (PCA) on bulk RNA sequencing data from sTOs and

publicly available datasets of mid-gestation and full-term placental tissue as well as PTr2 cells,

which is a commonly used as *in vitro* model of swine trophoblasts. This approach allowed us to

compare the global transcriptional landscapes of organoids and their corresponding tissues,

identifying key patterns and similarities that indicate how closely sTOs mimic the native tissue

profile. We found that sTOs were more similar to placental tissue than PTr2 cells, which exhibited

a highly distinct expression pattern than both sTOs and placenta tissue (**Figure 1H**). sTOs also

expressed canonical markers of swine trophoblasts from placental tissue, whereas PTr2 cells did

not (**Figure 1I**). Using a previously established protocol for porcine sex determination which relies

on the expression of key Y-linked genes, we determined that sTO were derived from both male

and female placentae (**Figure 1J**)[34]. Together, these data indicate that sTO are composed of

fetal-derived swine trophoblasts.

Figure 1: Establishment and validation of swine trophoblast organoids (sTO). A) Schematic of sTO derivation workflow. **B)** Representative low magnification brightfield image from a single well of sTO. **C)** High magnification brightfield image of sTO grown in Matrigel. **D)** Representative Hematoxylin and Eosin staining of a sectioned sTOs. **E)** Immunofluorescence microscopy image of sTO grown in Matrigel "domes". Apical marker ZO-1 is in green, DAPI in gray, and Actin in red. **F)** Immunofluorescence microscopy image of sTOs grown in suspension for 48 hours. Apical marker ZO-1 is in green, DAPI in gray, and Actin in red. **G)** Representative brightfield image of sTO grown in Matrigel "dome" (top) and suspension (bottom). **H)** PCA of bulk RNA-seq data from sTO, porcine trophoblast cell line (PTr2), as well as term and mid-gestation pig placentas. Points represent individual biological replicates, whereas circles denote 95% confidence intervals. **I)** Heatmap of known pig placentae markers expressed across PTr2 cells, sTOs, and term pig placentae. Individual columns indicate replicates. J.) Bar-plot showing the summation of RPKM for nine Y-linked genes across 3 individual sTO lines. sTO lines are denoted on the x-axis.

Single-cell Transcriptional Profiling Reveals Cellular Heterogeneity in sTOs

To determine whether sTOs differentiated into multiple trophoblast lineages, we next performed single-cell RNA-sequencing on three unique lines of sTOs. This analysis revealed five cell clusters (**Figure 2A**), with similar proportions across lines (**Figure 2B**). Canonical trophoblast markers including KRT7, KRT18, KRT8, ELF3, and FGFR2 were highly expressed in sTOs (**Figure 2C**) with low expression of the fibroblast markers VIM, PDGFRA, and COL1A1, indicating sTOs are a pure population of trophoblasts (**Figure 2D**). Cluster gene expression enrichment analysis revealed that trophoblast clusters were discernable by cluster-specific gene expression (**Figure 2E, Supplemental Table 1**). For example, cluster 0 was enriched with transcripts such as SOX5 and WNT6, cluster 1 had enriched expression of tight junction-associated genes OCLN and CLDN1, cluster 2 was marked by cell proliferation genes like TOP2A, cluster 3 showed high expression of inflammatory genes including CXCL8 and interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs), and cluster 4 exhibited elevated levels of COX enzymes (**Figure 2E**). Previous studies using *in situ* hybridization and antibody staining have identified markers of both swine interface trophoblasts and areolar trophoblasts[18,22,35]. While we observed expression of these markers within sTO cell populations, they did not fully segregate the trophoblast populations, ultimately limiting the utility of these markers to define the cellular identity of sTO-derived clusters (**Figure 2F**). Of note, we did observe that known pan-trophoblast markers such as CTSB and KRT18 were uniformly

expressed in sTOs suggesting that these various sTO cell populations are distinctive lineages

rather than contaminating cell populations (**Figure 2G**). While this analysis identified several

trophoblast populations in sTOs, the lack of a comprehensive marker list specific to the swine

maternal-fetal interface made it difficult to definitively assign cellular identities to these clusters.

Figure 2: Single-cell transcriptomics of sTOs reveals cellular heterogeneity. A) UMAP from
single cell transcriptomics of 3 independent lines of sTOs. **B)** Stacked bar-plot showing the
relative proportions of various cell populations across three sTO lines. **C)** Violin plot showing the
expression of canonical trophoblast markers in sTO single cell data. **D)** Violin plot showing the
expression of canonical fibroblast markers in sTO single cell data. **E)** Dot-plot showing the top
enrichment markers for various cell populations in sTOs. Color of dots denote average
expression, whereas size represents percentage of cells in a cluster expressing the gene of
interest. **F)** Dot-plot of canonical markers of various porcine trophoblast populations. Color of dots
denote average expression, whereas size represents percentage of cells in a cluster expressing
the gene of interest. **G)** Feature plot showing widespread expression of pan-trophoblast markers
in sTOs.

Visium-Based Spatial Transcriptomics Reveals Cellular Architecture at the Swine Maternal-Fetal Interface

To define the transcriptional signature of various cell populations comprising the porcine maternal-fetal interface, we utilized Visium spatial transcriptomics, which allows for high-resolution spatial mapping of gene expression. We applied this approach to mid-gestation maternal-fetal interfaces (uterus with attached placenta) from four separate pregnancies (2 male and 2 female), enabling the precise localization of gene expression patterns within the tissue architecture (**Figure 3A**). Our analysis identified 10 distinct cell populations among the four placentae analyzed (**Figure 3B, Supplemental Figure 1A**). To assign cellular and regional identities to these clusters, we utilized a combination of known marker expression (**Figure 3C**), histology (**Figure 3D**), and cluster-specific gene enrichment analysis (**Supplemental Table 2**). Notably, the maternal and fetal compartments were also discernable using this clustering technique (**Figure 3E, Supplemental Figure 1B**). The maternal compartment was divided into six clusters: the myometrium, represented by clusters 0 (Myo-1) and 6 (Myo-2); the endometrium, represented by cluster 1 (Endo); blood and blood vessels, represented by clusters 7 (Blood) and 4 (Vasc); and the uterine epithelium, represented by cluster 3 (UtEp) (**Figure 3D, 3F, Supplemental Figure 1C**). The fetal compartment was divided into four cell populations: the interface trophoblasts, represented by cluster 5 (IntTroph); the areolae, represented by clusters 8 (Areola-1) and 9 (Areola-2); and the interstitium, represented by cluster 2 (Ist) (**Figure 3D, 3F, Supplemental Figure 1C**). We observed some degree of sample-to-sample variability, which stemmed primarily from differences in both cellular makeup and tissue structure between sections (**Figure 3G**). Myometrium clusters were primarily defined by the expression of smooth muscle markers, including SMTN, CNN1, ACTG2, MYL9, and MYLK. Blood vessels were characterized by the expression of CLDN11 and CCL21, while blood cells were classified by high levels of ALAS2 and HBM (**Figure 3C**). The endometrium was marked by elevated expression of SLPI and MEP1B, both well-known to be expressed in this tissue (**Figure 3C**). Uterine epithelial cells expressed high

levels of established markers IGFBP2 and IGFBP3, whereas interface trophoblasts showed

elevated expression of pregnancy-stimulated genes (PSGs), PAGE4, PAG2L4, and HSD3B1

(**Figure 3C**). The interstitium cluster was defined by the expression of APOE, PEG10, DLK1, and

GPC3 (**Figure 3C**). Finally, the areola clusters were divided into two histologically and

transcriptionally distinct populations: Areola-1, characterized by high CTSL expression, and

Areola-2, with moderate CTSL expression. Areola-1 also expressed high levels of LIF and

MMP25, while Areola-2 was distinguished by elevated expression of LRP2, CYP11A1, and MMP7

(**Figure 3C, 3H**). Where Areola-2 displayed a structure that is continuous with the interface

trophoblasts, Areola-1 did not appear to be continuous with the interface trophoblasts (**Figure 3D,**

3H, Supplemental Figure 1C), suggesting these distinct structures may have different functions.

Figure 3: Spatial Transcriptomics Resolves Global Expression at the Porcine Maternal-Fetal Interface. A) Schematic of spatial transcriptomics workflow of gestational day 66 (GD66) maternal fetal interfaces (n = 4; 2 male and 2 female). **B)** UMAP showing 10 distinct populations obtained via spatial transcriptomics. **C)** Dot-plot of top markers for each cluster obtained via spatial transcriptomics. Color of dots denote average expression, whereas size represents percentage of cells in a cluster expressing the gene of interest. **D)** H&E staining of individual porcine maternal-fetal interface sections (top). Spatial DimPlot showing the histologic localization of UMAP cluster populations (bottom). Each image represents a separate maternal-fetal interface. **E)** Spatial Dim-plot showing separation of maternal and fetal compartments. Representative maternal-fetal Interface shown. **F)** Spatial Dim-Plot showing the histologic localization of UMAP individual cluster populations. Representative maternal-fetal Interface shown (MFI094). **G)** Stacked bar-plot showing the relative proportion of each cluster across individual maternal-fetal interfaces. **H)** Spatial DimPlot (Left panels) and Spatial Feature plots (Right panels) showing the localization of areola-1 and areola-2 structures (Left panels) and the expression of CTSL (right panels) within representative maternal-fetal interfaces.

Defining Cellular Markers at the Swine Maternal-Fetal Interface Through Spatial Transcriptomics

Using the spatial transcriptomics dataset described above, we analyzed the cellular and molecular landscape of the swine maternal-fetal interface to identify distinct markers associated with specific cell types and regions. This approach enabled us to map the spatial distribution of key genes, including those enriched in select trophoblast populations. To identify trophoblast specific markers, we performed differential expression analysis between clusters containing trophoblasts, (clusters 5, 8 and 9) and all other clusters. This analysis revealed both pan-trophoblast markers, and markers of specific trophoblast populations (**Figure 4A, 4B, Supplemental Figure 2A-E**). Specifically, the genes encoding cathepsin Z (CTSZ) and cathepsin B (CTSB) were highly expressed in both interface trophoblasts as well as areolae trophoblasts, but only weakly expressed elsewhere (**Figure 4A, 4B, Supplemental Figure 2A**). Similarly, the genes encoding carbonic anhydrase 4 (CA4) and pregnancy associated glycoprotein L4 (PAG2L4) demarcated interface trophoblasts (**Figure 4A, 4B, Supplemental Figure 2B**). Areolar trophoblasts universally expressed CTSL (**Figure 3H, Supplemental Figure 2C**); however, areola-1 trophoblasts specifically expressed coiled coil domain containing 162 (CCDC162) and serine peptidase inhibitor kazal type 4 (SPINK4) (**Figure 4A, 4B, Supplemental Figure 2E**). Conversely, areola-2 trophoblasts were marked by an upregulation of matrix metalloprotease 7 (MMP7) and anterior gradient protein 2 homolog (AGR2) (**Figure 4A, 4B, Supplemental Figure 2D**). Notably, all of these highly specific markers were also detected within sTO, with varied expression levels across clusters, suggesting some degree of differentiation across sTO cell populations (**Figure 4C**). Although these markers partially resolved the clusters, their leaky expression across multiple clusters limited our ability to accurately assign cellular identities.

Figure 4: Spatial Transcriptomics Identifies Novel Trophoblast Specific Markers. A) Spatial FeaturePlots showing the localization of known or novel pan-trophoblast markers, interface-trophoblast markers, areola-2 and areola-1 specific markers. Two representative maternal-fetal interfaces are shown. **B)** DotPlot showing expanded markers of various trophoblast populations within the maternal-fetal interface. Color of dots denote average expression, whereas size represents percentage of cells in a cluster expressing the gene of interest. **C)** DotPlot showing the cluster specific expression of known and novel trophoblast markers from (B) in sTOs. Color of dots denote average expression, whereas size represents percentage of cells in a cluster expressing the gene of interest.

Cell Type Deconvolution of Trophoblast Populations in sTOs Using Spatial Transcriptomics

To define trophoblast populations within sTOs, we performed cell type deconvolution by integrating the single-cell transcriptomics dataset from sTOs with the spatially resolved transcriptome of the swine maternal-fetal interface. To do this, we filtered the Visium dataset to only include trophoblast populations, specifically clusters 5, 8, and 9 (**Figure 5A-B**). Next, we integrated the single cell RNA-sequencing data from sTO with the Visium spatial transcriptomics dataset. For cell type prediction, we applied a previously established probabilistic modeling algorithm, which leverages the likelihood of gene expression patterns across datasets to assign

cluster identities in a spatial context. This analysis enabled us to predict the identities of sTO

clusters with high confidence. We found that sTO cluster 0 very strongly mapped to interface

trophoblasts, whereas sTO clusters 1, 3, and 4 map to areola-2 and areola-1 trophoblast clusters

(**Figure 5D-E, Supplemental Figure 3A, 3B**). In contrast, cluster 2 did not exhibit strong mapping

to any structure (**Figure 5D, 5E, Supplemental Figure 3A, 3B**). However, this cluster expressed

high levels of the proliferation-associated genes TOP2A and MKI67, suggesting that it

represented the stem/progenitor cell population, which is likely present at very low abundance in

tissue at the stage of gestation when we were collecting the tissues (**Figure 5F**).

We then identified shared markers between sTO clusters and their corresponding spatial

transcriptomics clusters to determine the gene expression signatures that defined these

mappings. We found that sTO cluster 0 cells expressed 49 markers that were conserved in

interface-trophoblasts, which included AKR1B1, HAVCR1, PLA2R1, and TGM2 (**Figure 5F, 5G,**

Supplemental Table 3). Similarly, sTO cluster 1 expressed 56 shared markers with areola-2

cluster, including cathepsins A and D (CTSA and CTSD), NPL and NUPR1 (**Figure 5F, 5G,**

Supplemental Table 4). sTO cluster 3 had 26 shared markers with areola-2 cluster, with both

clusters highly expressing PSAP, FTL, MDK, and B2M (**Figure 5F, 5G, Supplemental Table 5**).

Conversely, sTO cluster 4 expressed only 14 shared markers to areola-1 cluster, largely including

COX1, COX3, ND4, and CYTB (**Figure 5F, 5G, Supplemental Table 6**). Using this approach,

we were able to assign cellular identities and identify shared gene expression profiles for all

trophoblast populations within sTOs, which were distributed at similar ratios across independent

lines (**Figure 5H**).

Figure 5: Integration of sTOs and Spatial Transcriptomics Datasets Enables Precise Cellular Identification and Classification. A) Spatial Dim-Plot showing facetted clusters from a representative maternal-fetal interface. As shown Areola-1, Areola-2 and Interface-Trophoblasts were included in this analysis. **B)** Stacked bar-plot showing relative proportions of various clusters across individual maternal-fetal interfaces. **C)** UMAP of sTOs clusters obtained via single cell RNA-sequencing (n = 3 lines). **D-E)** Spatial feature plot showing prediction scores for each spot in the spatial dataset subsetted by sTO cluster. Color shown indicates probability that the

classified sTO cluster is localized to a given position within the spatial dataset. **F-G)** Dot-plot
showing the localization of shared markers between the sTO clusters (F) and maternal-fetal
interface clusters (G) Color of dots denote average expression, whereas size represents
percentage of cells in a cluster expressing the gene of interest. **H)** Stacked BarPlot showing the
relative proportion and identity of sTO cell populations.

Pathway Analyses Reveals Conserved Functional Niches of sTO Cell Populations

In vivo, interface trophoblasts and areola trophoblasts have distinct functions. Our data indicated

that sTOs differentiated into both of these populations, yet whether these populations retained

the functional capacity of their *in vivo* counterparts remained unclear. To this end, we examined

the functional pathways active in both sTOs and tissues across trophoblast subpopulations. Given

that IntTroph and Areola-2 clusters had the highest probability scores and shared markers

between sTO and tissue, we chose to focus this analysis on these two clusters. We performed

differential expression analysis between interface trophoblasts and areola-2 trophoblasts, finding

that expressional patterns between these two trophoblast populations were starkly different in

both the tissue and sTO (**Supplemental Figure 4A, 4B**). Using GO-Term analysis we identified

enriched pathways for areola-2 and interface trophoblasts, several of which were enriched in both

sTOs and tissue analysis (**Supplemental Figure 4C-F**). Notably, we found that interface

trophoblasts are enriched in GO terms such as extracellular matrix, focal adhesions, and

angiogenesis (**Supplemental Figure 4C, 1D**). Conversely, areola-2 clusters were enriched

primarily in GO terms surrounding endosome formation (**Supplemental Figure 4E, 4F**).

Expression of various endosome related genes demonstrated that areola-2 clusters in sTOs and

tissue Visium datasets were are highly enriched in endosomal markers, whereas interface

trophoblasts distinctly lack endosomal gene expression (**Supplemental Figure 4G,H**). Taken

together these data demonstrate that sTOs retain at least some key functions of the

corresponding tissue populations, highlighting their utility for studying swine placental biology.

Trajectory Inference Reveals Trophoblast Differentiation Pathways in sTOs

Organoids provide a powerful model for defining differentiation trajectories, as they enable the

study of cell fate transitions from progenitor cells to more differentiated cell states in a controlled

environment. We applied Slingshot trajectory analysis to sTOs to trace the dynamic progression

of trophoblast cells along distinct developmental pathways. To do this, we first subsetted the sTOs

single-cell dataset to include major cell populations, which included proliferating trophoblasts

(ProfTroph), interface trophoblasts (IntTroph), and Areola-2 trophoblasts. We then performed

Slingshot trajectory analysis without predefining a starting or ending cluster along the

differentiation trajectory. This analysis revealed a single differentiation trajectory, starting in

ProfTroph, progressing through IntTroph, and terminating in Areola-2 (**Figure 6A**). To define gene

expression changes along this trajectory, we applied the fitGAM function to model dynamic gene

expression patterns to assess how specific gene expression profiles evolved across the different

stages of trophoblast differentiation. Many genes were temporally regulated along the trajectory,

with some showing distinct patterns of upregulation and downregulation, while others exhibited

cyclical regulation across the different stages of trophoblast differentiation (**Figure 6B,**

Supplemental Figure 7). Notably, TOP2A, HMGB2, and PRC1 were strongly downregulated

along the trajectory, suggesting a loss of a proliferative capacity as differentiation progresses

(**Figure 6B, 6C**). In contrast, GRN and ITM2C, both of which are known to be expressed in the

swine placenta, were markedly increased in expression in IntTroph, but then became

downregulated in the Areola-2 differentiated state (**Figure 6D, left**). Similarly, several genes

including NUS1, NUPRR1, SQSTM1, and ARF4 all increased in expression at the terminal areola-

2 differentiation stage (**Figure 6E, 6F**, left). To validate these findings from the trajectory analysis

of sTOs, we compared the gene expression patterns to the Visium spatial transcriptomics data.

This comparison revealed a high level of concordance between the temporally regulated markers

identified in sTOs and their expression in corresponding tissue structures, further confirming that

sTOs effectively recapitulate the differentiation processes observed *in vivo* (**Figure 6D-F,**

Supplemental Figure 5A-F).

Figure 6: Trajectory Analysis Reveals the Differentiation Pathway of Swine Trophoblasts.
A) UMAPs showing Slingshot calculated trajectory of trophoblasts within sTO. Top panel shows the trajectory across labeled clusters, whereas bottom panel shows the trajectory across a pseudotime. **B)** Heatmap showing temporally regulated genes across the calculated pseudotime trajectory. Individual columns represent individual cells that are ordered along the calculated pseudotime. Identities are positions along the pseudotime are shown above the heatmap. **C)** Representative expression plots showing gene expression changes along the calculated pseudotime that are enriched in the proliferative stem cell population. **D)** Representative expression plots and spatial feature plots showing genes that are enriched during the transition to Interface-Trophoblasts and their expression pattern within our spatial transcriptomics dataset. **E-F)** Representative expression plots and spatial feature plots showing genes that are enriched during the transition to Areola-2 trophoblasts and their expression pattern within our spatial transcriptomics dataset.

Cell-Cell Interaction Networks at the Swine Maternal-Fetal Interface Through Comparative

Analysis of sTOs and Spatial Transcriptomics

Maternal-fetal crosstalk has been widely studied in human pregnancy, where it plays crucial roles in nutrient exchange, immunological tolerance, and successful placentation[36-38]. Recent evidence suggests that similar communication processes take place in the peri-implantation porcine embryo and the maternal endometrium, highlighting the importance of defining these interactions in the swine placenta[39,40]. To delineate communication networks at the swine maternal-fetal interface, we used CellChat to define cell-cell signaling pathways and assess how well these interactions are recapitulated in sTOs. CellChat is based on a comprehensive dataset of known ligand-receptor pairs, using their expression to infer communication between cells. In spatially resolved data, CellChat also incorporates the physical distance between tissue sites, filtering out interactions that are unlikely to occur due to the spatial separation between these sites. This analysis revealed extensive crosstalk in sTOs (**Figure 7A**) and in maternal-fetal interface tissue (**Figure 7B**). In sTOs, the strongest communication was observed from Areola-1, Areola-3, and interface trophoblasts (IntTroph), which exhibited interactions with all other populations (**Figure 7C**). In tissue, the myometrium (Myo, which was merged into a single cluster for this analysis) and the vasculature (Vasc) were responsible for the most robust communication, while the interstitium (Ist), endometrium (Endo), Areola (merged into a single cluster), and IntTroph showed the weakest number of communication networks (**Figure 7D**). Notably, all maternal clusters were able to crosstalk with the fetal trophoblast populations except the myometrium and vasculature (**Figure 7B, 7D**).

Using CellChat, we classified both outgoing and incoming signaling patterns in tissue and sTOs. This analysis revealed similarities and differences in communication networks between the two datasets, offering insights into conserved signaling pathways and cell-cell interactions. We identified three distinct communication patterns within sTOs: pattern 1, associated with Areola-1, IntTroph, and proliferating trophoblasts (ProfTroph); pattern 2, exclusive to Areola-3; and pattern

3, specific to Areola-2 (**Figure 7E**). Each pattern corresponded to distinct communication

networks, with LEP and NEGR in pattern 1, NCAM and IGF in pattern 2, and NECTIN, ESAM,

and EGF in pattern 3 (**Supplemental Figure 6C, 6D**). In the spatial dataset, pattern 1

communication was shared between the uterine epithelium (UtEp), blood, and endometrium

(Endo); pattern 2 was restricted to Myo; and pattern 3 was shared among fetal-derived

populations, including the Ist, IntTroph, and Areola (**Figure 7F, Supplemental Figure 6A, 6B**).

Next, we analyzed CellChat datasets to identify shared and distinct communication

networks between trophoblasts in sTOs and spatial tissue. Notably, several pathways enriched in

the fetal compartment of the spatial dataset were also enriched in sTOs, particularly the Granulin

(GRN) and Midkine (MK) pathways (**Figure 7G-7N**). In tissue, both areola and interface

trophoblasts acted as senders and receivers for MK and GRN pathways (**Figure 7G, 7K**). While

GRN signaling between interface and areola trophoblasts was not detected in tissue, autocrine

signaling within areola trophoblasts was observed (**Figure 7G**). Spatial transcriptomics confirmed

the expression patterns of these ligand-receptor pairs, consistent with CellChat predictions

(**Figure 7H, 7L**). In sTOs, a similar pattern emerged, with areola and interface trophoblasts acting

as senders and receivers for GRN and MK pathways (**Figure 7I, 7M**). The cellular heterogeneity

of sTOs allowed us to detect differences in signaling capacity among areolar trophoblast

populations, with Areola-3 being the dominant sender of MK signaling due to higher MDK

expression (**Figure 7M**, **7N**). sTOs also effectively recapitulated GRN signaling pathways,

consistent with the tissue data (**Figure 7I, 7J**). In sTO, Areola-1, interface trophoblasts, and

proliferative trophoblasts were the primary senders of GRN, largely due to their higher GRN

expression, with Areola-2 as the main receiver (**Figure 7J, 7N**). Furthermore, as observed in the

tissue, areolar trophoblasts did not send GRN signals to interface trophoblasts in sTOs (**Figure

7I**). Taken together, these findings indicate that sTOs replicate key signaling networks present in

the porcine placenta.

Figure 7: sTOs Recapitulate Crosstalk Pathways Within the Swine Placenta. A) Chord diagrams showing the number (Left panel) and strength (right panel) of calculated inter-cluster interactions within sTO. **B)** Chord diagrams showing the number (Left panel) and strength (right panel) of calculated inter-cluster interactions within the porcine maternal-fetal interface. **C)** Heatmap showing the number (left panel) and strength (right panel) of interactions between clusters within sTO. Color indicates increased number (left) or strength (right) between the sending cluster and the receiving cluster. **D)** Heatmap showing the number (left panel) and strength (right panel) of interactions between clusters within the porcine maternal-fetal interface. Color indicates increased number (left) or strength (right) between the sending cluster and the receiving cluster. **E)** Heatmap showing patterns signaling patterns within sTO. Left panel shows outgoing signaling patterns whereas the right panel shows incoming signaling patterns. Color indicates how strongly a given cluster aligns with a specific pattern. **F)** Heatmap showing patterns signaling patterns within the porcine maternal-fetal interface. Left panel shows outgoing signaling patterns whereas the right panel shows incoming signaling patterns. Color indicates how strongly a given cluster aligns with a specific pattern. **G-J)** Plots showing GRN signaling within both sTO and the maternal-fetal interface. G) Diagrams showing GRN signaling within the maternal-fetal interface. Left panel shows a chord diagram, whereas the right panel shows the spatial localization of these interactions. H) Spatial feature plot showing the localization of GRN pathway specific genes. I) Chord diagram showing GRN signaling within sTO. J) Dotplot showing the cluster specific expression of GRN pathway gene expression in sTO. Color of dots denote average expression, whereas size represents percentage of cells in a cluster expressing the gene of interest. **K-N)** Plots showing MK signaling within both sTOs and the maternal-fetal interface. K) Diagrams showing MK signaling within the maternal-fetal interface. Left panel shows a chord diagram, whereas the right panel shows the spatial localization of these interactions. L) Spatial

feature plot showing the localization of MK pathway specific genes. **M)** Chord diagram showing MK signaling within sTO. **N)** DotPlot showing the cluster specific expression of MK pathway gene expression in sTO. Color of dots denote average expression, whereas size represents percentage of cells in a cluster expressing the gene of interest.

DISCUSSION

US agricultural commodities from swine account for approximately $62 billion in added economic value and is heavily reliant on successful animal husbandry[41]. In all eutherian mammals, including swine, successful placentation is critical for fetal growth and survival[7]. Therefore, understanding non-human placental function, development, and defenses is critical for ensuring continued reproductive success. While there is growing interest in studying non-human placentation, the lack of appropriate models remains a major hurdle. We and others have demonstrated that trophoblast organoids derived from human placentae are a critical tool for the study of human placentation due to their ability to be passaged, cryopreserved, and to recapitulate human trophoblast heterogeneity[28,30,42]. Here, we report the establishment of sTOs, which recapitulate key aspects of the swine placenta.

We show that sTOs can be derived from full-term swine placentae, enabling model establishment without the need to sacrifice animals. Like hTOs, sTO can be expanded, cryopreserved, and successfully recovered, making them an ideal *in vitro* model. Current models, such as PTr2 cells, contain a unique expressional profile to swine placental tissue, and express low levels of several trophoblast markers. We show here that sTOs express high levels of the trophoblast markers KRT18, ELF3, and GATA3, and an expressional signature more consistent with swine placentae. Importantly, sTOs cultured within Matrigel spontaneously form an interiorly localized apical surface that is reversible by culturing in suspension, thereby allowing for customization of this model. Together, our data suggest that sTOs better recapitulate the transcriptional signature of swine placental tissue than currently available *in vitro* models.

As discussed previously, the swine placenta is distinct from the human placenta at both a structural and cellular level[7]. In humans, placental trophoblasts fall into several distinct

subpopulations including CTBs, EVTs, and the STB, all of which have distinct roles in the

formation of the hemochorial placenta[7]. In the epitheliochorial placenta, such as those found in

swine, there is no direct contact between maternal blood and fetal trophoblasts, which

theoretically could limit the efficiency and molecular breadth of nutrient transfer to the developing

fetus[7,8]. To facilitate this exchange, the highly folded interface expresses various nutrient

transporters and aquaporins[18,19]. Further, the porcine placenta contains a specialized structure

known as an areola, which is a dome like cluster of trophoblasts that sit atop uterine glands[20].

These structures, which have a peak density of approximately 2500 per placenta[43], collect and

transfer maternally-derived histotroph to the fetus as a nutrient source. Indeed, previous studies

have indicated that areola surface area is directly correlated with fetal growth, further supporting

their critical role in nutrient acquisition[43]. Interestingly, areola structures have been noted in many

ungulates, including hippopotamuses[44], dolphins[45], and llamas[46], suggesting that areola are

critical for fetal growth across species. Several studies have indicated that these porcine

trophoblast subpopulations have some degree of cellular heterogeneity *in vivo.* It is known that

along placental folds of the interface, expression of various transporters varies. For example,

GLUT1 and GLUT8 have opposing expression profiles, with GLUT1 being located at the base of

the folds and GLUT8 being localized to the tip of the folds[35]. Similar spatially localized gene

expression has been observed for aquaporins[18]. Additionally, trophoblasts localized to the areola

have increased expression of CTSL, AQP5, and ITGB3 relative to other trophoblast

populations[18,22,47]. How these various populations differentiate and develop is largely unknown,

primarily due to the lack of an *in vitro* model that provides this cellular heterogeneity without the

need to consistently access fresh tissue.

We and others have previously demonstrated that in human trophoblast organoids, there

is extensive cellular heterogeneity, indicating that trophoblast organoids spontaneously

differentiate into the various trophoblast populations of the placenta[28-30,48]. Single cell RNA-

sequencing of sTO revealed similar cellular heterogeneity within this organoid model. While

previous studies have identified markers of various trophoblast subpopulations in swine

placentae[18,22,35], these markers were insufficient to segregate sTO cell populations. Using Visium

spatial transcriptomics of mid-gestation swine maternal-fetal interfaces, we defined the

transcriptomic landscape of swine trophoblast populations *in situ*. By coupling a single cell

RNASeq dataset from sTOs and Visium spatial transcriptomics dataset from swine placentae, we

were able to assign identities to sTOs populations using an unbiased probabilistic modeling

approach. Simultaneously, we identified a shared gene expression profile between sTO cell

populations and their corresponding placental cell populations. Using this approach, we

demonstrate that sTOs contain a proliferative stem cell population, an interface trophoblast

population and three areola trophoblast populations. Critically, this approach allowed for robust

identification of cell populations in an unbiased manner.

Using trajectory analysis, we defined how sTOs gain their heterogeneity. Using Slingshot,

we demonstrate that proliferative stem cells differentiate into interface trophoblasts, which can

then differentiate into areola-2 trophoblasts. This analysis uncovered numerous expression

changes throughout the differentiation process, including novel targets like ITM2C and NUPR1,

which could be investigated in future mechanistic studies to enhance our understanding of swine

placental development. Having defined the expressional changes along this trajectory, we then

confirmed their localization in tissue finding high concordance between sTOs and tissue level

expression, suggesting a shared trajectory between these two systems. By comparing global

gene expression changes in sTO derived interface trophoblasts and areola-2 trophoblasts we go

on to show that these two populations display starkly different functional niches, with interface

trophoblasts being primed to form focal adhesions and promote angiogenesis, whereas areola-2

trophoblasts were enriched in programs for the formation of endosomes. It is noted within the

literature that areola trophoblasts contain a high number of intracellular vesicles, presumably to

facilitate transport of histotroph across this epithelial barrier[20]. As expected, when we examined

the expression of key endosome markers within the tissue and sTO, we observed similar patterns

of expression, with endosome markers expressed at a higher level in areola-2 cells compared to

interface trophoblasts. Together, these data demonstrate that sTOs recapitulate the

developmental and functional differences in trophoblast populations observed in the porcine

placenta, highlighting their utility in studying porcine placental development.

While integrating sTO and spatial datasets allowed for robust cell cluster identification,

parallel analyses enabled us to further explore the functional similarities between sTOs and

placental tissue. Applying CellChat to these datasets revealed that several key signaling

pathways are conserved between sTOs and placental tissue. For example, the Midkine (MK) and

Granulin (GRN) pathways, represented pathways that showed a high degree of intra-placental

communication in placental tissue. These pathways, which have been shown to be active in the

placenta and critical for fetal and placental development, were similarly highly active within sTO[49-

53]. Importantly, sTO recapitulated autocrine and paracrine signaling patterns observed in placental

tissue, highlighting their utility as a physiologic model. Although we did detect crosstalk between

proliferative stem cells and other trophoblasts within sTO, these events were not observed within

the Visium dataset due to the low occurrence of stem cells within the tissue. Due to their high

abundance within sTO we were able to capture crosstalk events in this rare population,

highlighting the utility of sTO in defining novel crosstalk events in rare cell populations.

Previous studies have used single cell RNA-sequencing to characterize the porcine uterus

and embryos[39,40,54]. However, these studies rely on existing markers to assign cellular identity,

lack histological structural context, do not provide spatial segregation of gene expression

signatures, and were not performed at a gestational stage where critical structures, such as the

areola, are present. Our data robustly define the expression profiles of various histological

structures at the swine maternal-fetal interface. By mapping gene expressions directly to

corresponding histological structures, we confirmed cellular identities without relying on

conventional markers, making this assignment unbiased. Moreover, using mid-gestation swine

maternal-fetal interfaces, we were able to characterize the expression profiles of key structures,

including the areola and the interface, which have previously eluded detailed analyses. This

dataset provides new insights into placental biology that were not achievable with earlier

approaches.

Demonstrating the utility of this spatially resolved dataset, we identified two

transcriptionally and structurally distinct areola populations within the porcine placenta: Areola-2,

which appears continuous with the interface trophoblasts, and Areola-1, which is localized

primarily to the placental interstitium without evidence of direct contact with the interface. This

finding emphasizes the power of spatial transcriptomics in revealing previously unrecognized

cellular diversity within within structurally complex tissues such as the placenta. While both

clusters expressed high levels of the known areola marker CTSL[22], these clusters had divergent

gene expression profiles with Areola-2 expressing high levels of MDK, CTSD, PAG2L2 and

Areola-1 expressing high levels of CCDC162, SPINK4, and MMP25. While it remains unclear why

these two areola populations exist, previous results[22] have shown that histologically similar CTSL

positive structures exist within the porcine placenta. It is possible that these represent areola at

different stages of development, with Areola-1 representing a more mature population due to its

higher expression of CTSL and its increased size. Together, these findings highlight the power

and utility of the spatial transcriptomic dataset in advancing our understanding of the fundamental

biology of the porcine placenta.

Our work offers a comprehensive characterization of spatial gene expression in the

porcine placenta and successfully establishes an organoid model that captures its cellular

heterogeneity. However, limitations include the resolution of Visium spatial transcriptomics, which

does not allow for single-cell level definition of histological populations. For example, the identified

Visium clusters may represent a mixture of gene expression profiles but nonetheless captures

the dominant signals of key structures and cell populations. For instance, although we observed

some overlap in marker expression between uterine epithelium and trophoblast populations,

these clusters still separate along the interface. Moreover, the populations are strongly

represented by known markers, indicating that despite resolution constraints, this technique

effectively segregates distinct populations and provides robust biological insights. Another

limitation of this study is that we focused on a single mid-gestation timepoint. While this provides

valuable insights into the biology of the porcine placenta during this stage, it limits our ability to

assess dynamic changes in cellular composition and signaling across different stages of

gestation. While previous studies have highlighted that human trophoblast organoids represent

first trimester tissue[29,31], our bulk RNA-seq data demonstrated that sTOs have similar expression

to porcine placentae regardless of gestation. It remains possible that early or later gestation

placentae would have mapped with higher probabilities to sTO populations enabling more robust

identification. Future studies aimed at capturing multiple gestational timepoints in the porcine

placenta are therefore warranted. While the data presented here demonstrate the utility and

strength of spatial transcriptomics, they represent only a portion of the insights generated in this

study. The thousands of spatially resolved genes and pathways identified provide a valuable

resource for advancing porcine reproductive biology. To facilitate broader access, we have

developed a user-friendly web-based app, enabling researchers without advanced computational

resources to explore and analyze the data (see data availability statement for further details)

Taken together, our study describes the derivation of an organoid model that recapitulates

the cellular heterogeneity and functionality of the swine placenta. Additionally, we provide a

spatially resolved expression landscape of the swine maternal-fetal interface, creating a valuable

resource for the study of non-human placentation. The ability to map gene expression directly to

histological structures offers unprecedented insights into the cellular dynamics of the porcine

placenta, setting a new benchmark for comparative placental biology research. These findings

have the potential to significantly advance our understanding of placental biology across

eutherians, offering a critical framework for studying key aspects of maternal-fetal communication

and placental development. Moreover, the organoid model and spatial transcriptomic data will

serve as foundational tools for exploring mechanisms of placental function and dysfunction, with

broader implications for reproductive biology and veterinary medicine.

METHODS

Animal Husbandry and Tissue Collection

Tissue Collection for sTO Derivation

Placentae for swine trophoblast organoids (sTO) were collected from crossbred sows consisting

of Yorkshire, Large White, and Landrace breeds from the North Carolina State University (NCSU)

Swine Educational Unit (SEU), which is a facility free from Porcine Reproductive and Respiratory

syndrome virus (PRRSV), swine influenza A virus and mycoplasma species. The average

gestation length of sows at the SEU is 114.2 +/- 1.3 days. At SEU older parity sows (n = 2; parity

5) that didn't farrow by 114 days were induced using 2mL of Lutalyse (Dinoprost tromethamine

injection, Zoetis) intramuscularly, whereas gilts (n=1) were allowed to farrow naturally. Placentae

collected from gilts or sows were placedin ziploc bags containing Dulbecco's Modified Eagle

Medium (DMEM, Cytiva Hyclone cat. # SH30081.01) supplemented with 10% inactivated fetal

bovine serum (FBS, Biowest #S1620 Heat Inactivated, USDA approved origin), 1100 IU/mL

penicillin, 1100 mg/mL streptomycin (Cytiva Hyclone 100x solution, #SV30010), 2 mM L-

glutamine (GIBCO 100x 200mM, #A2916801), Amphotericin B 2.5 µg/ml (Gibco, Fungizone,

15290-018)). Placentae were collected under experimental procedures approved by the NCSU

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) ID# 22-122-B (n=2, gilts, IM Lutalyse

injection) or via normal farrowing activities performed in NCSU SEU (n=3))

Tissue Collection for Visium Spatial Transcriptomics

Animal procedures carried out in compliance with Purdue University's animal care policies and

approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC Protocol #2104002130),

and as previously described [55]. In short, a total of n=3 commercial landrace/large white composite

gilts, were selected from the Animal Sciences Research and Education Center (ASREC) at

Purdue University, synchronized with oral progestogen (Altrenogest at 17.6 mg/day for 14 days).

Following withdrawal, the gilts were heat checked twice daily with an intact boar, and artificially

inseminated 12 hours after the first observed lordosis responses, and every 24 hrs there after

until the end of estrus. Pregnancy was confirmed via transcutaneous ultrasound on gestation day

30-35. Gilts were fed a standard gestation diet comprised of corn, soybean meal and dried

distillers grain, and formulated to meet the dietary requirements as outlined by the NCR. On

gestation day 65 (relative to first artificial insemination) pregnant gilts were stunned with a

penetrating captive bolt and euthanized via rapid exsanguination. The gravid uterus carefully

extracted though a midline incision and linearized such that each fetus and its corresponding

placenta could be isolated. Sections of the maternal fetal interface were collected adjacent to the

umbilical stump and a roughly 1 cm^2 section of intact placenta (maternal and fetal tissue) was

excised, embedded in optimal cutting temperature media (OCT) (Tissue-Plus OCT Compound;

Fisher Scientific)and slowly cooled to cryogenic temperature using dry ice.

Derivation, culture, and passaging of sTO

sTOs were derived using a previously established method used for the derivation of human

trophoblast organoids[29]. Briefly, placentae were extensively rinsed with Phosphate Buffered

Saline (PBS) 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). Digested tissue was then disrupted by pipetting up and down vigorously ~10 times with

10 mL serological pipette (VWR, 89130-898; MSP, 62-1005-10) and pooled prior to washing with

Advanced DMEM/F12 medium (Life Technologies 12634-010). Pelleted digests were then

resuspended in ice-cold growth-factor reduced Matrigel (Corning 356231). Matrigel 'domes'

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

incubator to pre-polymerize for ~3 min, turned upside down to ensure equal distribution of the

isolated cells in domes for another 10 min, then overlaid with 500 µL prewarmed term trophoblast

organoid medium (tTOM).

tTOM consisted of Advanced DMEM/ F12 (Life Technologies, 12634-010) supplemented with 1×

B27 (Life Technologies, 17504-044), 1× N2 (Life Technologies, 17502-048), 10% fetal bovine

serum (FBS) (vol/vol, Cytiva HyClone, SH30070.03), 2 mM GlutaMAX supplement (Life

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

cysteine (Sigma-Aldrich, 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), 10 mM nicotinamide (Sigma-

Aldrich, N0636-100G), 5 µM Y-27632 (Sigma-Aldrich, Y0503-1MG), and 2.5 µM prostaglandin E2

(PGE2, R&D systems, 22-961-0).

Cultures were maintained at 37° C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO2. Medium was

renewed every 2–3 days. Small trophoblast organoid spheroids became visible by approximately

7-10 days post isolation. Derived sTO were passaged every 5–7 days depending on their size

and density. To passage, spent media was removed from sTO and fresh Advanced DMEM/F12

added to the well. Domes were disrupted using a pipet tip and pelleted via centrifugation. Pellets

were then digested in prewarmed TrypLE Express (Life Technologies, 12605- 028) at 37° C for

5–7 min. Pelleted organoids were then further dissociated manually using a P200 pipette by

vigorously pipetting approximately 200-300 times. Dissociated sTOs were pelleted and

resuspended in fresh ice-cold Matrigel and replated as domes at the desired density for

continuous culture. All experiments described in this paper were performed in sTOs under

passage 15 to limit potential passage level effects.

For cryopreservation, sTOs were grown to high density and spent media was aspirated.

CryoStor CS10 (Stem Cell Technologies; # 07930) was then added 1mL per 'dome' and domes

disrupted using a p1000 pipette. Organoids were then transferred to a sterile cryovial and

gradually frozen to -80°C using a CoolCell (Corning). After 24 hours vials were transferred to

vapor phase liquid nitrogen for long term storage. To thaw cryopreserved organoids, cryovials

were rapidly thawed (<2min) in a 37°C water bath with gentle agitation. Freezing media and

organoids were then transferred to a 15mL conical and resuspended 9mL of prewarmed

Advanced DMEM/F12. Organoids were then pelleted and resuspended in ice cold Matrigel and

seeded into 'domes' in 24 well plates. Fresh tTOM including 5 µM Y-27632 (Sigma-Aldrich,

Y0503-1MG) was added prior to incubation for 24-72 hours at 37°C with 5% CO_2. sTO were then

passaged as described above.

Reversal of sTO Polarity

To reverse organoid polarity, we utilized a previously established protocol we developed to invert

hTOs[28]. Briefly, spent media was removed and 1mL of ice-cold cell recovery media (Corning Cat#)

added to each well. Domes were gently disrupted using a P1000 and organoids transferred to a

15mL conical. Organoids were incubated for 30 minutes on ice to dissolve Matrigel prior to being

washed twice using 1x DPBS. Organoids were then resuspended in 500mL of prewarmed TOM

and plated into ultra-low binding 24 well plates. Organoids were incubated statically at 37°C with

5% CO_2 for 48 hours prior to usage.

Histology and Immunofluorescence Staining of sTOs

Mature organoids were fixed using 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 15 minutes and subsequently

washed with PBS. Histology was performed by HistoWiz Inc. (histowiz.com) using a Standard

Operating Procedure and fully automated workflow. Samples were processed, sectioned at 5µm.

Whole slide scanning (40x) was performed on an Aperio AT2 (Leica Biosystems). For

immunofluorescence staining, whole mount staining of organoids was performed using previously

described methods with some modifications. Briefly, organoids were removed from PBS and

permeabilized for 10 minutes in a permeabilization buffer consisting of 0.5% Triton X-100 and 1%

Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) in PBS. Organoids were then pelleted and stained overnight using

a ZO-1 antibody conjugated to AlexaFluor 488 (Santa Cruz) at a dilution of 1:50 in

permeabilization buffer. The organoids were then pelleted and washed twice in PBS, prior to

staining with Phalloidin conjugated to AlexaFluor 633 (Thermo) according to manufacturer's

instructions. Organoids were then pelleted and washed twice in PBS prior to mounting with

Vectashield containing DAPI. Slides were then imaged using Olympus Fluoview FV3000 inverted

confocal microscope and images processed using FIJI. Brightfield images of whole organoids

were obtained from fresh, mature, unfixed wells using a Keyence BZ-X810 all-in-one fluorescence

microscope

Bulk RNA-Sequencing of sTO

RNA Isolation, Library Prep, and Sequencing

Total RNA was isolated with the Sigma GenElute total mammalian RNA miniprep kit (Cat #

RTN350-1KT) or Qiagen RNAeasy Mini Kit (Cat #74104) 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 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 500 by using 75-bp paired-end sequencing.

For PTr2 cells, raw reads from a previously published study were downloaded from the Sequence

Read Archive (SRA): SRR16912824, SRR16912825, and SRR16912827. Similarly, raw reads for

GD60, GD90, and L0 tissues were downloaded from SRA: SRR6703668, SRR6703669,

SRR6703670, SRR6703671, SRR6703672, SRR6703673, SRR6703674, SRR6703675,

SRR6703676, and SRR6703677.

Bulk RNA-seq Analysis

Raw reads were aligned to the swine genome (susScr11) using QIAGEN CLC Genomics (v20).

Reads per kilobase per million mapped reads (RPKMs) were compiled from all samples and

imported into R for analysis. The packages tidyverse, magrittr, pheatmap, rio, factoextra, ggforce,

tidyheatmap, and DESeq2 were utilized for analysis. Principal component analysis was performed

using RPKMs with confidence ellipses indicating a 95% confidence interval. Heatmaps were

made using pheatmap and tidyheatmap, with row scaling and hierarchical clustering of both rows

and columns. For sex determination analyses an established protocol for sexing pigs using bulk

rna-sequencing data was utilized, with minor modifications [34]. Briefly, the summation of the

following 9 Y-linked genes: EIF2S3Y, ZFY, KDM5D, EIF1AY, DDX3Y, LOC100625207,

LOC110257894*,* LOC110255257*,* and LOC110255320*.* Summation scores below 2 are

considered female, whereas scores above 2 are considered male.

Single-Cell RNA-Sequencing of sTOs

sTO from three independent lines (STO01, STO02, and STO04) were grown to high density using

the method above. Spent media was removed from the wells and fresh Advanced DMEM/F12

added to the well. Domes were disrupted using a pipet tip and pelleted via centrifugation. Pellets

were then digested in prewarmed TrypLE Express (Life Technologies, 12605- 028) at 37° C for

10-15 min. Pelleted, digested organoids were then further dissociated using a 23G needle

aspirating and ejecting 3 times. For STO01 and STO04 a dead cell removal step was performed

(Miltenyi Biotech catalog #: 130-090-101) per manufacturer's instructions. Disassociated sTO

were then filtered through a 40um cell strainer, which was subsequently washed using 4mL of

Advanced DMEM/F12. Pelleted cells were then resuspended in fresh Advanced DMEM/F12 and

placed on ice until viability counts were performed.

Libraries were prepared following standard 10x Genomics Single Cell Gene Expression 3'

protocols. Samples containing highly viable cells (80% viability or higher), were washed and

filtered through 40μm filter and resuspended in a 1x PBS / 0.04% BSA buffer, at a concentration

of 1000 cells/μL. A Cellometer K2 instrument (Nexcelom - Lawrence, MA) was then used to

determine the concentration of the single cell suspension. Cells were then suspended in master

mix containing reverse transcription (RT) reagents using a volume equivalent to the target capture

number of 10,000 cells (plus approximately 60% overage to account for capture efficiency of the

assay). This master mix was loaded onto the 10x microfluidics chip, together with gel beads

carrying the Illumina TruSeq Read 1 sequencing primer, a 16bp 10x barcode, a 12bp unique

molecular identifier (UMI) and a poly-dT primer, and oil for the emulsion reaction. The Chromium

X instrument was then used to generate gel beads in emulsion (GEMS) for the RT and barcoding

of single cells. After the RT reaction, the GEMs were broken, full length cDNAs were cleaned with

Silane Dynabeads, and then amplified via PCR. Following purification using SPRI bead size

selection the cDNAs were assayed on a 4200 TapeStation 4200 High Sensitivity D5000

ScreenTape (Agilent - Santa Clara, CA) for qualitative and quantitative analysis.

Enzymatic fragmentation and size selection were used to optimize the cDNA amplicon size for

the sequencing library preparation in which Illumina P5 and P7 sequences (San Diego, CA), a

sample index, and TruSeq read 2 primer sequence are added via end repair, A-tailing, adaptor

ligation, and PCR. The final libraries contained P5 and P7 primers used in Illumina bridge

amplification. Following additional purification libraries were assayed for quality, using a

TapeStation HSD1000 ScreenTape, then quantitated and checked for successful adapter ligation

with the KAPA Library Quantification Kit (Roche-Indianapolis, IN). Sequences were generated

using paired end sequencing on an NovaSeq X Plus, at ~62k reads/cell.

Analysis of Single Cell Data

QC and Cluster Analysis

FASTQ   files   were   uploaded   to   the   10X   Cloud   Analysis   website

(https://www.10xgenomics.com/products/cloud-analysis) and analyzed using cellranger v7.1.0

using Sus scrofa genome v11.1 downloaded from Ensembl (www.ensembl.org). Mapped files

were downloaded through command line and filtered feature matrices utilized for secondary

analyses in R using a Seurat based pipeline [56]. Briefly, the packages Seurat v4.4.0, SeuratObject

v5.0.1, and SeuratWrappers v0.2.0, devtools 2.4.5, dplyr v1.1.4, harmony v1.2.0, and patchwork

v1.2.0, were used for analysis. Individual imported filtered feature matrices underwent filtering for

to only include cells with nFeatures falling between 2500-15000, nCounts lower than 200,000,

percent mitochondrial reads falling between 0.05-1, and percent ribosomal reads lower than 3.

Matrices were then merged, and individually normalized using SCTransform, regressing percent

mitochondrial reads, percent ribosomal reads, nFeatures, and nCounts. Integration of the data

was then performed on the SCT normalized data using SelectIntegrationFeatures (nFeatures =

4000),   PrepSCTIntegration,   FindIntegrationAnchors,   and   the   IntegrateData   commands.

Dimensional reduction using RunPCA and RunUMAP was then performed using the top 30

dimensions, followed by cluster analysis (FindNeighbors and FindClusters) at a resolution of 0.2.

Prior to subsequent analyses, where indicated, the RNA assay was normalized and scaled

(NormalizeData and ScaleData, and ALRA (RunALRA) mediated imputation of the data was

performed as previously described. Marker identification was performed using the FindAllMarkers

function using the ALRA assay, with a minimum fold change threshold of 0.25 and detected in a

minimum of 0.25 of cells.

Pseudotime Analysis

The differentiation trajectories from Seurat-identified clusters were determined using the Slingshot

package (version 2.6.0) in R, with unbiased selection of starting and ending points[57]. The raw

RNA count data and the generated Slingshot object were then utilized to run the evaluateK()

function, testing a range of 3 to 9 knots. The optimal number of knots was determined to be 4.

Subsequently, the fitGAM() function in tradeSeq (version 1.5.10) was applied using this optimal

value, and lineage-specific gene expression was identified through the associationTest()

function[58]. Heatmaps of expression changes along the lineages were created using

ComplexHeatmap() on log-transformed counts, and were rasterized using the "Bessel" filter in

ImageMagick[59]. Finally, the plotGenePseudotime() function was used to visualize raw count gene

expression across individual cells along the lineages derived from the Slingshot object.

Differential Expression and GO-Term Analysis

To perform differential expression between clusters, the FindMarkers function was utilized setting

the LogFoldChange threshold to 0.01. Significant hits were defined as having a Log2FoldChange

of at least 0.25 and a p-value < 0.01. GO-Term was performed using DAVID pathway analysis

Significant hits were then input into the Database for Annotation, Visualization

and Integrated Discovery (DAVID; https://david.ncifcrf.gov/home.jsp) and GO-Terms exported.

Significantly enriched GO-Terms were defined as GO-Terms with a p-value <0.05 after Bonferroni

correction.

CellChat Analysis for sTOs

Cellchat for sTO were performed using previously established methods[60,61]. Briefly, interaction

inputs, complex inputs, cofactor inputs, and gene info inputs were downloaded from CellChatDB

and cellchat objects were created using the ALRA assay. Overexpressed genes and interactions

were then identified using the identifyOverExpressedGenes and

identifyOverExpressedInteractions functions and gene expression projected onto a protein-

protein network using projectData. Communication probabilities were then calculated using the

computeCommunProb function. Communications were then filtered to include interactions

including a minimum of 10 cells (filtercommunication function) and probabilities calculated using

computeCommunProbPathway function. Aggregated networks were then calculated using

aggregateNet and centrality calculated using netAnalysis_computeCentrality function. Patterning

analysis was performed first by selecting a number of patterns using the selectK function, which

was assigned based on when the which Cophenetic and Silhouette values droped suddenly.

Pattern plots were generated using the identifyCommunicationPatterns function. Additional plots

were generated using standard methods as described in detailed scripts.

Spatial Transcriptomics of Mid-Gestation Pig Placentae

Tissues embedded in optimal cutting temperature (OCT) compound were sectioned at 10 μm

thickness and placed on a Tissue Optimization (TO) Slide to determine optimal permeabilization

conditions. After establishing the conditions, tissue sections were positioned within a 6.5 mm²

capture area on an expression slide containing 5,000 spatially barcoded probes. The tissues were

subsequently fixed and stained with Hematoxylin and Eosin. Following staining, the tissues were

permeabilized to release mRNA, which hybridized to the spatially barcoded capture probes,

enabling the capture of gene expression data. Barcoded cDNA was synthesized on the slide from

the captured mRNA, denatured, cleaved, and transferred into a PCR tube for amplification. The

amplified cDNA was then used to generate standard next-generation sequencing (NGS) libraries.

In brief, the amplified cDNA was enzymatically fragmented, purified, and size-selected.

Sequencing adapters were ligated to each fragment, followed by sample index PCR. The resulting

libraries were sequenced on a NovaSeq6000 SP flow cell with an average of 50,000 reads per

probe, using a 28x10x10x90 read format.

Analysis of Visium Data

QC and Cluster Analysis

FASTQ files were analyzed using Spaceranger v2.1.1 using Sus scrofa genome v11.1 downloaded from Ensembl (www.ensembl.org). Filtered feature matrices were then utilized for secondary analyses in R using a Seurat based pipeline [56]. Briefly, the packages Seurat v4.4.0, SeuratObject v5.0.1, and SeuratWrappers v0.2.0, devtools 2.4.5, dplyr v1.1.4, harmony v1.2.0 and patchwork v1.2.0 were used for analysis. Individual imported filtered feature matrices underwent filtering for to only include cells with nFeatures falling above 200 and percent ribosomal reads lower than 20. Matrices were then merged, and individually normalized using SCTransform, regressing percent ribosomal reads, nFeatures, and nCounts. Integration of the data was then performed on the SCT normalized data using SelectIntegrationFeatures (nFeatures = 3000) and remerged using Merge_Seurat_List. Variable features were then obtained using VariableFeatures and dimensional reduction and cluster analysis performed using RunPCA on the top 50 dimensions. Cluster analysis was then perfomed using FindNeighbors (top 30 dimensions), FindClusters (resolution of 0.3), and RunUMAP (top 30 dimensions). Prior to subsequent analyses, where indicated, ALRA (RunALRA) mediated imputation of the data was performed as previously described. Marker identification was performed using the FindAllMarkers function using the ALRA assay, with a minimum fold change threshold of 0.25 and detected in a minimum of 0.25 of cells.

Probabilistic Modeling Based Identification of sTO Clusters

To identify the cluster identities in sTO we utilized a previously established method to map single cell data to visium spatial transcriptomics data [56,62]. Briefly, visium spatial transcriptomics data were first subsetted to only include structures known to contain trophoblasts, which reduces non-specific signal. Visium data were then set to the SCT data, whereas sTO single cell data were set to the integrated assay. Probabilistic transfer of labels was then performed using

FindTransferAnchors and TransferData functions, using sTO data as a reference and subsetted

visium data as the query. To identify shared markers between sTO and their corresponding tissue

structures, marker lists for the integrated assay of sTO assay and the SCT assay of the visium

data were generated using FindAllMarkers with a minimum fold change threshold of 0.25 and

detected in a minimum of 0.25 of cells. Individual sTO clusters and their corresponding tissue

structure clusters were then filtered and the lists inner joined to generate shared marker lists.

CellChat Analysis for Visium

Cellchat was performed using previously established methods using the packages CellChat and

NMF [60,61]. Briefly, interaction inputs, complex inputs, cofactor inputs, and gene info inputs were

downloaded from CellChatDB and cellchat objects were created using the ALRA assay.

Overexpressed genes and interactions were then identified using the

identifyOverExpressedGenes and identifyOverExpressedInteractions functions. Communication

probabilities were then calculated using the computeCommunProb function. Interactions were

corrected for both distance and cell to cell contact, with the maximum diffusion

interaction/diffusion length being set to 250um and the cell spot center to spot center range being

set to 100um. Communications were then filtered to include interactions including a minimum of

10 cells (filtercommunication function) and probabilities calculated using

computeCommunProbPathway function. Aggregated networks were then calculated using

aggregateNet. Patterning analysis was performed first by selecting a number of patterns using

the selectK function, which was assigned based on when the which Cophenetic and Silhouette

values droped suddenly. Pattern plots were generated using the identifyCommunicationPatterns

function. Additional plots were generated using standard methods as described in detailed scripts.

DATA AND CODE AVALIABILITY

All code is publicly available on the Coyne Lab Github (https://github.com/CoyneLabDuke). All raw and mapped data obtained via Bulk RNA-Sequencing, Single Cell, and Visium Spatial Transcriptomics data generated in this paper are deposited on the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) and additionally are available via the Sequencing Read Archive (SRA). Additionally, a searchable, user-friendly version of the Visium Spatial Transcriptomics dataset has been uploaded at https://coynelab.shinyapps.io/myshinyapp/.

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