

Single-cell analysis of embryoids reveals lineage diversification roadmaps of early human development

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SUMMARY

Despite its clinical and fundamental importance, our understanding of early human development remains limited. Stem cell-derived, embryo-like structures (or embryoids) allowing studies of early development without using natural embryos can potentially help fill the knowledge gap of human development. Herein, transcriptome at the single-cell level of a human embryoid model, which recapitulates aspects of lineage diversification and three-dimensional tissue architecture of the human embryo from the implantation to the onset of gastrulation, was profiled at different time points. Molecular maps of lineage diversifications from the pluripotent human epiblast towards the amniotic ectoderm, primitive streak / mesoderm, and primordial germ cells were constructed and compared with *in vivo* primate data. Similarly, chimpanzee embryoids were generated and profiled to reveal transcriptome dynamics during the early post-implantation chimpanzee development. Our comparative transcriptome analyses reveal a critical role of NODAL signaling in human mesoderm and primordial germ cell specification, which is further functionally validated. Through comparative transcriptome analyses and validations with human blastocysts and *in vitro* cultured *cynomolgus* embryos, we further proposed stringent criteria for distinguishing between human blastocyst trophectoderm and early amniotic ectoderm cells. Altogether, this study provides new knowledge of the lineage diversification roadmap of early human development and will serve as a valuable resource for studying human development.

KEYWORDS

Human embryoid, single-cell transcriptome, NODAL signaling, primate development, amnion, primitive streak, primordial germ cell, mesoderm, trophoblast, microfluidics

INTRODUCTION

Development of multicellular organisms is one of nature's greatest triumphs. Development is a tightly orchestrated process, following stereotypic lineage diversifications and morphogenetic tissue patterning events in a precise spatiotemporal order. Scientists commonly use animal models to study the key transcriptional and signaling activities that underlie pattern formation, morphogenesis, cell differentiation, and tissue growth (Gilbert, 2000; Schoenwolf, 2020; Solnica-Krezel, 2020). However, cross-species genetic and morphological divergence is evident between humans and commonly used animal models (Rossant, 2015; Rossant and Tam, 2017). To address this issue, there is a significant current interest in improving *in vitro* culture protocols of human and non-human primate (NHP) monkey embryos for experimental observations and mechanistic studies (Deglincerti et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2019; Niu et al., 2019; Shahbazi et al., 2016; Xiang et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2021). However, experimentations on human and NHP monkey embryos remain challenging due to limited access to and bioethical constraints on these natural specimens (Clark et al., 2021; Hyun et al., 2016; Lovell-Badge et al., 2021). As such, knowledge of human development remains limited; this is particularly true for early post-implantation human development, when the basic human body plan is laid down and when the human embryo *in vivo* is at its most inaccessible phase for experimentation.

Recently, stem cell-derived embryo-like structures (or embryoids) that could recapitulate certain aspects of mammalian early embryogenesis are emerging as tractable experimental tools for studying human development (Beccari et al., 2018; Harembaki et al., 2019; Harrison et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2021; Moris et al., 2020; Rivron et al., 2018; Shao et al., 2017a; Shao et al., 2017b; Simunovic et al., 2019; Warmflash et al., 2014; Xue et al., 2018; Yanagida et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2019a; Zheng et al., 2019b). Particularly, we have recently developed a human pluripotent stem cell (hPSC)-based embryoid, termed post-implantation amniotic sac embryoid (PASE), that appears to recapitulate different developmental events of the early post-implantation human embryo in a three-dimensional (3D), human-relevant tissue architecture (Shao et al., 2017a; Shao et al., 2017b). These developmental events include landmarks of the development of the epiblast (Epi) and amniotic ectoderm (AM) parts of the human embryo, including lumenogenesis of the Epi and the resultant pro-amniotic cavity, symmetry breaking of the Epi sac to form the bipolar amniotic sac, and specification of primordial germ cells (PGCs) and primitive streak cells (PSs). By using controllable microfluidic

tools, we have further successfully developed a microfluidic PASE (μ PASE) system (Zheng et al., 2019b), allowing the development of PASEs in a highly controllable, reproducible and scalable fashion.

To fill the critical knowledge gap of early post-implantation human development, herein we studied transcriptome dynamics during the progressive development of μ PASE at the single-cell resolution using single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) and provided detailed analyses of cell lineage diversifications, developmental trajectories, regulatory networks and signaling pathways involved in this previously unexplored yet critical stage of human development. We also developed chimpanzee μ PASEs using chimpanzee PSCs and profiled their transcriptome using scRNA-seq. The scRNA-seq data from human and chimpanzee μ PASEs were compared with recently published data from a Carnegie Stage 7 (CS7) human gastrula (Tyser et al., 2021) and those from *in vivo* and *in vitro* cultured human and NHP monkey embryos (Ma et al., 2019; Nakamura et al., 2016; Sasaki et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2021). Our comparative transcriptome analyses reveal the developmental coordination among different primate species and further highlight a critical role of NODAL signaling in mesoderm (Meso) and PGC specification, which was further functionally validated. To address current confusions in distinguishing between human early AM cells *vs.* blastocyst trophectoderm cells, we established stringent criteria for identifying these two lineages by profiling and comparing related transcriptomes from *in vivo* samples (Blakeley et al., 2015; Petropoulos et al., 2016; Tyser et al., 2021), and further evaluated the authenticity of related cells included in different human embryoids and *in vitro* differentiation protocols. Finally, we proposed a few cell fate markers that could be utilized to reliably distinguish human early AM and blastocyst trophectoderm cells and further validated expression of these markers using *in vitro* fertilization (IVF) human blastocysts and *in vitro* cultured NHP monkey embryos. Altogether, our scRNA-seq datasets and related analyses as well as experimental results from both *in vitro* and *in vivo* models provide new insights into the lineage diversification roadmap of early human development and will serve as a valuable resource for studying human development.

RESULTS

Single-cell transcriptomic profiling of μ PASE development

The microfluidic device for generating μ PASEs consists of three parallel channels, partitioned by evenly spaced supporting posts (Zheng et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2019b). Preloaded Geltrex in the central gel channel forms concave gel pockets between adjacent supporting posts during gelation. Singly dissociated hPSCs are loaded into the cell loading channel and are guided to form individual cell clusters in each concave gel pocket. After initial clustering of hPSCs (designated as $t = 0$ h), culture medium in the device is switched to a basal medium comprised of Essential 6 and FGF2, with BMP4 further supplemented only into the cell loading channel (**Figure 1A**). Development of μ PASE involves successive cell morphogenetic and lineage specification events that recapitulate early post-implantation human development up to the onset of gastrulation (**Figure 1A**) (Zheng et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2019b). Specifically, owing to their intrinsic lumenogenic property, each hPSC cluster undergoes lumenogenesis and epithelization to establish apical-basal polarity and form a single central apical lumen by $t = 12$ h (**Figures 1B and S1A**). hPSCs exposed directly to exogenous BMP4 stimulation in each cluster initiate amniogenesis, evidenced by continuous flattening of cell morphology, resolving into a thin layer of squamous amniotic cells (**Figure 1B**). Inductive effects of AMLCs in the μ PASEs lead to hPSCs at the opposite pole to undergo epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) and gastrulation-like events (Zheng et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2019b), with gastrulating cells disseminating away from μ PASEs from $t = 36$ h onwards (**Figure 1B**), leading to disintegration of the μ PASE structure. By $t = 48$ h, the μ PASE contains only AMLCs, MeLCs and PGCLCs, without the presence of EpiLCs (**Figures 1B and 1C**).

To investigate dynamics of μ PASE development at the transcriptome level, single-cell suspensions of μ PASEs at $t = 24$ h, 36 h, and 48 h were prepared before single-cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) using 10 $\times$ Genomics. We performed UMAP (uniform manifold approximation and projection) dimension reduction using the Seurat R package (Butler et al., 2018; Satija et al., 2015) for scRNA-seq datasets at each time point (**Figure 1C**), as well as for the integrated scRNA-seq dataset from all three time points (**Figure 1D**). These analyses reveal distinct cell clusters in the μ PASE based on expression patterns of key lineage markers (**Figures 1C-1E, S1B and S1C**). Consistent with our previous findings (Zheng et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2019b), in the μ PASE, hPSCs develop progressively from a pluripotent epiblast-like cell (EpiLC) stage to three distinct cell populations by $t = 48$ h: amniotic ectoderm-like cells

(AMLCs), mesoderm-like cells (MeLCs), and primordial germ cell-like cells (PGCLCs) (**Figures 1C-1E, S1D and S1E**).

To understand how hPSCs transit from the EpiLC stage to AMLCs, MeLCs and PGCLCs during μ PASE development, RNA velocity analysis (Bergen et al., 2020; La Manno et al., 2018) was conducted for the integrated scRNA-seq dataset, with RNA velocity vectors overlaid on the integrated UMAP plot (**Figure 1D**). This RNA velocity analysis reveals developmental trajectories of the AMLC lineage (EpiLC $\rightarrow$ nascent AMLC or NasAMLC $\rightarrow$ AMLC1 $\rightarrow$ AMLC2) and MeLC lineage (EpiLC $\rightarrow$ primitive streak-like cell or PSLC $\rightarrow$ MeLC1 / MeLC2) (**Figure 1D**). However, developmental trajectory of PGCLCs is not as clear from the RNA velocity analysis (**Figure 1D**). To further examine lineage relations between different μ PASE cell clusters, partition-based graph abstraction (PAGA) analysis (Wolf et al., 2018) was conducted, revealing that PGCLCs correlate best with the NasAMLC cluster (**Figure 1F**). To reveal gene regulatory network (GRN) underlying each cell cluster, we performed GRN analysis using SCENIC (Aibar et al., 2017) (single-cell regulatory network inference and clustering; **Figures 1G and 1H**). Notably, AM markers *ISL1* and *GATA3* (Yang et al., 2021), PS / Meso markers *EOMES*, *MIXL1*, *TBX6* and *GATA6*, and PGC markers *SOX17* and *NANOG* are identified by SCENIC as regulons of corresponding cell lineages (**Figures 1G and 1H**).

Trajectory inference and gene expression dynamics analysis

To infer developmental trajectories of different μ PASE cell lineages, we plotted a three-dimensional (3D) diffusion map based on PCA embeddings of the integrated scRNA-seq dataset (**Figure 2A and Video S1**) (Angerer et al., 2016). The AMLC, MeLC and PGCLC lineages display distinct and well separated trajectories in the 3D diffusion map (**Figure 2A**). To analyze transcriptome dynamics during AMLC lineage development, EpiLC, NasAMLC and AMLC1 / 2 clusters were isolated from the integrated scRNA-seq dataset and re-plotted using two-dimensional (2D) diffusion maps (**Figure 2B**). Similarly, to analyze MeLC lineage development, EpiLC, PSLC and MeLC1 / 2 clusters were isolated from the integrated scRNA-seq dataset before re-plotting using 2D diffusion maps (**Figure 2C**). Expression dynamics of selected genes related to AM and PS or Meso was plotted against diffusion pseudotime (dpt) (**Figures 2D, 2E, S2A and S2B**). Notably, in the AMLC lineage, expression of *TFAP2A*, *MSX2* and *ID2*, which are commonly used AM markers (Ma et al., 2019; Sasaki et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2021), is

quickly upregulated following exogenous BMP4 stimulation (**Figures 2D and S2A**). Similarly, *GATA3* and *ISL1* become upregulated relatively early during AMLC lineage development (**Figures 2D and S2A**). In contrast, expression of *GABRP*, *IGFBP3* and *WNT6* shows delayed upregulation, whereas *TBXT* is only transiently expressed during early AMLC lineage development (**Figures 2D and S2A**).

On the 2D diffusion map, the MeLC lineage branches into two separate paths corresponding to MeLC1 and MeLC2 clusters (**Figure 2C**). Both MeLC1 and MeLC2 lineages show upregulated expression of common Meso markers, yet with some key genes exhibiting distinct expression levels (**Figures 2E and S2B**). For example, compared with MeLC1, MeLC2 expresses relatively higher levels of *MIXL1*, *EOMES* and *GATA6* (**Figures 2E and S2B**), presumably corresponding to a lateral plate / intermediate Meso fate (Daoud et al., 2014; Prummel et al., 2019). MeLC1 lineage, in contrast, expresses higher levels of *CDX2* and *HOXB6* (**Figures 2E and S2B**), presumably corresponding to a paraxial Meso fate (Casaca et al., 2016; Chawengsaksophak et al., 2004). We further conducted immunostaining for selected AM and Meso markers in μ PASEs at $t = 24$ h, 36 h, and 48 h to validate lineage fate specification (**Figures 2F and S2C-S2E**). $GATA6^{high}TBXT^{high}MIXL1^{high}CDX2^{low}$ MeLC2 appears as leading cells in the migratory gastrulating cell population, whereas $GATA6^{low}TBXT^{low}MIXL1^{low}CDX2^{high}$ MeLC1 appears as trailing cells in this population (**Figure S2F**).

Patterning of AMLCs and PSLCs was evident in the μ PASE by $t = 24$ h, with positive immunostaining for *ISL1*, *GATA3* and *TFAP2A* in incipient AMLCs and for *TBXT* and *MIXL1* in incipient MeLCs (**Figures S2C and S2D, Video S2**). Notably, expression of AM marker *GABRP* (Yang et al., 2021) is restricted on the apical surface of AMLCs, whereas expression of *HEY1*, another AM marker (Yang et al., 2021), is evident in both the nucleus and cytoplasm of AMLCs (**Figure 2F**). AMLCs appear to actively proliferate during μ PASE development (**Figure S2G**). To reveal transcriptome changes during AMLC development, we conducted differentially expressed gene (DEG) and pathway enrichment analysis to compare NasAMLC, AMLC1 and AMLC2 (**Figure S2H and Table S3**).

To explore potential mechanisms underlying lineage choices between NasAMLCs vs. PSLCs for EpiLCs, we examined DEGs upregulated in NasAMLCs and PSLCs relative to EpiLCs and noticed significant overlaps (144 out of 342 genes for NasAMLCs, 144 out of 184

genes for PSLCs) (**Figure S2I and Table S3**). KEGG pathway analysis suggests that development of both NasAMLCs and PSLCs requires TGF- β signaling (KEGG: 04350; **Figure S2J**), which is not surprising given that exogenous BMP4 is supplemented in the μ PASE protocol. However, WNT signaling pathway (KEGG: 04310) is evident only in PSLCs but not in NasAMLCs (**Figure 2G**), suggesting a critical role of WNT signaling in Meso induction but not in amniogenesis. When IWP2, a small molecule inhibitor blocking the transport, secretion or signaling activity of all WNT molecules (Chen et al., 2009; Kadowaki et al., 1996; Zhai et al., 2004), was supplemented into the microfluidic device, development of PSLCs and MeLCs in the μ PASE was completely inhibited, as evidenced by negative immunostaining for TBXT or MIXL1 (**Figure 2H**). In contrast, AMLCs still emerge under IWP2 treatment, as evidenced by positive immunostaining for ISL1, TFAP2A and GATA3 in flattened, presumptive AMLCs directly exposed to exogenous BMP4 stimulation (**Figure 2H**). Consistently, the scRNA-seq data obtained from IWP2-treated μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h show absence of PSLCs or MeLCs; instead, the majority of cells remain pluripotent, retaining the EpiLC identity (**Figures 2I and 2J**), further supporting the requirement of WNT signaling in PSLC/MeLC development. It should be noted that under IWP2 treatment, AMLCs show lower expression of several AM marker genes, such as *ISL1*, *GABRP* and *GATA3*, and there are much less PGCLCs in IWP2-treated μ PASEs (**Figures S2K and 2I, and Table S3**).

PGCLC specification

During μ PASE development, incipient PGCLCs emerge together with NasAMLCs and PSLCs by $t = 24$ h (**Figure 1C**). To explore the origin and specification of PGCLCs in the μ PASE, a 2D diffusion map with EpiLC, PSLC, MeLC1 and PGCLC clusters isolated from the integrated scRNA-seq dataset was plotted, which, however, did not show a continuous developmental trajectory connecting EpiLCs, PSLCs, MeLCs with PGCLCs (**Figure S3A**). In addition, in this 2D diffusion map, K-branch algorithm (Chlis et al., 2017) did not identify a branching point or branches with proper confidence (**Figure S3A**). Thus, PGCLCs in the μ PASE are unlikely originated from PSLCs or MeLCs.

In contrast, 2D diffusion map analysis with EpiLC, NasAMLC, AMLC1 / 2 and PGCLC clusters clearly shows lineage progression and bifurcation of NasAMLCs into PGCLCs and AMLCs (**Figure 3A**). RNA velocity vectors were also computed and overlaid onto the diffusion

map in **Figure 3A**, revealing that NasAMLCs have the closest lineage relation with PGCLCs, consistent with the PAGA analysis in **Figure 1F**. Our observation here is consistent with recent studies of *cynomolgus* monkey embryos reporting that primate PGCs could emerge in the nascent AM prior to the gastrulation (Sasaki et al., 2016). Expression of selected genes relevant to PGC development, including *SOX17*, *NANOG*, *TFAP2C*, *PRDM1*, *NANOS3*, *TFAP2A*, *TBXT*, *SOX15*, *POU5F1*, *ISL1*, *PDPN*, *IGF1*, *PEG10*, *BAMBI*, *WNT5B* and *WNT2*, was also plotted against diffusion pseudotime, revealing their upregulated expression during PGCLC lineage development (**Figures 3B and S3B**). Immunofluorescence analyses of μ PASEs at $t = 24$ h, 36 h, and 48 h further confirmed spatiotemporal expression of some key PGC markers, including *TFAP2C*, *NANOG*, *SOX17* and *BLIMP1*, in incipient PGCLCs (**Figures 3C and S3C**).

Correlation coefficient analysis based on PGC ontogenic genes identified from the *cynomolgus* embryo transcriptome data suggests that the transcriptome of PGCLCs in the μ PASE is similar to that of Day 2 hPGCLCs derived from conventional protocols (Chen et al., 2019; Sasaki et al., 2015) (**Figure S3D**). It is worth noting that the μ PASE essentially is a posteriorized embryonic-like structure, mimicking the posterior portion of the amnion and epiblast compartments. As such, the development of μ PASE gives rise to a greater number of hPGCLCs but lack the development of ectoderm.

Using K-branch algorithm, we identified developmental branches and the branching point for the 2D diffusion map with EpiLC, NasAMLC, AMLC1/2 and PGCLC clusters (**Figure 3A**). The K-branch analysis further allowed us to separate NasAMLCs into three sub-clusters, with each sub-cluster merged with EpiLCs, AMLCs and PGCLCs, respectively, and annotated as EpiLC-branch NasAMLC, AMLC-branch NasAMLC and PGCLC-branch NasAMLC, respectively (**Figure 3A**). To explore mechanisms underlying lineage choices between AMLCs vs. PGCLCs for NasAMLCs, DEGs upregulated in AMLC-branch NasAMLCs and PGCLC-branch NasAMLCs, as compared to EpiLC-branch NasAMLCs, were examined (**Figure 3D; Table S4**). KEGG pathway analysis of these DEGs reveals that PGCLC-branch NasAMLCs show upregulated WNT signaling, whereas AMLC-branch NasAMLCs exhibit upregulated Hippo activity (**Figure 3E**). We further performed pharmacological inhibition assays to explore the roles of different signaling pathways during μ PASE development. When IWP2 was supplemented into the microfluidic device, development of PGCLCs was almost completely abolished in the μ PASE (**Figure 3F**). PGCLCs show upregulated HIF-1 signaling activity

compared to PGCLC-branch NasAMLCs (**Figure S3E**). When HIF-1 signaling was repressed by supplementing LY294002, which functions through binding to phosphoinositide 3-kinases (PI3Ks), in the microfluidic device, the percentage of PGCLCs was significantly reduced (**Figures S3F and S3G**).

Our scRNA-seq data analysis suggests that progenitors of PGCLCs likely pass through a transient transcriptome state similar to that of NasAMLCs before their full commitment to the PGCLC fate. Our data, however, do not exclude the possibility that cells at the junction between the AMLC and PSLC / MeLC compartments, or from the PSLC / MeLC pole of the μ PASE, with a transient transcriptome state similar to that of NasAMLCs, can also give rise to PGCLCs. After all, NasAMLCs and PSLCs share a similar transcriptome, and cells in the early post-implantation human embryo might remain plastic (Chen et al., 2019; Irie et al., 2015; Kobayashi et al., 2017; Sasaki et al., 2015).

Transcriptomic comparison between μ PASEs and Carnegie Stage 7 human gastrula

The μ PASE recapitulates certain aspects of human development from early implantation to the onset of gastrulation. Notably, single-cell transcriptome data of a CS7 human gastrula recently became available (Tyser et al., 2021). Thus, we conducted transcriptomic comparison between μ PASEs and the CS7 human gastrula. We first downsampled the μ PASE dataset by randomly selecting 100 cells from each cluster and integrated this downsampled dataset with the CS7 human gastrula dataset (**Figure S4**). Based on the transcriptome proximity in the UMAP plot, the μ PASE contains cells corresponding to “Epiblast”, “Primitive Streak”, “Nascent Mesoderm”, “Emergent Mesoderm”, “Amniotic/embryonic ectoderm”, and “PGC” cells in the human gastrula. We next selected only these cells from the CS7 human gastrula dataset to integrate with the whole μ PASE dataset. A UMAP plot of the integrated scRNA-seq dataset shows cell clustering similar to that from the μ PASE scRNA-seq data alone (**Figure 4A**). Cells from the CS7 human gastrula are evident in all cell clusters of the UMAP plot (**Figure 4A**). Furthermore, for each annotated cell cluster, expression patterns of key lineage markers are consistent between cells from the CS7 human gastrula and μ PASEs (**Figure 4B**). Most of the cells from the CS7 human gastrula fall into different cell clusters consistent with their lineage annotations in the original publication (Tyser et al., 2021), except for some cells originally classified as “Epiblast” or “Primitive Streak” that fall into NasAM or AM1 clusters (**Figure 4C**). Notably, PGCs in the

CS7 human gastrula can be easily distinguished in the PGC cluster of the integrated dataset in the UMAP plot (**Figure 4A**).

In the original publication of the CS7 human gastrula (Tyser et al., 2021), a UMAP plot was generated with all the cells in the human gastrula, including those at relatively late developmental stages, such as “Hemogenic Endothelial Progenitors” and “Erythrocytes”, which could negatively affect the resolution of cell clustering analysis, especially for those closely related cell lineages. To address this issue, we re-generated a UMAP plot using only the “Epiblast”, “Primitive Streak”, “Nascent Mesoderm”, “Emergent Mesoderm”, “Amniotic/embryonic ectoderm” and “PGC” clusters from the human gastrula dataset (**Figure 4D**). Interestingly, this UMAP plot reveals distinct cell clusters corresponding to Meso and AM, supported by feature plots showing expression patterns of key Meso and AM markers (**Figures 4D and 4E**). Notably, human PGCs identified in the original publication is clustered together with AM cells in the UMAP plot (**Figure 4D**), supporting their close lineage relation. We further isolated the Epi, AM, and PGCs from the CS7 human gastrula to generate a diffusion map (**Figure 4F**). Surprisingly, AM and PGC seemingly display lineage bifurcation trajectories from the Epi (**Figure 4F**), similar to μ PASEs in **Figure 3A**. In addition, as shown in **Figure 4G**, pseudotime gene expression dynamics of AM cells from the CS7 human gastrula is highly consistent with that of AMLCs in μ PASEs in **Figure 2D**. However, due to the low number of PGCs, AM and PGC lineage bifurcation is not as evident as that shown in the μ PASE diffusion map (**Figure 3A**); and we could not obtain pseudotime gene expression dynamics for PGCs.

To characterize pluripotency state transition in EpiLCs during the progressive development of the μ PASE, we further performed scRNA-seq for cultured hPSCs and μ PASEs at $t = 0$ h and $t = 12$ h. No distinguishable cell clusters or populations were observed when the scRNA-seq data were analyzed using Seurat R package (**Figures S5A-S5C**). Notably, although μ PASEs at $t = 12$ h show upregulated *TFAP2A* expression owing to exogenous BMP4 treatment, transcriptomes of cells in the μ PASE have not yet changed sufficiently for the cells to emerge as distinct clusters in the UMAP. We then downsampled these datasets and compared them with transcriptome data of the human morula, pre-implantation epiblast from human blastocysts (Petropoulos et al., 2016), early post-implantation epiblast from days post-fertilization (d.p.f) 9 and d.p.f 11 *in-vitro* cultured human embryos (Molè et al., 2021), and late post-implantation epiblast from the CS7 human gastrula (Tyser et al., 2021). As suggested by the

principal component analysis (PCA) plot (**Figures S5D and S5E**), cultured hPSCs and EpiLCs in the μ PASE share comparable transcriptome states and are both at a developmental stage between d.p.f 11 and d.p.f 16 epiblast. Thus, there was no compelling evidence showing heterogeneous pluripotency states or transitions at early stages of μ PASE development.

Transcriptomic coordination of early development across different primate species

NHP monkey embryos, including *cynomolgus* (*Macaca fascicularis*) embryos, have been used successfully as an *in vivo* model to study primate development (Ma et al., 2019; Nakamura et al., 2016; Sasaki et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2021). Compared with NHP monkeys, chimpanzees share much more of human DNA (99%), making them our closest living relatives (Gibbs et al., 2007; Mikkelsen et al., 2005). Thus, we sought to generate μ PASEs from chimpanzee induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) to examine whether chimpanzee μ PASEs (or C_ μ PASEs) would develop in a fashion similar as μ PASEs made from hPSCs (or H_ μ PASEs). To this end, the same microfluidic protocol for H_ μ PASE development was used for C_ μ PASE formation. Under exogenous human BMP4 stimulation, C_ μ PASEs also display prominent molecular and morphogenetic asymmetry, with the pole exposed to BMP4 differentiating progressively into squamous, flattened AMLCs positive for AM markers ISL1, GATA3 and TFAP2A, and the opposite pole developing into germ layer lineages positive for TBXT and MIXL1 (**Figure 5A**). Similar to H_ μ PASEs, PGCLCs also emerge in C_ μ PASEs, as evidenced by positive immunostaining for SOX17, TFAP2C, NANOG and BLIMP1 (**Figure 5A**). However, distinct from H_ μ PASEs, FOXA2+BLIMP1+ endoderm-like cells (EndoLCs) also emerge in C_ μ PASEs, and these EndoLCs randomly intermix with MeLCs and PGCLCs (**Figure 5A**). scRNA-seq analysis of C_ μ PASEs obtained at $t = 48$ h further confirms the presence of EndoLCs in C_ μ PASEs (**Figures 5B and 5C**). It is worth noting that C_ μ PASEs do not develop a prominent central lumen (the pro-amniotic-like cavity) as in H_ μ PASEs (**Figure 5A**).

Transcriptomic comparisons between related corresponding cell clusters in H_ μ PASEs, C_ μ PASEs, and human and cynomolgus embryos (Ma et al., 2019; Nakamura et al., 2016; Sasaki et al., 2016; Tyser et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021) reveal that such cell clusters from these *in vitro* and *in vivo* systems, regardless in the Meso (**Figure 5D**), AM (**Figure 5E**) or PGC (**Figure 5F**) lineages, show strong correlations based on ontogenic genes identified from *cynomolgus* embryo transcriptome data (Nakamura et al., 2016; Sasaki et al., 2016; Yang et al.,

2021). Thus, despite systematic variations that might be resulted from different sequencing platforms, related corresponding cell types of different primate species still demonstrate relatively high transcriptomic correlation and developmental coordination (**Figure 5E-5F**), e.g., human mesoderm cells and MeLCs from the H_μPASE at later developmental stages correlate better with chimpanzee or monkey mesoderm cells at later stages. Additionally, corresponding cell types from the CS7 human gastrula and H_μPASEs correlate better with cells from C_μPASEs, as compared to cells from *cynomolgus* embryos, which may reflect the greater genetic similarity between humans and chimpanzees. Consistently, when IWP2 was supplemented into C_μPASEs, developments of PSLCs and PGCLCs were inhibited, whereas ISL1+GATA3+ AMLCs still emerged, similar with IWP2-treated H_μPASEs (**Figure 5G**).

NODAL is essential for mesoderm development

Our DEG and pathway analyses of μPASE scRNA-seq data in **Figures 2G, 2H, 3D-3F, S2F and S2G** suggest complex cell-cell interactions involved in early post-implantation human development. Thus, μPASE scRNA-seq data at $t = 24$ h were further analyzed using CellChat (Jin et al., 2021) for inference and analysis of ligand-receptor interactions (**Figures S6A-S6C**). Among cell clusters present in μPASEs at $t = 24$ h, AMLCs and PSLCs were identified as major sources of signaling ligands involved in key developmental pathways, such as BMP and WNT pathways (Ben-Haim et al., 2006; Bernardo et al., 2011; Clevers, 2006; Rivera-Perez and Magnuson, 2005; Wang et al., 2014; Zhao, 2003) (**Figures S6A-S6C**). This is consistent with a recent study of pre-gastrulation *cynomolgus* embryos (Yang et al., 2021), which shows that both AM and PS / Meso cells upregulate *BMP4* and *WNT5B* and extraembryonic mesenchyme cells show high expression of *BMP2* and *BMP4* (**Figures S6D-S6F**). μPASEs lack extraembryonic mesenchyme cells, the effects of which might have been substituted by exogenous supplementation of BMP4 in the μPASE protocol. For comparison, ligand-receptor interaction analysis was also conducted using CellChat on scRNA-seq data from E6.5 mouse embryos (Pijuan-Sala et al., 2019), revealing the extraembryonic ectoderm as the only source of BMP and WNT signals (**Figures S6G-S6I**). Interestingly, during the development of both μPASEs and pre-gastrulation *cynomolgus* embryos, non-canonical WNT pathways show a greater signaling strength than canonical WNT, whereas the opposite is observed for E6.5 mouse embryos (**Figures S6A, S6D and S6G**).

Our ligand-receptor interaction analysis for μ PASEs using CellChat further reveals that, compared to BMP and WNT pathways identified as an “incoming signal” for multiple cell clusters, NODAL signals appear to be perceived only by PSLCs (**Figures S6A and S6B**), suggesting a critical role of NODAL signaling in PSLC development. To study the functional role of NODAL, *NODAL*-knockout (KO) hPSC lines were generated and used for μ PASE development (**Figures S7A-S7E**). By $t = 48$ h, majority of cells in *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs appear to have developed into flattened ISL1+GATA3+ AMLCs, and there are no cells disseminating away from the μ PASE structure, in distinct contrast with wildtype control μ PASEs (**Figures 6A-6D and S7F**). Consistently, scRNA-seq data obtained from *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h showed a dominant population of AMLCs at the expense of MeLCs (**Figures 6B,6C,6E-6G**), further supporting the critical role of NODAL in MeLC development. PGCLCs were still evident in *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h, albeit with a much less percentage compared with those in wildtype controls (8.1% vs. 28.2%; **Figures 6D,6E-6G and S7G**). This observation suggests that in μ PASEs, NODAL signaling is involved not only in MeLC development, but also in PGCLC specification.

We further conducted DEG and Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analyses for PSLCs from *NODAL*-KO and wildtype control μ PASEs (**Figure 6H and 6I; Table S7**). In *NODAL*-KO PSLCs, BMP target genes, such as *ID2*, *TFAP2A* and *ISL1*, are upregulated, whereas PS / Meso-related genes, such as *MESPI* and *MIXL1*, and EMT related genes, including *SNAIL* and *VIM*, are downregulated (**Figure 6H**). PI3K-Akt, WNT and focal adhesion signaling pathways appear to be downstream targets of NODAL signaling in PSLCs (**Figure 6I**). We speculate that lineage bifurcation between AMLCs and PSLCs from EpiLCs might be regulated by a competition between BMP and NODAL signaling. Absence or repression of NODAL signaling in the μ PASE could lead to “hyper” BMP activities, which in turn causes excessive AMLC development (marked by an expanded ISL1 domain) and greater BMP activities in PSLCs. We also compared PGCLCs from wildtype and *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs (**Figure S7H and Table S7**). Consistently, when SB431542, a pharmacological NODAL signaling inhibitor, was supplemented into the microfluidic device, development of PSLCs/MeLCs in μ PASEs was completely inhibited (**Figure S7I**). Impaired development of MeLCs in *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs can be efficiently reversed by supplementing ACTIVIN A, a NODAL pathway agonist, into the channel opposite to BMP4 stimulation. In addition to rescuing MeLC development, supplementing ACTIVIN A to

NODAL-KO μ PASEs also leads to the specification of BLIMP1+FOXA2+ EndoLCs (**Figure S7J**). Supplementing ACTIVIN A to wildtype μ PASEs also results in specification of BLIMP1+FOXA2+ EndoLCs (**Figure S7K**). We also successfully generated μ PASEs using a different hPSC line, including its corresponding *NODAL*-KO line, and a different chimpanzee iPSC line, and repeated IWP2 and SB431542 treatment assays with consistent results (**Figure S8**).

Stringent criteria for distinguishing human trophoblast and amniotic ectoderm

In vivo, blastocyst trophoblast and pre-gastrulation AM both appear as flattened, squamous epithelium, and these two cell types share many lineage markers (Blakeley et al., 2015; Petropoulos et al., 2016; Tyser et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021). Unique markers that can distinguish between these two cell types remain elusive, leading to confusions about true cell lineage identities in different human embryoids (Xu et al., 2002; Zhao et al., 2021). Through comparative transcriptome analysis of AM cells in the CS7 human gastrula (Tyser et al., 2021) and trophoblast cells in human blastocysts (Blakeley et al., 2015; Petropoulos et al., 2016), we identified a Trophoblast_Amnion ontogenic gene list (**Figures S9A and S9B; Table S8**) and applied this list to examine the properties of human trophoblast-like cells or AMLCs reported previously (**Figure 7A**). This ontogenic gene list contains several previously reported AM makers, such as *ISLI*, *GABRP* and *IGFBP3* (Yang et al., 2021), and trophoblast makers, such as *GCMI*, *HAVCRI* and *CGA* (Li et al., 2019; Okae et al., 2018; Pillai et al., 2019). Notably, several pan-preimplantation embryo markers, including *DPPA3* and *DNMT3L* (Guo et al., 2021; Io et al., 2021; Yanagida et al., 2021) are found to be quite efficient markers for distinguishing between blastocyst trophoblast and pre-gastrulation AM. Based on quantified correlation coefficients between previously reported human trophoblast-like cells or AMLCs and human trophoblast or AM cells, we conclude that the transcriptome of BMP4-treated primed hPSCs, as in μ PASEs, in 2D Transwell membrane-based AMLC differentiation assays (Zheng et al., 2019b) and in 2D patterned gastrulation models (Minn et al., 2020), is similar to that of human AM cells, whereas the transcriptome of trophoblast-like cells derived from naïve hPSCs (Dong et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2021; Io et al., 2021; Yanagida et al., 2021) is consistent with that of human blastocyst trophoblast. However, transcriptome of trophoblast-like cells derived from extended

pluripotent stem (EPS) cells as well as that of trophoblast-like cells present in recently reported human blastocyst-like structures fall somewhat in-between (Liu et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2021).

Using stringent criteria, we further identified a subset of DEGs within the Trophoblast_Amion ontogenic gene list useful for distinguishing between human blastocyst trophoblast and pre-gastrulation AM and thus between human trophoblast-like cells and AMLCs (see **Methods; Figures 7B, S9A and S9B**). Specifically, markers expressed in human blastocyst trophoblast but not in pre-gastrulation AM include *FABP3*, *GCM1*, *S100A14*, *DNMT3L*, *DPPA3*, *HAVCR1*, *CGA*, *GTSF1* and *SNORD99*; conversely, genes expressed in human pre-gastrulation AM but not in blastocyst trophoblast include *ISL1*, *HEY1*, *GABRP*, *MIF*, *PLA2G2A*, *IGFBP7* and *IGFBP3* (**Figure 7B**). Many commonly used markers for human trophoblast or AM, including *GATA3*, *TFAP2A*, *TFAP2C*, *CDX2*, *KRT7* and *KRT19*, are shared between them (**Figure 7B**). We should note that although AM transcriptome is obtained from the CS7 human gastrula (Tyser et al., 2021), which remains as the only *bona fide* human pre-gastrulation AM data currently available, most of pre-gastrulation AM markers identified here, including *ISL1*, *HEY1*, *GABRP* and *IGFBP3*, are upregulated in the pre-gastrulation AM of *cynomolgus* embryos (Yang et al., 2021).

We further conducted immunofluorescence analyses of IVF human blastocysts (D6), *in vitro* cultured *cynomolgus* embryos (D14), trophoblast stem cells (TSCs) (Okae et al., 2018), and AMLCs derived from BMP4-treated primed hPSCs (Zheng et al., 2019b), to ascertain these newly identified human blastocyst trophoblast and pre-gastrulation AM markers (**Figures 7C-7E and S9C**). Consistently, trophoblast cells of D6 human blastocysts show positive immunostaining for GCM1, FABP3, DPPA3 and HAVCR1, but are negative for ISL1 or GABRP (**Figure 7C**). In contrast, AM cells in D14 *cynomolgus* embryos show clear immunostaining for ISL1 and GABRP (**Figure 7D**). GATA3, TFAP2A and TFAP2C show positive immunostaining in both trophoblast cells of D6 human blastocysts and AM cells of D14 *cynomolgus* embryos (**Figures 7C and 7E**). Immunofluorescence analyses of TSCs (Okae et al., 2018), AMLCs (Zheng et al., 2019b) and μ PASEs at $t = 36$ h further support that ISL1, GCM1 and HAVCR1 can be utilized for distinguishing between trophoblast-like cells and AMLCs, whereas GATA3, TFAP2A or TFAP2C could not (**Figure S9C and S9D**). We should note that ISL1 is a particular useful nuclear marker for distinguishing between human blastocyst trophoblast and pre-gastrulation AM and thus between human trophoblast-like cells and AMLCs

(Figures 7C-7E and S6C). The function of ISL1 in the AM in inducing Meso development in *cynomolgus* embryos has recently been documented (Yang et al., 2021).

DISCUSSION

Due to bioethical restrictions and practical limitations, experimentations with post-implantation human or NHP monkey embryos remain challenging. As an ethically acceptable alternative, human embryoids are emerging as promising tractable experimental tools for advancing fundamental knowledge of human development (Fu et al., 2021; Rossant and Tam, 2021). As demonstrated by μ PASEs, with the aid of integrative bioengineering strategies, human embryoids can faithfully recapitulate certain morphogenetic and cell fate patterning events during the early post-implantation human development, with superior controllability and reproducibility. μ PASEs are particularly suitable for studying the specification of AM and PGCs, since μ PASE development shows spatiotemporal tissue patterning and architecture reminiscent of those in the early post-implantation human embryo. By studying transcriptome kinetics during progressive μ PASE development, molecular maps of lineage diversifications from pluripotent Epi towards AM, PS / Meso, and PGCs are constructed and further compared with *in vivo* human and cynomolgus monkey data. Our data reveal that both WNT and NODAL signaling are critically involved in Meso and PGC induction, but not for AM development, which is further confirmed using *NODAL*-KO hPSC lines and drug inhibition assays. Through comparative transcriptome analyses and validations with human and cynomolgus embryos, we further propose some stringent criteria for distinguishing between human trophoderm and AM cells. Altogether, this study provides new knowledge of the lineage diversification roadmap of early human development and will serve as a valuable resource for studying human development.

Experimentation on human embryoids can lead to a better understanding of the mechanisms of human development and offers opportunities for functional genomic studies of disease-causing mechanisms, identification of therapeutic targets, and preclinical modeling of advanced therapeutics for precision medicine (Fu et al., 2021; Rossant and Tam, 2021). Continuous development of human embryoids should lead to more authentic human development models, with *in vivo*-like tissue architectures and spatiotemporal cell patterning and organization reminiscent of those in natural human embryos. This is essential for understanding the autonomy, self-organizing principles, and innate cell-cell interactions involved in human

development. Importantly, molecular insights generated from embryoids, if at all possible, should be functionally validated using *in vivo* models (Yang et al., 2021). When developing new embryoids or improving existing embryoids, rigorous scientific scrutiny must be implemented to avoid incorrect interpretations or overstatements (Posfai et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2021). Currently, there are few lineage markers accepted for distinguishing between human trophoblast and AM cells, and most existing embryoids are still limited in imitating sequential cell lineage diversifications and 3D tissue organizations exhibited stereotypically in natural embryos. Besides using cell lineage markers, validation and authentication of embryoids are currently commonly conducted through comparative transcriptome studies (*e.g.*, through integration of scRNA-seq datasets from embryoids and *in vivo* models) (Posfai et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2021). However, caution should be taken when interpreting such integrated datasets, since, although seemingly “unbiased”, existing scRNA-seq data analysis tools still have notable artifacts depending on the cell types present, cell numbers and percentages of each cell type, and specific computational algorithms used in the analysis tools. For instance, AM cells only account for a very small cell population in post-implantation primate embryos; such a small AM cell number can cause significant issues when scRNA-seq data of AM cells are integrated with human blastocyst datasets wherein trophoblast cells are abundant. Thus, we propose that in order to validate cell identities in peri-implantation human embryoids, expression of key cell fate markers need to be clearly demonstrated, in addition to transcriptome comparison based on scRNA-seq data. The cell identity markers established in this work for distinguishing between human trophoblast and AM cells represent one step towards this important direction.

LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

As demonstrated in this study, μ PASEs provide a promising tractable experimental model for exploring previously inaccessible phases of early post-implantation human development. However, μ PASEs lack a few key embryonic and extraembryonic lineages in the post-implantation human embryo, including the hypoblast (or extraembryonic endoderm), extraembryonic mesoderm, or trophoblast cells. The hypoblast is known to play a critical role in anterior-posterior patterning of the epiblast prior to gastrulation. Therefore, μ PASEs only recapitulate certain aspects of the lineage diversification and development of the posterior end of the embryonic sac during the early post-implantation human development. Additionally,

μPASEs disintegrate and lose their embryonic-like structure soon after 48 h in culture, as differentiating MeLCs that are undergoing EMT emigrate from the μPASE structure, which limits the potential of μPASEs for prolonged culture to investigate cell lineage development and embryonic tissue formation at later developmental stages. It should also be noted that cell type annotations and lineage inference analyses of the μPASE in this work are solely based on transcriptomic studies. Thus, caution should be taken when interpreting these results included in this Resource.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Y.Z. and J.F. conceived and initiated the project; Y.Z. designed and performed microfluidic embryoid experiments, and conducted scRNA-seq data analyses and interpretations; R.Z.Y. conducted CellChat analysis and participated in data analysis; S.S. participated in microfluidic embryoid experiments and repeated experiments with additional cell lines; M.K. and T.S. established and characterized *NODAL*-KO hPSC lines; L.X., Y.L. and T.L. performed human

578 embryo experiments; R.Y., A.G., W.J., Y.N., and K.C. performed monkey embryo experiments;
579 X.X., S.N.E., Y.L. and A.R helped with microfluidic embryoid experiments; W.W. helped with
580 scRNA-seq data analyses; Y.Z. and J.F. wrote the manuscript; J.F. supervised the study. All
581 authors edited and approved the manuscript.

582

583 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

584 Two patents related to this work have been filed (US20190321415 / WO2018106997 by J. Fu, Y.
585 Zheng and S.N. Esfahani; US2020049721 / PCT/US20/49721 by J. Fu and Y. Zheng).

METHODS

Ethics statement

μ PASE lacks both the primitive endoderm and trophoblast and thus cannot form the yolk sac or placenta. Therefore, μ PASE does not have human organismal form or potential. Furthermore, μ PASE disassembles and lose structural integrity after $t = 48$ h, and all experiments were terminated by no later than $t = 72$ h. All protocols with hPSCs were approved by the Human Pluripotent Stem Cell Research Oversight Committee at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. Protocols of human embryo experiments were approved by the Medicine Ethics Committee of the First People's Hospital of Yunnan Province (KHLL2020-KY064). This Medicine Ethics Committee has 13 members, including lawyers, scientists and clinicians with relevant expertise. This committee evaluated the scientific merits and ethical justification of human embryo experiments and conducted a full review of the donation and use of human embryo samples. All human embryos donated to this study were surplus frozen embryos from couples who had at least one healthy baby after *in vitro* fertilization. All donor couples signed informed consents for voluntary donations at the Department of Reproductive Medicine in the First People's Hospital of Yunnan Province. No economic benefits were offered during the process. Couples were informed that their embryos would be used for experimental studies of human development and that their donation would not affect their *in vitro* fertilization processes.

Cell culture

H9 (WA09, WiCell; NIH registration number: 0062, female) and ESI-017 (BioTime, Inc.; NIH registration number: 0093, male) hPSCs and chimpanzee iPSC lines (C3651, male and C4955, female) (Gallego Romero et al., 2015; Pavlovic et al., 2018) were maintained in a feeder-free culture system using mTeSR medium (STEMCELL Technologies). For hPSCs, culture plate was coated with 1% lactate dehydrogenase-elevating virus (LDEV)-free, hESC cell-qualified reduced growth factor basement membrane matrix Geltrex (Thermo Fisher Scientific; derived from Engelbreth-Holm-Swarm mouse tumors) before cell seeding. For chimpanzee iPSCs, culture plate was coated with 1% Matrigel (Thermo Fisher Scientific; extracted from Engelbreth-Holm-Swarm mouse sarcoma). Cells were visually examined during each passage to ensure absence of spontaneously differentiated, mesenchymal-like cells in culture. Cells were used before P70. Both human and chimpanzee cells have been authenticated by original sources as well as in-

house by immunostaining for pluripotency markers and successful differentiation into the three germ layers. Cells were maintained for at least ten passages and authenticated as karyotypically normal. Karyotype analysis was performed by Cell Line Genetics. Both human and chimpanzee cell lines were tested negative for mycoplasma contamination (LookOut Mycoplasma PCR Detection Kit, Sigma-Aldrich).

Generation of *NODAL*-knockout hPSCs

To generate *NODAL*-knockout (KO) hPSCs, a 58-bp portion of genomic DNA within *NODAL* exon 1 was deleted by CRISPR/Cas9 using two crRNA purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific [*NODAL*_crRNA_1: 5'-AGGCUCAGCAUGUACGCCAG-3'; *NODAL*_crRNA_2: 5'-AGACAUCAUCCGCAGCCUAC-3'] (**Figures S7A-S7C**). Deplexes of crRNA:tracrRNA were prepared using a standard protocol and introduced into H9 hPSCs with the Cas9 enzyme and the pCXLE-EGFP expression plasmid (a gift from Shinya Yamanaka; Addgene plasmid # 27082; RRID: Addgene_27082) for constitutional expression of EGFP using the NEON electroporation system (Thermo Fisher Scientific). EGFP-expressing single cells were collected and seeded onto Matrigel-coated 96-well plates by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACSaria Fusion, BD Biosciences) with CloneR single-cell culture supplement diluted with mTeSR Plus medium (STEMCELL Technologies). To detect the anticipated deletion, genomic DNA was isolated from single-cell derived clones and subjected to PCR using the following primers designed for amplification of *NODAL* exon 1 [Forward Primer: 5'-CTTCCTTCTGCACGCCTGGTGG-3'; Reverse Primer: 5'-CCAACCCACAGCACTTCCCGAG-3']. Resulting amplicons were subjected to Sanger sequencing using a primer 5'-CTTCCTTCTGCACGCCTGGTGG-3'. **ESI-017 *NODAL*-KO hPSC line is a generous gift from Aryeh Warmflash at Rice University (Chhabra et al., 2019).**

Western blotting

Wildtype and *NODAL*-KO hPSCs were exposed to GSK3 inhibitor CHIR99021 (CHIR, 10 μ M; Cayman Chemical) for 24 h to augment expression of *NODAL* protein before cells were lysed with RIPA buffer containing the cOmplete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche). Protein concentration was determined by the Bradford assay using Protein Assay Dye Reagent Concentrate (Bio-Rad). An equal amount of protein (80 μ g) from cell lysates of wildtype and

NODAL-KO hPSCs was resolved on 10% SDS-PAGE and transferred onto PVDF membranes (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Immunostaining was performed by blocking PVDF membranes with 5% skim milk for 1 h at room temperature followed by incubation overnight at 4 °C with mouse monoclonal antibodies to human *NODAL* (Abcam ab55676; 1:500 dilution) or human GAPDH (Sigma-Aldrich G8795; 1:20000 dilution) diluted in 5% skim milk. Membranes were washed with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) containing 0.1% Tween-20 (PBS-T) and stained with HRP-conjugated anti-mouse IgG antibody (Santa Cruz sc-516102; 1:3000 dilution) diluted in 5% skim milk for 1 h at room temperature. Protein bands were detected by a chemiluminescence assay using SuperSignal West Pico Plus and SuperSignal West Femto reagents (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Cynomolgus macaque

Healthy cynomolgus monkeys (*Macaca fascicularis*), aged from 5 to 8 years old, were used in this study. All animals were housed either at the facility of the Yunnan Key Laboratory of Primate Biomedical Research (LPBR) in China, or at the Astrid Fagræus laboratory of the Karolinska Institutet in Sweden. Both facilities are accredited by AAALAC international. Experimental protocols for using cynomolgus macaque embryos were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of LPBR in China (KBI K001115033/01,01) and by the Jordbruksverket in Sweden (Ethical Permit Number N277/14). Animals involved in this study were never used for other treatments.

***In vitro* fertilization and culture of cynomolgus macaque embryo**

In vitro fertilized cynomolgus macaque embryos were generated as described previously (Niu et al., 2014). Briefly, healthy female cynomolgus monkeys aged 5 to 8 years old with regular menstrual cycles were selected as oocyte donors. Cynomolgus monkeys were treated with recombinant human follicle stimulation hormone (Merck, Gonal-f) for 8 days, followed by administration of recombinant human chorionic gonadotropin (Merck, Ovidrel) on day 9. After 32-35 h, oocytes were collected by laparoscopic follicular aspiration. Metaphase II (MII) oocytes were used for intracytoplasmic sperm injection to generate zygotes, and fertilization was confirmed by the presence of two pronuclei. Zygotes were cultured in embryo culture medium-9 (polyvinyl alcohol (0.1 mg/mL), calcium chloride (1.9 mM), magnesium chloride (0.46 mM),

potassium chloride (3.0 mM), sodium chloride (113.8 mM), sodium bicarbonate (25.0 mM), sodium lactate (4.5 mM), Minimum Essential Medium (MEM) amino acid, MEM nonessential amino acid, and gentamicin (10 mg/mL)) containing 10% fetal calf serum in 37 °C incubator supplied with 5% CO₂ until the blastocyst stage. *In vitro* culture of NHP monkey blastocysts beyond the implantation stage has been described previously (Yang et al., 2021). In brief, frozen NHP monkey blastocysts were thawed using Thawing Media (Kizatato) and cultured in blastocyst culture medium (Origio) for at least 4 h to recover. Blastocysts were then treated with Acidic Tyrode's solution (Sigma) to remove zona pellucida before being transferred onto an ibiTreat 8-well μ -plate (Ibidi) containing 300 μ L of pre-equilibrated *in vitro* culture medium 1 (advanced DMEM/F12, 20% FBS, l-Glutamine, l-cysteine, 1x Penicillin/Streptomycin, 1x ITS-X, supplemented with beta-estradiol, progesterone). On the second day, 150 μ L of culture medium was aspirated, before 200 μ L of pre-equilibrated *in vitro* culture medium 2 (advanced DMEM/F12, 30% KSR, l-Glutamine, l-cysteine, 1x Penicillin/Streptomycin, 1x ITS-X, supplemented with beta-estradiol, progesterone) was added into the ibiTreat 8-well μ -plate. Embryo growth was recorded daily, and culture medium was replenished every two days till Day 14.

NHP monkey embryo cryosection and immunocytochemistry

Day 14 NHP monkey embryos were fixed using 2% paraformaldehyde (PFA; buffered in PBS) overnight at 4 °C before being washed with PBS. Fixed embryos were dehydrated by 30% sucrose overnight at 4 °C before embedded in Tissue-Tek O.C.T. compound (Sakura) and frozen in liquid nitrogen. Frozen blocks were used for cryosection using CryoStar NX70 Cryostat (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to manufacturer's protocol. Immunofluorescence staining was then performed according to a standard procedure. Briefly, sections were thawed and air-dried at room temperature. After washing with PBS, sections were incubated in blocking buffer (3% FBS) diluted in PBS with 0.1% Triton X-100) for 1 h at room temperature and then incubated overnight at 4 °C with primary antibodies diluted in blocking buffer. The sections were washed with PBS-T and incubated with secondary antibodies diluted in blocking buffer for 2 h at room temperature. After washing thoroughly with PBS-T, sections were mounted and imaged. Secondary antibodies were used in dilution of 1:500. Images were acquired by a Zeiss 700 LSM Confocal Microscope and analyzed by iMaris.

Immunocytochemistry for D6 human embryos

D6 human embryos were fixed with 4% PFA for 20 min at room temperature in a 96-well plate, washed with PBS, and then permeabilized and blocked by 0.2% Triton X-100 supplemented with 3% bovine serum albumin (BSA) overnight at 4 °C. Embryos were then transferred onto a new well with primary antibodies for 16 - 18 h at 4 °C. Embryos were washed 3 times with PBS containing 0.05% Tween-20, 15 min every time, before being transferred to secondary antibody solutions for 4 h at room temperature. Embryos were then washed 3 times in PBS containing 0.05% Tween-20, 15 min every time, before being transferred onto an ibiTreat 8-well μ -plate. All antibodies were diluted by 1% BSA solutions.

Generation of μ PASEs

The microfluidic device was fabricated by bonding a polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) structure layer to a glass coverslip. Singly dissociated hPSCs or chimpanzee iPSCs were loaded into the cell loading channel and guided to settle into preformed, concave Geltrex pockets by tilting the device by 90° for 10 min. hPSCs were then maintained in mTeSR containing 10 μ M Y27632 (Tocris) for 18 h to allow for cell clustering. At $t = 0$ h, culture medium in all medium reservoirs of the device was switched to a fresh basal medium comprising Essential 6 medium (E6; Thermo Fisher Scientific) and FGF2 (20 ng mL⁻¹; GlobalStem), with additional 50 ng mL⁻¹ BMP4 (R&D Systems) supplemented only in the cell loading channel. A detailed protocol for microfluidic device fabrication and generation of μ PASEs can be found elsewhere (Zheng et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2019b). To examine possible involvements of different signaling pathways involved in the development of μ PASEs, IWP2 (10 μ M; Tocris), SB 431542 (10 μ M; Cayman Chemical) or LY294002 (20 μ M; BioVision) was supplemented into basal medium from $t = 0$ h. For assays with ACTIVIN A, 100 ng mL⁻¹ ACTIVIN A (R&D Systems) was supplemented into the channel opposite to BMP4 stimulation from $t = 0$ h. For *in situ* proliferation measurements, Click-iT EdU Kit (Invitrogen) was used as per manufacturer's protocol. Diluted EdU solution (10 μ M) was introduced into all reservoirs of the device at $t = 24$ h. After 3 h of incubation, the μ PASEs was fixed and imaged.

Immunocytochemistry for μ PASEs

μPASEs were fixed with 4% PFA for 12 h before being permeabilized in 0.1% SDS solution (sodium dodecyl sulphate, dissolved in PBS) for 3 h. μPASEs were then blocked in 4% donkey serum (Sigma-Aldrich) at 4 °C for 24 h, followed by incubation with primary antibody solutions at 4 °C for another 24 h. Samples were then labelled with donkey-raised secondary antibodies (1:500 dilution) at 4 °C for 24 h. 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used for counterstaining cell nuclei. Both primary and secondary antibodies were prepared in 4% donkey serum supplemented with 0.1% NaN₃. 70 μL antibody solutions were added to each medium reservoir of the microfluidic device for immunostaining. All primary and secondary antibodies used in this study are listed in **Table S9**. All confocal micrographs of μPASEs were acquired by a NIKON A1SI Confocal Microscope equipped with a photomultiplier tube (PMT) detector and processed using ImageJ 1.53c.

Quantification of SOX17+ cells

μPASEs at $t = 48$ h with or without LY294002 were stained for SOX17 using the protocol described above. All confocal micrographs captured at the central focal plane of structure (50 μm above the microfluidic device bottom surface) were used for quantification. The percentage of SOX17+ cells was calculated as the ratio between the area of SOX17 channel and DAPI channel for each μPASE. The binarization and measurement of the images was conducted using ImageJ 1.53c. Quantitative results were analyzed using independent, two-tailed Student's t-test in Excel (Microsoft). $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Trophoblast stem cells and derivation of AMLCs using BMP4

Human trophoblast stem cells (hTSCs) derived from blastocysts were generously provided by Dr. H. Okae and Dr. T. Arima (Okae et al., 2018). hTSCs were maintained in 1% Geltrex coated 6-well plates in DMEM/F12 supplemented with 0.05 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 0.2% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 0.5% knockout serum replacement (KSR), 0.5% penicillin-streptomycin, 0.3% BSA, 1% ITS-X supplement, 1.5 μg mL⁻¹ L-ascorbic acid, 50 ng mL⁻¹ epidermal growth factor (EGF), 2 μM CHIR99021, 1 μM A83-01, 1 μM SB431542, 0.8 mM valproic acid (VPA) and 5 μM Y27632, and passaged using TrypLE.

To obtain AMLCs by treating hPSCs with BMP4, singly dissociated hPSCs were suspended in mTesR1 containing 10 μM Y27632 and seeded in a 1% Geltrex coated 6-well plate

at a density of 2.5×10^3 cells cm^{-2} . Note that this cell seeding density is optimized to avoid extensive cell death (when cell density is too low) or emergence of PSLCs in culture through an unspecified inductive effect of incipient AMLCs (Zheng et al., 2019b). 18 h after cell seeding, culture medium was switched to Essential 6 medium containing FGF2 (20 ng mL^{-1}) and BMP4 (50 ng mL^{-1}). Resulting AMLCs were fixed and stained after 48 h of BMP4 treatment.

Single cell dissociation and RNA-sequencing

μ PASEs (H9) at different time points were washed twice with DMEM/F12 for 10 min and incubated with Accutase for 1 h. After incubation, μ PASEs in the microfluidic device were dissociated into single cells by gentle agitating. Single cells from six microfluidic devices were collected and pooled into PBS containing 0.5% BSA before being centrifuged at 300 g for 5 min. The resultant cell pellet was re-suspended in PBS containing 0.5% BSA. Within 1 h after cell dissociation, cells were loaded into the 10X Genomics Chromium system (10X Genomics). 10X Genomics v.3 libraries were prepared according to the manufacturer's instructions. Libraries were then sequenced using paired-end sequencing with a minimum coverage of 20,000 raw reads per cell using an Illumina NovaSeq-6000. scRNA-seq data were aligned and quantified using Cell Ranger Single-Cell Software Suite (v.3.1.0, 10X Genomics) against the Homo sapiens (human) genome assembly GRCh38.p13 from ENSEMBL. Chimpanzee μ PASEs (C3651) were dissociated and sequenced following the same protocol. scRNA-seq data from chimpanzee μ PASEs were aligned against Pan_tro_3.0 from ENSEMBL.

Data integration, dimensionality reduction and clustering

Analysis of scRNA-seq data and integration of scRNA-seq datasets were performed using Seurat R package (v.4.0.0.0, <https://satijalab.org/seurat/>) (Butler et al., 2018; Satija et al., 2015). Default setups were used unless noted otherwise. Briefly, a single batch of scRNA-seq dataset was filtered based on total number of genes detected and percentage of total mitochondrial genes. Gene expression was then calculated by normalizing the raw count with the total count before multiplying by 10,000 and log transformed. Cell cycle was regressed out based on cell cycle scores (CellCycleScoring) during data scaling process (ScaleData). PCA analysis (RunPCA) was then performed on filtered data followed by embedding into low dimensional space with Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP; RunUMAP). Identification of cell

clusters by a shared nearest neighbor (SNN) modularity optimization-based clustering algorithm was achieved using the FindClusters function in the Seurat R package. For integration of different scRNA-seq datasets, count matrices of different datasets were filtered and normalized separately before being integrated using the IntegrateData function based on 2,000 anchor features. After integration, the integrated scRNA-seq dataset was analyzed following the standard Seurat pipeline. Annotation of cell clusters was based on expression of canonical lineage marker genes.

RNA velocity analysis and partition-based graph abstraction analysis (PAGA)

Bam files generated by the Cell Ranger pipeline was used for RNA velocity analysis. Genome annotations GRCh38.p13 were used for counting spliced and unspliced mRNA of individual cells. Python package scVelo (v.0.2.2, <https://scvelo.readthedocs.io>) was employed to perform RNA velocity analysis using dynamical modeling (scv.tl.velocity) (Bergen et al., 2020; La Manno et al., 2018). Function 'scv.pl.velocity_embedding_stream' was used to project RNA velocities onto UMAP plots or diffusion maps. All default parameters were used unless noted otherwise. Python package Scanpy (v.1.8.0, <https://scanpy.readthedocs.io/en/stable/>) was used for evaluating the relationship between different cell clusters by the partition-based graph abstraction (PAGA) analysis (Wolf et al., 2018). Briefly, Seurat object was converted to "Loom" file and passed to Scanpy. Neighborhood graph of observations was then computed using 20 PCs (sc.pp.neighbors). Finally, PAGA graph was plotted with a "eq_tree" layout.

Gene regulatory network analysis

Regulatory activity of transcription factors associated with specific cell types was assessed using the R-package SCENIC (Single Cell rEgulatory Network Inference and Clustering, v.1.1.2-2, <https://github.com/aertslab/SCENIC>) (Aibar et al., 2017). Briefly, regulatory modules were first identified by inferring co-expression with transcription factors using GENIE3. Each co-expression module was then analyzed using cis-regulatory motif analyses (RcisTarget). Only modules with significant motif enrichment of the correct upstream regulator were retained. The human motif collection v9 and the cisTarget databases for hg38 were used in the pipeline (<https://resources.aertslab.org/cistarget/>). Filtered counts of the integrated Seurat object were used as input of SCENIC. All default parameters were used in SCENIC unless noted otherwise.

Trajectory inference using diffusion map and pseudotime

Diffusion maps were obtained by the R-package Density (<https://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/html/destiny.html>), which computes kernel density estimates with parametric starts and asymmetric kernels (Angerer et al., 2016). To generate three-dimensional diffusion maps, PCA embeddings of the integrated Seurat object were used as input of ‘diffmap’ function. Cells in the three-dimensional diffusion map were color-coded consistently with the UMAP plot of the integrated Seurat object. Three-dimensional visualization was realized using R-package rgl (3D Visualization Using OpenGL). For trajectory inference and pseudotime analysis of specific cell lineages, relevant cell clusters of the integrated Seurat object were extracted using Subset function (Seurat). PCA embeddings of selected cell clusters were then used as the input of ‘diffmap’ function. To visualize gene expression dynamics, diffusion pseudotime (dpt) was utilized. The roots of the diffusion map were automatically chosen by the algorithm; and the EpiLC cluster was arbitrarily made as the initial cell type. Expression levels of selected genes were fitted as a function of the pseudotime with “loess” method by using ‘geom_smooth’ function in ggplot2 R package (v.3.3.3). Cells with extreme dpt values were counted as outlier and excluded from gene expression dynamic analysis. RNA velocity vectors were computed as described above and superimposed onto the diffusion maps. In the case of lineage bifurcation, branching point and branches of different lineages were identified by locally fitting half-lines to single-cell data in the diffusion map using K-Branches R package (<https://github.com/theislab/kbranches>) (Chlis et al., 2017).

Differential gene expression, gene ontology enrichment and pathway analyses

Gene expression data depicted in feature plots and dot plots in this paper were calculated from raw counts after NormalizeData function followed by ScaleData function of the Seurat package, unless noted otherwise. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between different cell types were identified using FindMarkers function (Seurat), with a minimal fold difference of 0.25 in the logarithmic scale and > 10% detection rate in either of the two cell types under comparison. Gene ontology (GO) enrichment and pathway analyses were performed using online tool iPathwayGuide (Advaita Bioinformatics) referencing AmiGO Gene Ontology database and KEGG PATHWAY Database, respectively.

Integration, re-analysis and PCA of published human embryo data

The scRNA-seq dataset of the CS7 human gastrula was integrated with μ PASE scRNA-seq datasets. Since μ PASEs contain AMLCs, PGCLCs and PSLCs / MeLCs, only relevant cell types from the human gastrula (Amniotic/embryonic ectoderm, Epiblast, Primitive Streak, Nascent Mesoderm, Emergent Mesoderm) were extracted according to the annotations in the original publication. Human gastrula scRNA-seq dataset was generated using Smart-seq2. To compare with μ PASE scRNA-seq datasets generated using the 10X Genomics Chromium system, raw counts of each cell in the human gastrula were normalized to exon sizes before being utilized to create the Seurat object ($input\ count = raw\ count / exon\ size \times 1,000$). Exon size information was obtained from GRCh38.p13, ENSEMBL. To integrate scRNA-seq data from the human gastrula with those of μ PASEs, μ PASE scRNA-seq datasets from the three time points ($t = 24\ h, 36\ h$ and $48\ h$) were first filtered. Normalization, Scaling (including cell cycle regression) and PCA were then performed separately on each of the datasets after which they were combined using the reciprocal PCA approach (IntegrateData function, Seurat) based on 30 dimensions and 2,000 anchor features. Dimensionality reduction and clustering were then performed as described above. Downsampling of large scRNA-seq datasets was performed using Seurat R package (Subset), which randomly selects 100 cells from every cluster in the original datasets to form a new Seurat object. This step helps prevent larger datasets from dominating the downstream analysis.

For re-analysis of human gastrula scRNA-seq dataset, relevant cell types were processed with the default Seurat pipeline. Trajectory inference using diffusion map and pseudotime analysis was achieved using the same pipeline as for μ PASEs, as described earlier. For PCA, large datasets were first downsampled; then the normalized counts of epiblast ontogenetic genes (Table S5) from different datasets were merged into a matrix. The matrix was scaled to ensure each gene has zero average and unit variance. PCAs was calculated and visualized using Seurat R package.

Cross-species comparison

Cross-species comparisons utilize scRNA-seq datasets from the CS7 human gastrula, human μ PASEs ($t = 24\ h, 36\ h$ and $48\ h$), chimpanzee μ PASEs ($t = 48\ h$), *in vivo* cynomolgus embryos

(D13 - 17), and *in vitro* cultured cynomolgus embryos (D11 - 17) (Ma et al., 2019; Nakamura et al., 2016; Sasaki et al., 2016; Tyser et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021). To mitigate artifacts resulted from different sequencing platforms, for datasets generated using Smart-seq2, raw counts were first normalized to exon length, as described above. Exon size information of cynomolgus monkey was obtained from *Macaca_fascicularis_6.0*, ENSEMBLE. Average raw counts normalized by exon length for specific cell types in different datasets were then transformed into $\log_2(\text{counts per million reads} + 1)$ and used as gene expression levels for calculating the correlation coefficient matrix and heat map plotting.

Ontogenic genes of mesoderm and PGC lineages were identified through DEG analysis of *in vivo* cynomolgus embryo datasets. Briefly, for mesoderm lineage ontogenic genes, DEGs of “Gast1”, “Gast2a” and “Gast2b” as compared to “PostL-EPI” were identified using FindMarkers function (Seurat)(Nakamura et al., 2016). All DEGs, with a minimal fold difference of 2 in the logarithmic scale ($\log_{fc}$), $> 10\%$ detection rate in either of the two cell types under comparison, and adjusted P -value < 0.05 , were used as mesoderm lineage ontogenic genes (**Table S6**). To identify PGC lineage ontogenic genes, DEGs of “ePGC” as compared to “PostL-EPI”(Sasaki et al., 2016), with a minimal fold difference of 2 in the logarithmic scale ($\log_{fc}$), $> 10\%$ detection rate in either of the two cell types under comparison, and adjusted P -value < 0.05 , were used as PGC lineage ontogenic genes (**Table S6**). Amniotic ectoderm ontogenic genes were obtained through DEG analysis of Day 14 *in vitro* cultured cynomolgus embryos (Yang et al., 2021). Specifically, DEGs of “early-Amnion” and “late-Amnion” as compared to “EPI” were identified using FindMarkers function (Seurat). All DEGs, with a minimal fold difference of 0.75 in the logarithmic scale ($\log_{fc}$), $> 10\%$ detection rate in either of the two cell types under comparison, and adjusted P -value < 0.01 , were used as amniotic lineage ontogenic genes (**Table S6**).

Analysis of cell-cell interactions

R package CellChat was used to perform cell-cell communication analysis (<http://www.cellchat.org/>) (Jin et al., 2021). Briefly, based on manually curated databases that consider known structural compositions of ligand-receptor interactions, CellChat infers and analyzes intercellular communication networks from scRNA-seq data using network analysis and pattern recognition. Seurat object including count matrix and clustering results from each dataset is imported to CellChat. The default human database was used for μ PASE and cynomolgus

embryo dataset analyses, whereas the default mouse database was used for mouse embryo dataset analysis. For both databases, only secreted signaling pathways from Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) were used. Default values were used for all parameters, except that the truncated mean was lowered to 5% to increase algorithm sensitivity.

Comparisons between human trophoblast and amniotic ectoderm

Several published RNA-seq datasets related to human blastocyst trophoblast and amniotic ectoderm were surveyed in this work. Datasets generated from bulk RNA-sequencing or Smart-seq2 were first normalized by exon sizes as described earlier. Specifically, blastocyst trophoblast cells annotated in (Blakeley et al., 2015; Petropoulos et al., 2016) were utilized as the reference of human blastocyst trophoblast. Both two datasets were analyzed in this work to mitigate batch effects and systematic variations. Amniotic/embryonic ectoderm cells from the CS7 human gastrula were utilized as the reference of human amniotic ectoderm (Tyser et al., 2021). DEGs between trophoblast and amniotic ectoderm were first identified using trophoblast cells from (Blakeley et al., 2015; Petropoulos et al., 2016), respectively, as compared to amniotic/embryonic ectoderm cells from the CS7 human gastrula, with a minimal fold difference of 0.75 in the logarithmic scale ($\log_{fc}$) and adjusted P -value < 0.05 . Overlapped DEGs identified from both comparative transcriptome analyses were used as Trophoblast_Amion ontogenic genes ($n = 299$) to calculate correlation coefficients of published datasets as well as AMLCs from this work with human blastocyst trophoblast and amniotic/embryonic ectoderm (Table S8). Correlation coefficients and gene expression heatmap were calculated based on averages of experimental repeats, if any. The average gene expression level of the two trophoblast datasets was used to calculate correlation coefficients of surveyed cells with the human blastocyst trophoblast. To identify the most reliable markers for distinguishing trophoblast cells from amniotic ectoderm cells, more stringent criteria were applied than those for identifying Trophoblast_Amion ontogenic genes. Among Trophoblast_Amion ontogenic genes with $\log_{fc} > 2$, only the genes that are negative in the other cell type (normalized count < 0.05) were identified as reliable markers. Overlapped markers revealed for both trophoblast datasets were proposed as markers for distinguishing human trophoblast cells from amniotic ectoderm cells.

Code availability

958 RStudio and Python scripts used in this work are available from the corresponding authors upon
959 request.

960

961 **Data availability**

962 All processed datasets are available at <https://umichibbl.shinyapps.io/shinyapp/>. Data supporting
963 findings of this study are available within the article and its Supplemental Information files and
964 from the corresponding authors upon request. scRNA-seq data are also available at the Gene
965 Expression Omnibus under accession no. GSE185643. All source data for graphs included in the
966 paper are available in the online version of the paper.

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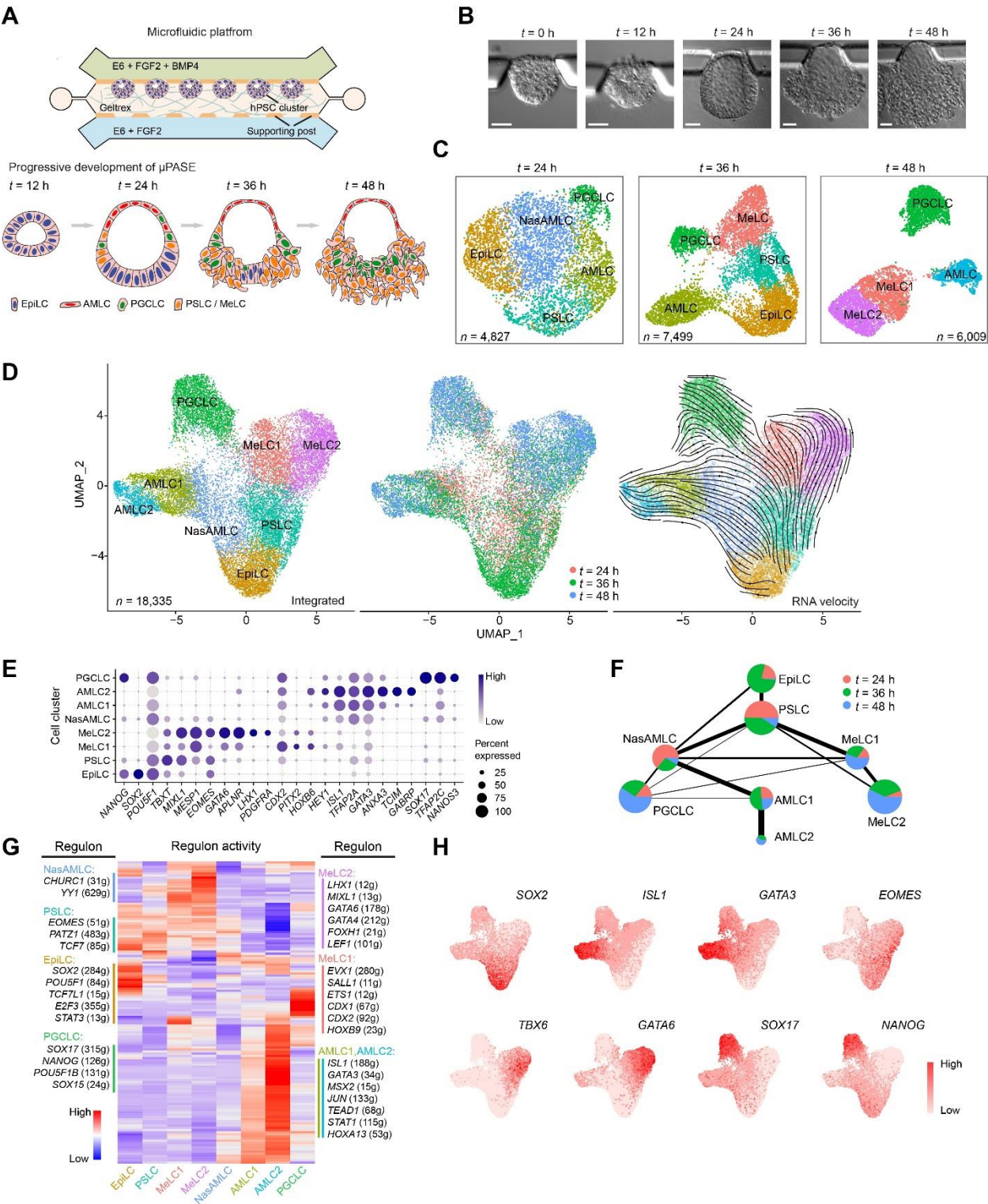
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1187

1188 **FIGURES**
1189 **Figure 1**



1189

1190

Figure 1. Single-cell transcriptomic profiling of μ PASE development.

(A) Development of μ PASEs. Single hPSCs were guided to form uniform-sized clusters at prescribed locations in the microfluidic device. Asymmetric stimulation with exogenous BMP4 from $t = 0 - 48$ h led to progressive development of μ PASEs. E6: Essential 6. See **Methods** for the μ PASE protocol.

(B) Bright-field images showing progressive development of μ PASEs over time, including thinning and flattening of the incipient amniotic ectoderm and thickening of the incipient mesoderm cells before their dissemination from the μ PASE structure.

(C) Dimension reduction presentation *via* UMAP and cell identity annotations of single-cell transcriptome datasets obtained for μ PASEs at indicated time points. n indicates cell numbers analyzed for each time point.

(D) UMAP of integrated single-cell transcriptome datasets of μ PASEs from $t = 24, 36$ and 48 h (shown in **(C)**), color-coded according to cell identity annotations (*left*) or time points (*middle*). RNA velocity vectors were projected onto the UMAP-based embeddings (*right*). n indicates the total number of cells combined from the three time points.

(E) Dot plot showing expression of key marker genes across the cell clusters as indicated. The sizes and colors of dots indicate the proportion of cells expressing the corresponding genes and their averaged scaled values of log-transformed expression, respectively.

(F) Partition-based graph abstraction (PAGA) analysis of the integrated single-cell transcriptome dataset shown in **(D)**. The thickness of lines connecting pairs of cell clusters indicates the degree of correlation between the cell cluster pairs. Lines with a correlation weight less than 0.05 are not shown. Pie charts for each cell cluster show percentages of indicated cell types from the three time points. Pie chart size is proportional to the total number of indicated cell types. See **Table S1**.

(G) Heatmap of regulon activities calculated from gene regulatory network interference. Selected master regulators of different cell clusters are depicted as indicated. See **Table S2 and Supplemental HTML Document 1**.

(H) Gene set activity of selected regulons overlaid on the integrated UMAP plot from **(D)**.

EpiLC: epiblast-like cell; PSLC: primitive streak-like cell; MeLC1/2: mesoderm-like cell 1/2; AMLC1/2: amniotic ectoderm-like cell 1/2; NasAMLC: nascent amniotic ectoderm-like cell;

1222 PGCLC: primordial germ cell-like cell. In **(B)**, experiments were repeated more than twenty
1223 times with similar results. Scale bars, 50 μm .
1224

Figure 2

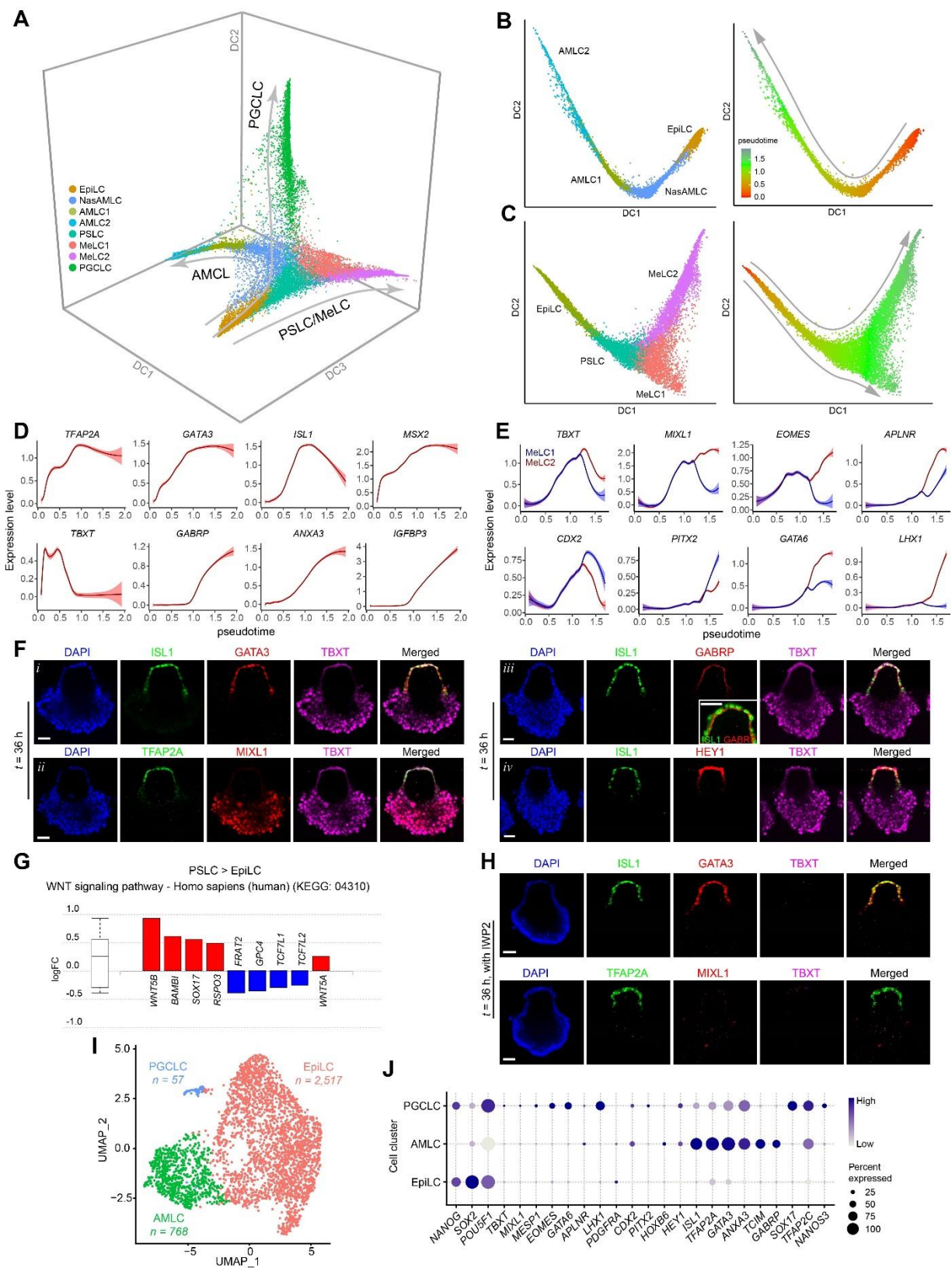


Figure 2. Trajectory inference and gene expression dynamics during μ PASE development.

(A) Three-dimensional diffusion map based on embeddings of the UMAP plot in **Figure 1D**, showing developmental trajectories of AMLC, PSLC / MeLC and PGCLC lineages. The UMAP plot is color-coded according to cell identity annotations. See **Video S1**

(B) *left*: Trajectory inference (diffusion map) of AMLC lineage (EpiLC, NasAMLC, AMLC1 and AMLC2). *right*: Pseudotime analysis (color-coded) based on the AMLC lineage diffusion map.

(C) *left*: Trajectory inferences (diffusion map) of PSLC / MeLC lineage (EpiLC, PSLC and MeLC1 or MeLC2). *right*: Pseudotime analysis (color-coded) based on the PSLC / MeLC lineage diffusion map.

(D) Expression dynamics (pseudotime) of selected genes during AMLC lineage development. Level of confidence (0.95) is indicated by band width.

(E) Expression dynamics (pseudotime) of selected genes during PSLC / MeLC lineage development. Level of confidence (0.95) is indicated by band width.

(F) Representative confocal micrographs showing μ PASEs at $t = 36$ h stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT (*i*); TFAP2A, MIXL1 and TBXT (*ii*); ISL1, GABRP and TBXT (*iii*, with zoom-in view showing apical expression of GABRP); ISL1, HEY1, and TBXT (*iv*).

(G) Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) related to WNT signaling pathway (KEGG: 04310) in PSLC compared to EpiLC.

(H) Representative confocal micrographs showing μ PASEs at $t = 36$ h stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT (*top*); TFAP2A, MIXL1 and TBXT (*bottom*) with IWP2 supplemented into the basal medium from $t = 0$ h.

(I) UMAP and cell identity annotations of single-cell transcriptome data obtained for μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h with IWP2 supplemented into the basal medium from $t = 0$ h. n indicates cell numbers of indicated cell types.

(J) Dot plot showing expression of key marker genes across the cell clusters as indicated. The sizes and colors of dots indicate the proportion of cells expressing the corresponding genes and their averaged scaled values of log-transformed expression, respectively.

In **F** and **H**, experiments were repeated four times with similar results. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bars, 50 μ m.

Figure 3

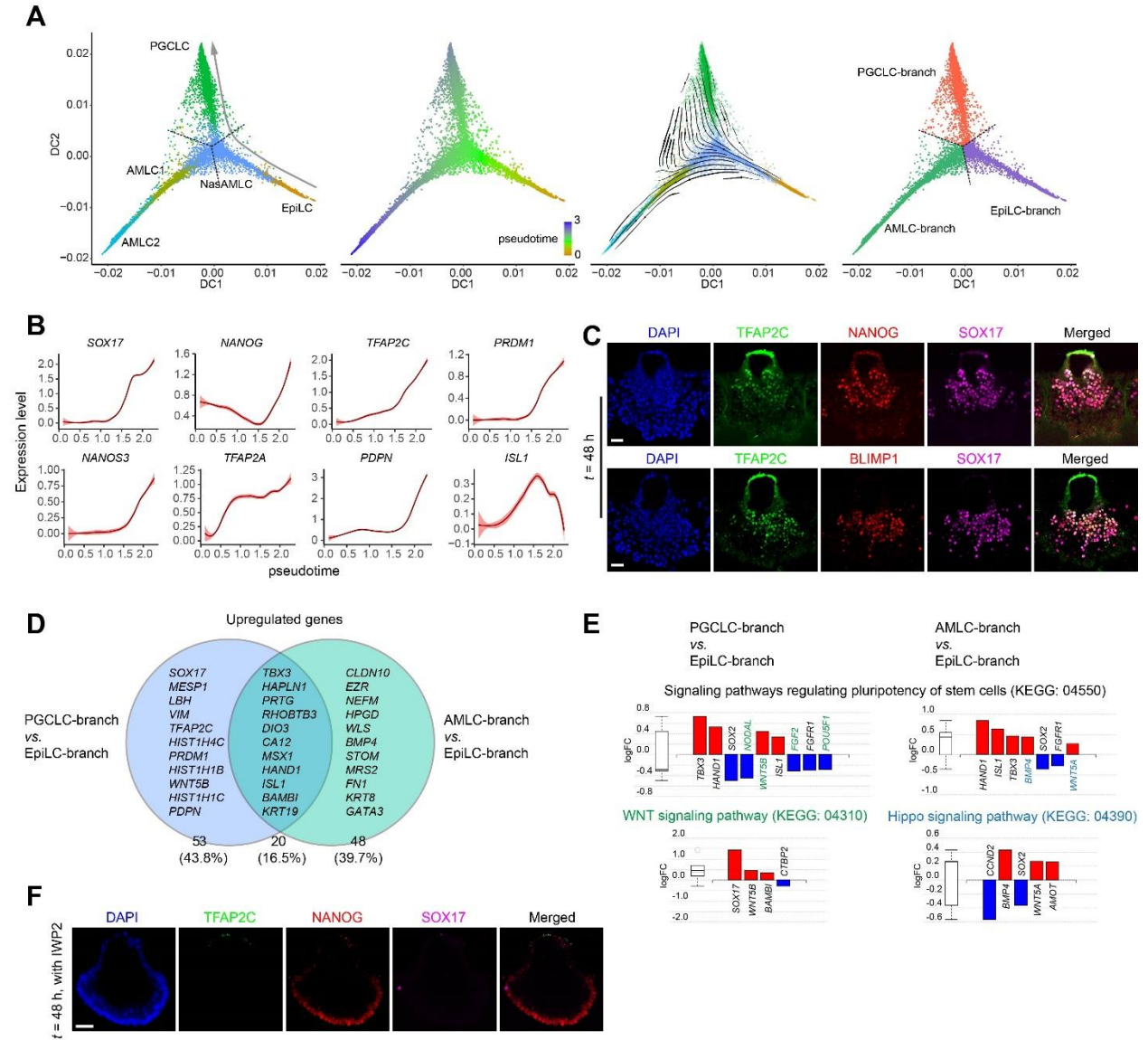


Figure 3. PGCLC specification during μ PASE development.

(A) Trajectory inference of PGCLC lineage. *left*: Diffusion map using EpiLC, NasAMLC, AMLC1, AMLC2, and PGCLC clusters from the UMAP plot in **Figure 1D**. Dotted lines show the branching point and branches identified by K-Branched algorithm. *middle left*: Pseudotime analysis based on the diffusion map. *middle right*: RNA velocity vectors overlaid on the diffusion map. *right*: Branches and the branching point identified by K-Branched algorithm. Note that NasAMLC cluster is separated into three branches, which after merging with EpiLC,

1265 AMLC1/2 and PGCLC, respectively, are annotated as EpiLC-branch NasAMLc, AMLC-branch
1266 NasAMLc and PGCLC-branch NasAMLc, respectively.

1267 **(B)** Expression dynamics (pseudotime) of selected genes during PGCLC lineage development.
1268 Level of confidence (0.95) is indicated by band width.

1269 **(C)** Representative confocal micrographs showing μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h stained for TFAP2C,
1270 NANOG and SOX17 (*top*) and TFAP2C, BLIMP1 and SOX17 (*bottom*).

1271 **(D)** Venn diagram showing upregulate genes of AMLC-branch and PGCLC-branch NasAMLcs
1272 when compared to EpiLC-branch NasAMLcs. Note that only a subset of these genes is specified
1273 in the diagram.

1274 **(E)** Pathway analysis of DEGs in PGCLC-branch NasAMLcs and AMLC-branch NasAMLcs,
1275 as compared to EpiLC-branch NasAMLcs. Green and blue colors indicate genes or pathways
1276 identified only for PGCLC-branch NasAMLcs and AMLC-branch NasAMLcs, respectively.

1277 **(F)** Representative confocal micrographs showing μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h stained for TFAP2C,
1278 NANOG and SOX17, with IWP2 supplemented into the basal medium from $t = 0$ h.
1279

1280 In **C** and **F**, experiments were repeated four times with similar results. Nuclei were
1281 counterstained with DAPI. Scale bars, 50 μ m.
1282

Figure 4

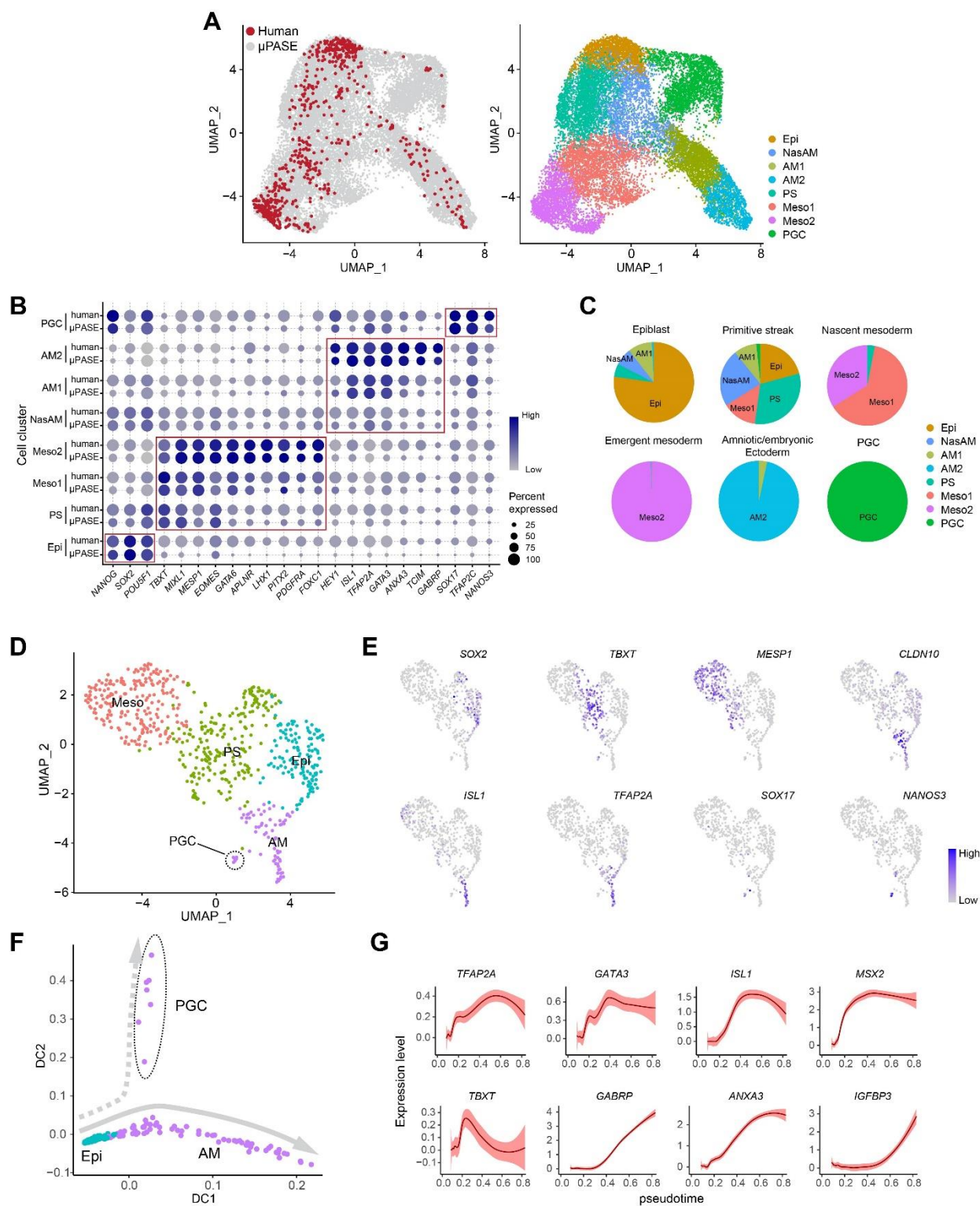


Figure 4. Transcriptomic comparison between μ PASEs and Carnegie Stage 7 human gastrula.

(A) *left*: UMAP of integrated dataset of μ PASEs from $t = 24, 36$ and 48 h (18,335 cells; grey) and CS7 human gastrula (647 cells, excluding irrelevant cells; red). *right*: UMAP project of integrated dataset with cell identity annotations.

(B) Dot plot comparing expression of key marker genes across different cell clusters from μ PASEs and CS7 human gastrula as indicated. The sizes and colors of dots indicate the proportion of cells expressing the corresponding genes and their averaged scaled values of log-transformed expression, respectively.

(C) Comparisons between human gastrula cell annotations in the original publication and annotations in the integrated dataset. The original annotations are indicated above the pie charts.

See **Table S5**

(D) Re-analysis of related cells from CS7 human gastrula (647 cells). Cell identity annotations are color coded as indicated. Note that primordial germ cells (PGCs) appear in the amniotic/embryonic ectoderm (AM) cluster.

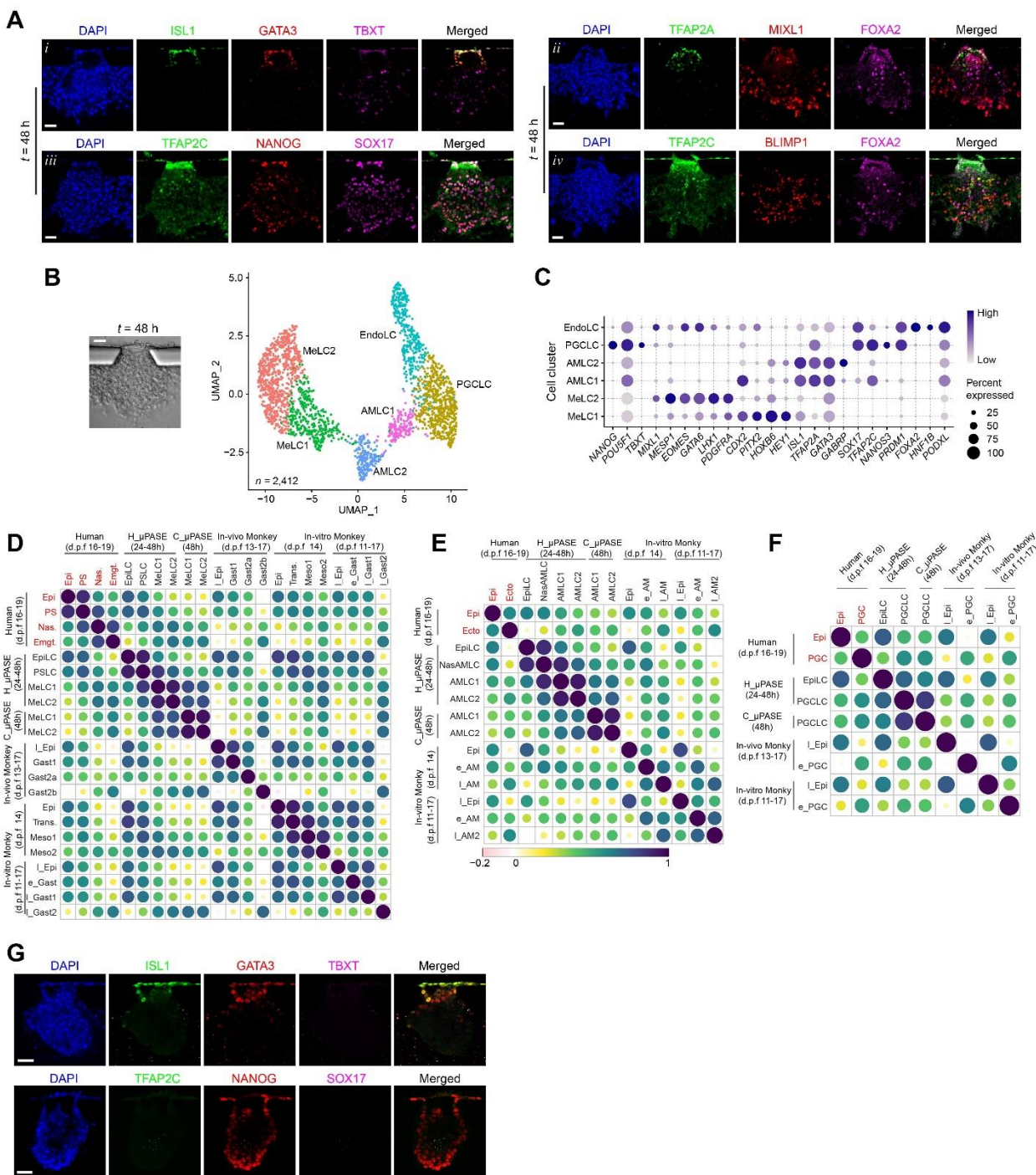
(E) Feature plots showing expression of selected lineage markers used for cell cluster annotations in **(D)**.

(F) Trajectory inference (diffusion map) of the AM cluster (including PGCs) in **(D)**.

(G) Expression dynamics (pseudotime) of selected genes during AM lineage development. Level of confidence (0.95) is indicated by band width.

Epi: Epiblast; PS: primitive streak; Meso: Mesoderm; AM: amniotic ectoderm; PGC: primordial germ cell.

Figure 5



1308

Figure 5. Transcriptomic coordination of primate early post-implantation development.

(A) Representative confocal micrographs showing chimpanzee μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT (*i*); TFAP2A, MIXL1 and FOXA2 (*ii*); TFAP2C, NANOG, SOX17 (*iii*); TFAP2C, BLIMP1 and FOXA2 (*iv*).

(B) *Left*: Bright-field image showing a chimpanzee μ PASE at $t = 48$ h. *Right*: UMAP plot of single-cell transcriptome dataset from chimpanzee μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h. Cell identity annotations are color coded as indicated. n indicates the total cell number. EndoLC: Endoderm-like cell.

(C) Dot plot showing expression of key marker genes across the cell clusters as indicated. The sizes and colors of dots indicate the proportion of cells expressing the corresponding genes and their averaged scaled values of log-transformed expression, respectively.

(D) Heat map of correlation matrix for primitive streak / mesoderm-related lineages including those reported by others. Correlation coefficients between indicated cell types are calculated based on mesoderm ontogenic genes identified from cynomolgus embryo transcriptome data (131 in common). See **Table S6**.

(E) Heat map of correlation matrix for amnion-related lineages including those reported by others. Correlation coefficients between indicated cell types are calculated based on amnion ontogenic genes identified from cynomolgus embryo transcriptome data (142 in common). See **Table S6**.

(F) Heat map of correlation matrix for PGC-related lineages including those reported by others. Correlation coefficients between indicated cell types are calculated based on PGC ontogenic genes identified for cynomolgus embryo transcriptome data (194 in common). See **Table S6**.

(G) Representative confocal micrographs showing chimpanzee μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h with IWP2 supplemented into the basal medium from $t = 0$ h, stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT (*top*); TFAP2C, NANOG and SOX17 (*bottom*).

In **D-F**, correlation coefficients are calculated using average ontogenic gene expression of single cells. Original cell annotations in published datasets are used. $\text{Log}_2(\text{reads per million} + 1)$ and $\text{Log}_2(\text{transcripts per million} + 1)$ are used for transcriptome datasets generated using 10 $\times$ Chrome and Smart-seq2, respectively.

1340 Human: human gastrula from Ref.(Tyser et al., 2021). Epi: epiblast; PS: primitive streak; Nas.:
 1341 Nascent mesoderm; Emgt.: emergent mesoderm; Ecto.: amniotic/embryonic ectoderm; PGC:
 1342 primordial germ cell. H_μPASE and C_μPASE: μPASEs generated from human and
 1343 chimpanzee cells, respectively. *In vivo* monkey: *in vivo* cynomolgus embryo from
 1344 Ref.(Nakamura et al., 2016; Sasaki et al., 2016). l_EPI: late epiblast; Gast: gastrulation; e_PGC:
 1345 early primordial germ cell. *In vitro* monkey: *in vitro* cultured cynomolgus embryo from Ref.(Ma
 1346 et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2021). Trans: Transition; Meso: mesoderm; l_EPI: late epiblast; e_Gast:
 1347 early gastrulation; l_Gast: late gastrulation; e_AM: early amniotic ectoderm; l_AM: late
 1348 amniotic ectoderm.
 1349
 1350 Expression of ontogenic genes is included in **Table S6**. In **A** and **G**, experiments were repeated
 1351 four times with similar results. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bars, 50 μm.

Figure 6

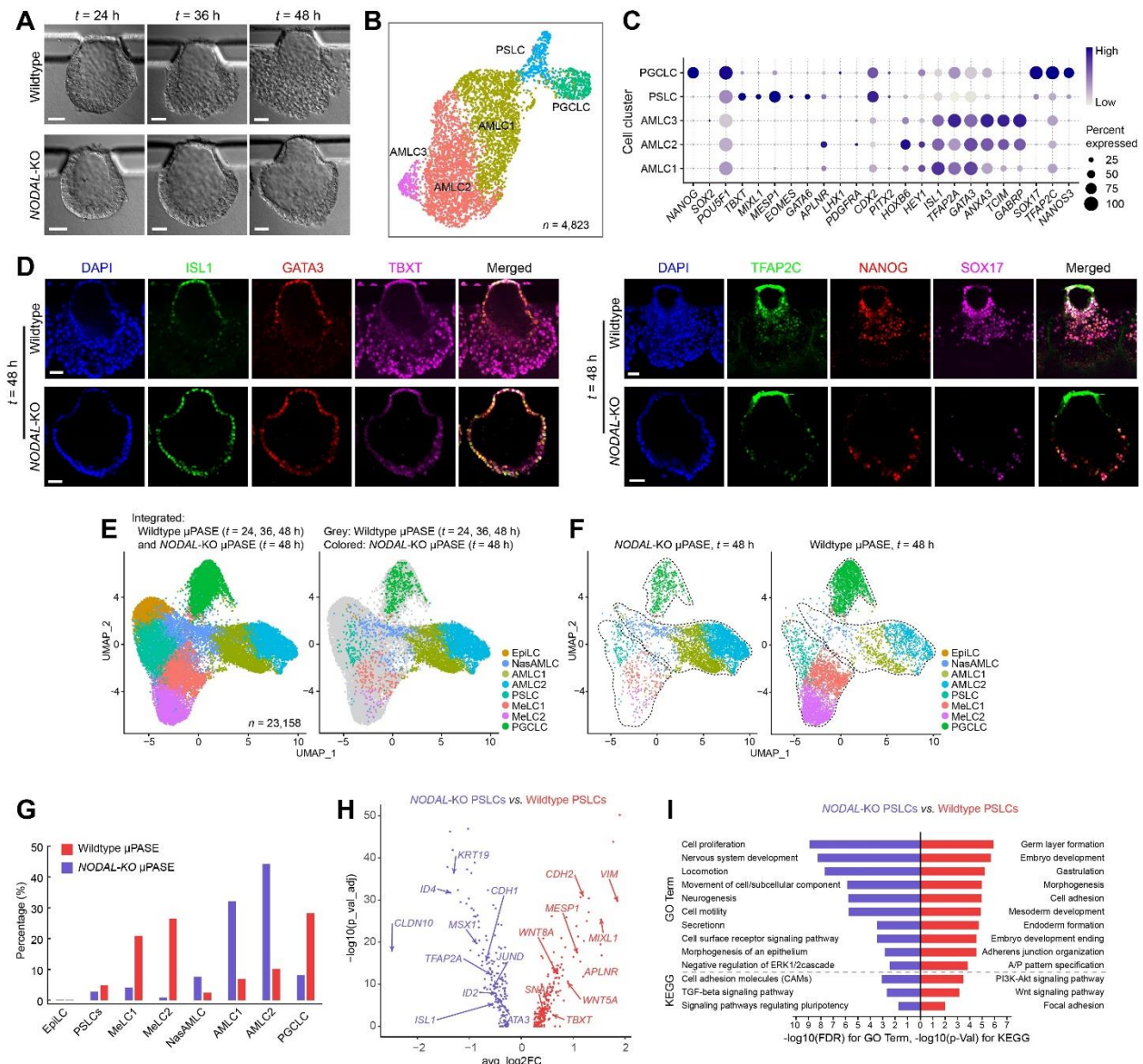


Figure 6. NODAL is essential for mesoderm development in μ PASEs.

(A) Representative bright-field images showing progressive development of μ PASEs generated from wildtype (*top*) and *NODAL*-KO (*bottom*) hPSCs.

(B) UMAP plot of single-cell transcriptome data from *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h, with cell identity annotations color coded. n indicates the total cell number.

(C) Dot plot showing expression of key marker genes across the cell clusters in *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs as indicated. The sizes and colors of dots indicate the proportion of cells expressing the corresponding genes and their averaged scaled values of log-transformed expression, respectively.

(D) Representative confocal micrographs showing μ PASEs generated from wildtype and *NODAL*-KO hPSCs at $t = 48$ h, stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT (*left*) and TFAP2C, NANOG and SOX17 (*right*).

(E) *left*: Integrated UMAP plot of wildtype μ PASEs at $t = 24, 36, 48$ h and *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h, color-coded according to cell identity annotations. *right*: data from wildtype and *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs are shown in different colors as indicated.

(F) UMAP plots of *NODAL*-KO (*left*) and wildtype (*right*) μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h, with data isolated from E. Dotted lines contour cell clusters corresponding to AMLC, PSLC / MeLC and PGCLC lineages.

(G) Percentages of indicted cell types in wildtype (red) and *NODAL*-KO (blue) μ PASEs.

(H) Volcano plots showing DEGs between PSLCs from wildtype and *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs, with selected genes labelled.

(I) Enriched GO categories and KEGG pathways among DEGs between wildtype and *NODAL*-KO PSLCs.

In D, experiments were repeated three times with similar results. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bars, 50 μ m.

Figure 7

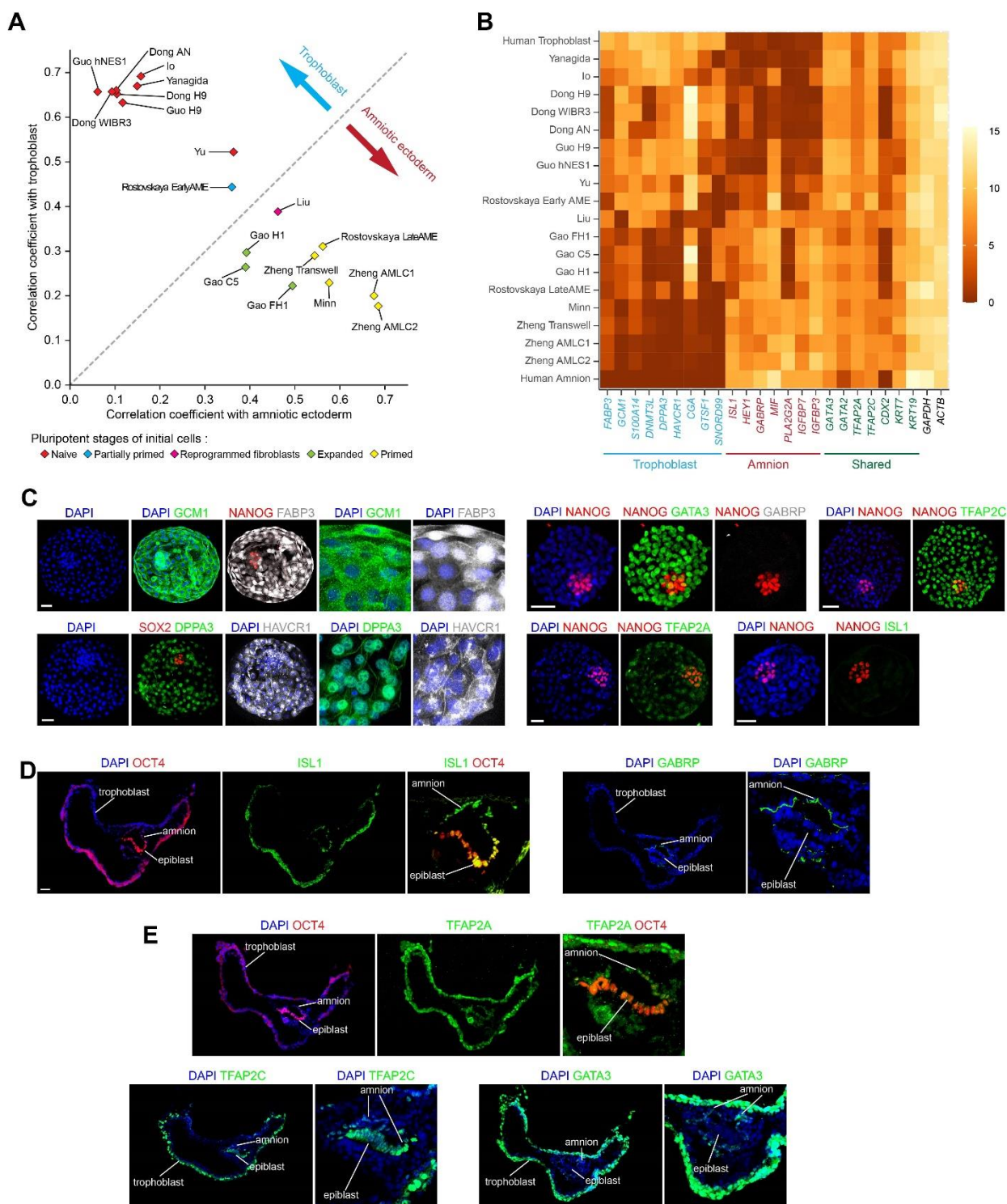


Figure 7. Stringent criteria for identifying human trophoblast and amniotic ectoderm.

(A) Correlation coefficients of *in vitro* derived cells with human trophoblast and amniotic ectoderm, computed using Trophoblast_Amion ontogenic genes. See **Table S8**.

(B) Heatmap showing expression levels of selected genes related to human trophoblast and amniotic ectoderm. Identified human trophoblast and amniotic ectoderm markers are highlighted in blue and red, respectively. Markers shared between human trophoblast and amniotic ectoderm are highlighted in green.

(C) Representative confocal micrographs showing E6 human blastocysts, stained for GCM1, NANOG and FABP3; SOX2, DPPA3 and HAVCR1 (Images on the right show magnified views of the trophectoderm); NANOG, GATA3 and GABRP; NANOG and TFAP2C; NANOG and TFAP2A; and NANOG and ISL1.

(D) Representative confocal micrographs showing *in vitro* cultured D14 cynomolgus embryos, stained for OCT4 and ISL1; and GABRP. Images on the right show magnified views of the epiblast and amniotic ectoderm.

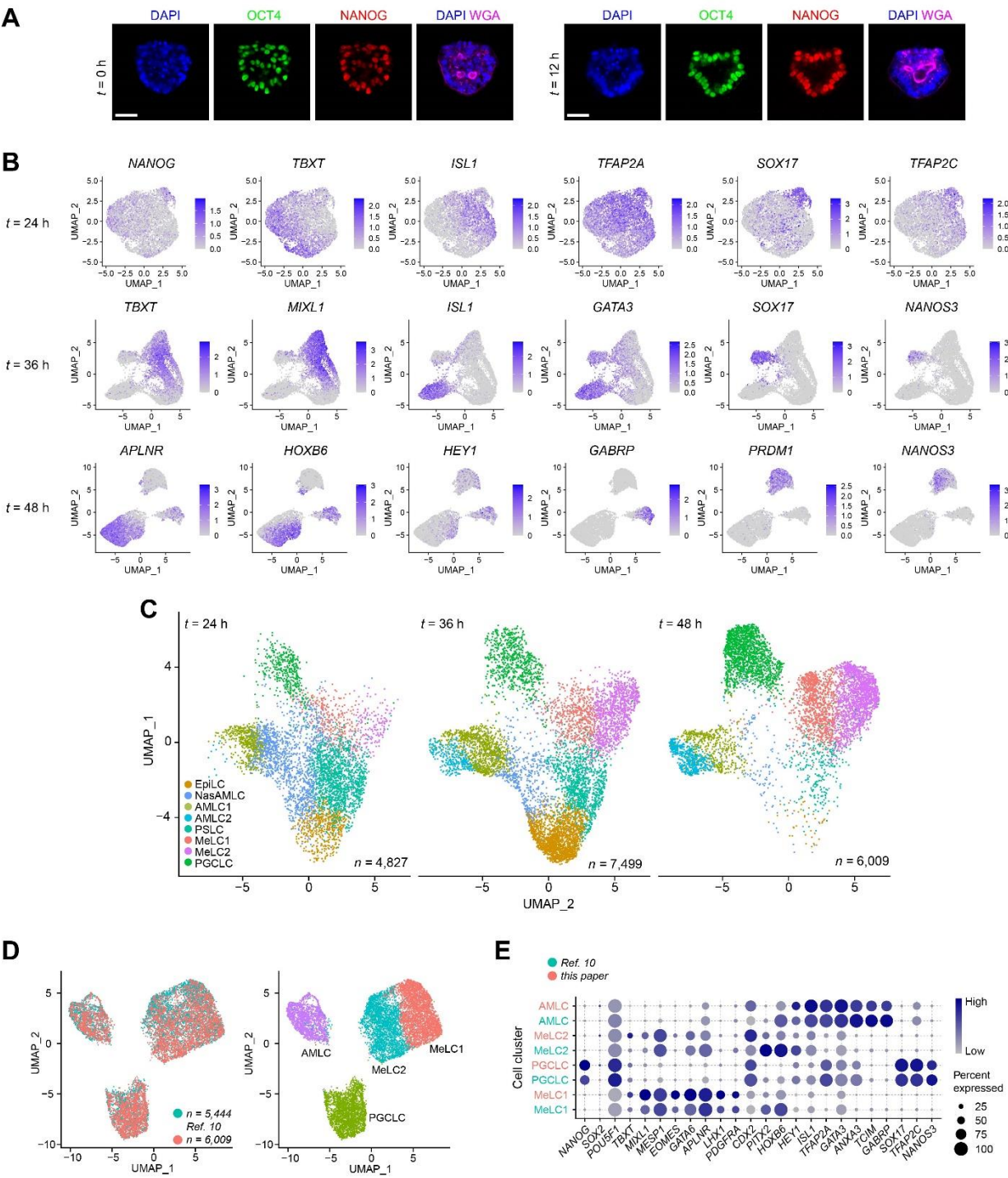
(E) Representative confocal micrographs showing *in vitro* cultured D14 cynomolgus embryos, stained for OCT4 and TFAP2A, TFAP2C and GATA3. Images on the right show magnified views of the epiblast and amniotic ectoderm.

Human trophoblast (Ref.(Blakeley et al., 2015; Petropoulos et al., 2016)), Human amnion (Ref.(Tyser et al., 2021)), Zheng Transwell (Ref.(Zheng et al., 2019b)), Gao C5, Gao H1, Gao FH1(Ref.(Gao et al., 2019)), Minn (Ref.(Minn et al., 2020)), Liu (Ref.(Liu et al., 2021)), Yu (Ref.(Yu et al., 2021)), Guo H9, Guo hNES1(Ref.(Guo et al., 2021)), Io (Ref.(Io et al., 2021)), Yanagida (Ref.(Yanagida et al., 2021)), Dong H9, Dong WIBR3, Dong AN (Ref.(Dong et al., 2020)), Rostovskaya EarlyAME, Rostovskaya LateAME (Ref.(Rostovskaya et al., 2022))

Correlation coefficients and gene expression heatmap were calculated based on averages of experimental repeats, if any. When the published work contains transcriptome datasets from multiple time points, datasets from the experimental endpoint are utilized.

In **C-E**, experiments were repeated twice with similar results. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bars, 50 μ m.

Supplemental Figure 1



Supplemental Figure 1. Single-cell transcriptomic profiling of μ PASE development.

Related to Figure 1.

(A) Representative confocal micrographs showing μ PASEs at $t = 0$ h (*left*) and $t = 12$ h (*right*) stained for OCT4 and NANOG. Plasma membrane is stained with fluorescently labelled wheat germ agglutinin (WGA).

(B) Feature plots showing selected lineage markers used for cell identity annotations in the UMAP plots of μ PASEs at $t = 24, 36$ and 48 h, respectively.

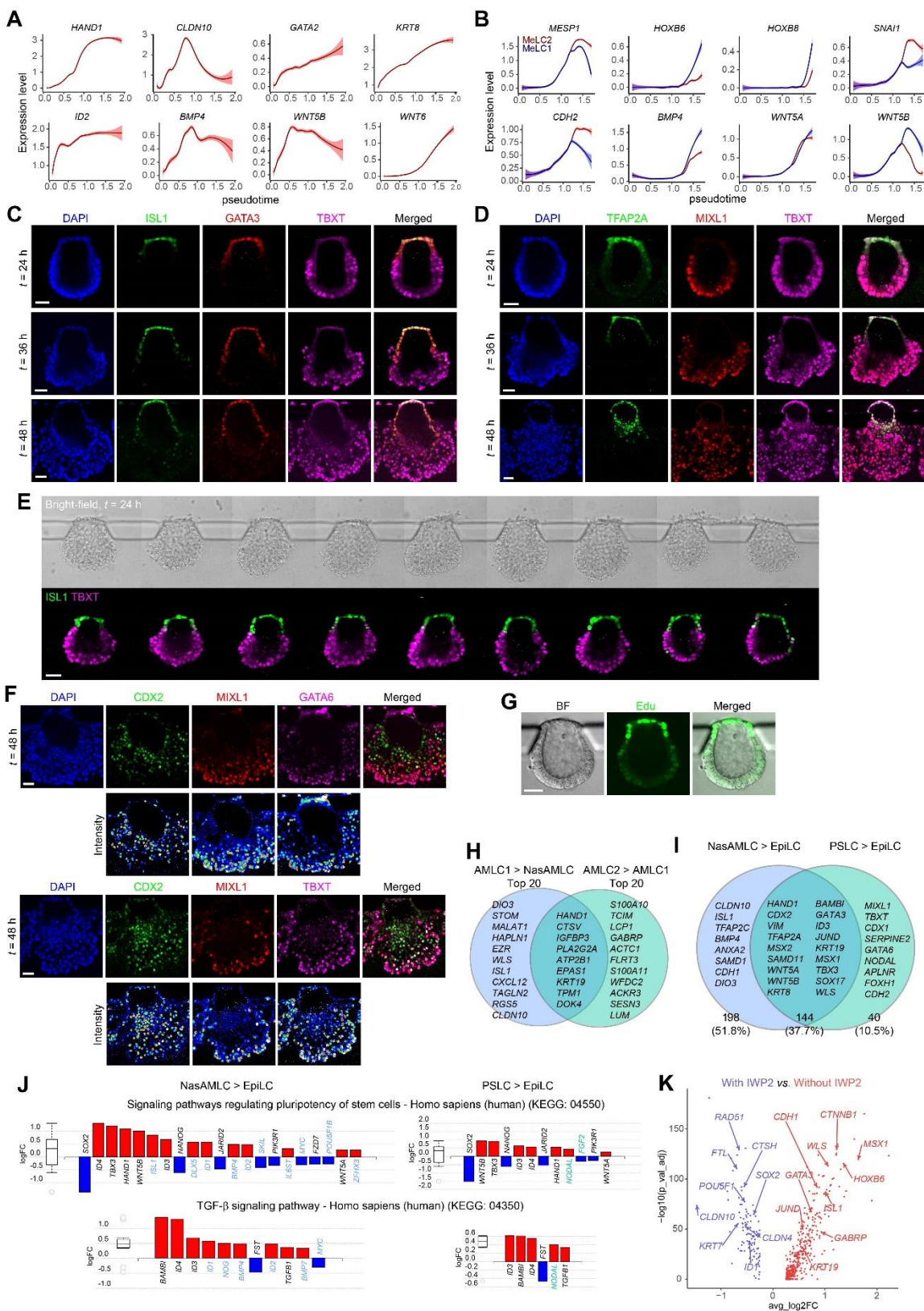
(C) UMAP plots of μ PASEs at $t = 24, 36, 48$ h, separated from the integrated UMAP plot in **Figure 1D**. n indicates the cell number.

(D) Integrated UMAP plots of datasets from μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h and the published dataset in Ref.(Zheng et al., 2019b). *Left*: Datasets are color-coded according to sources, with n indicating the cell number; *right*: Cells are color-coded according to cell identity annotations.

(E) Dot plot showing expression of key marker genes across the cell clusters as indicated (μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h from this paper (red) and Ref.(Zheng et al., 2019b) (blue)). The sizes and colors of dots indicate the proportion of cells expressing the corresponding genes and their averaged scaled values of log-transformed expression, respectively.

In **A**, experiments were repeated four times with similar results. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bars, $50\ \mu\text{m}$.

Supplemental Figure 2



Supplemental Figure 2. Trajectory inference and gene expression dynamics during μ PASE development. Related to Figure 2.

(A) Expression dynamics (pseudotime) of selected genes during AMLC lineage development. Level of confidence (0.95) is indicated by band width.

(B) Expression dynamics (pseudotime) of selected genes during PSLC / MeLC lineage development. Level of confidence (0.95) is indicated by band width.

(C) Representative confocal micrographs showing μ PASEs at indicated time points stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT.

(D) Representative confocal micrographs showing μ PASEs at indicated time points stained for TFAP2A, MIXL1 and TBXT.

(E) Bright-field and immunofluorescence images showing an array of μ PASEs at $t = 24$ h, stained for ISL1 and TBXT.

(F) Representative confocal micrographs showing μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h stained for CDX2, MIXL1 and GATA6 (*top*); CDX2, MIXL1 and TBXT (*bottom*). Intensity maps show relative intensities of corresponding markers as indicated.

(G) Representative confocal micrographs showing proliferating cells in μ PASEs. Images were taken at $t = 27$ h. Cell nuclei with newly synthesized DNA within the last 3 hours were labeled using Click-iT EdU Imaging Kit (Invitrogen). Note: The low intensity of the Edu signal from cells embedded in the gel is caused by insufficient dye diffusion.

(H) Venn diagram showing top 20 upregulated genes in AMLC1 vs. NasAMLc and AMLC2 vs. AMLC1. The full DEG lists can be found in **Table S3**.

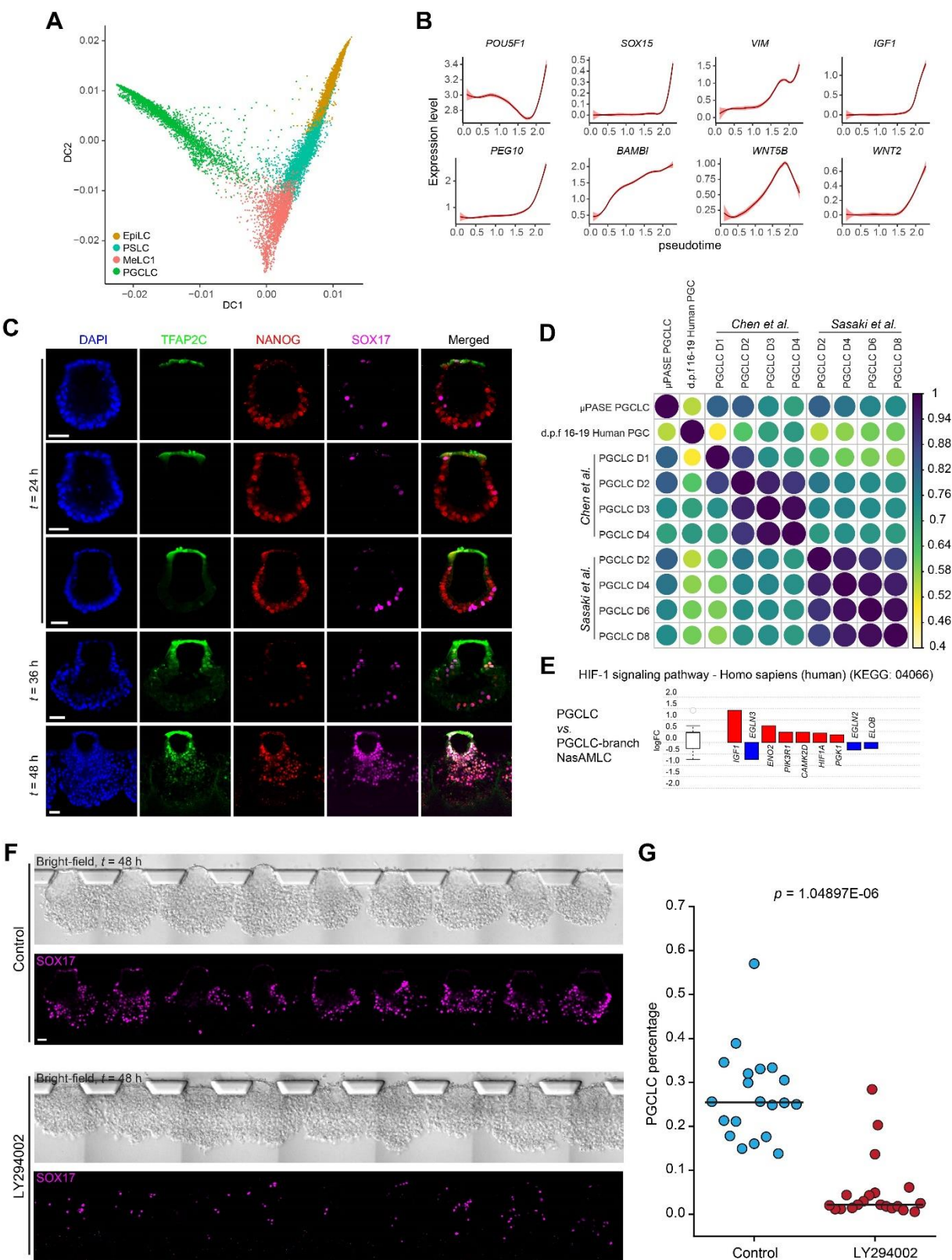
(I) Venn diagram showing selected upregulated genes in NasAMLc and PSLC, as compared to EpiLC. The full DEG lists can be found in **Table S3**.

(J) DEGs related to pluripotency signaling pathway (KEGG: 04550) and TGF- β signaling pathway (KEGG: 04350) in NasAMLc and PSLC, as compared to EpiLC. Blue and green colors highlight genes identified only for NasAMLc and PSLC, respectively.

(K) Volcano plots showing DEGs between AMLCs from μ PASEs with or without IWP2 at $t = 48$ h, with selected genes labelled. The full DEG list can be found in **Table S3**.

In C-G, experiments were repeated three times with similar results. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bars, 50 μ m.

Supplemental Figure 3



Supplemental Figure 3. PGCLC specification during μ PASE development. Related to Figure 3.

(A) Diffusion map of EpiLC, PSLC, MeLC1 and PGCLC clusters from the UMAP plot in **Figure 1D**. PGCLC cluster is discontinuous from other clusters. K-Branches algorithm failed to identify branches or branching points with sufficient confidence.

(B) Expression dynamics (pseudotime) of selected genes during PGCLC lineage development. Level of confidence (0.95) is indicated by band width.

(C) Representative confocal micrographs showing μ PASEs at indicated time points stained for TFAP2C, NANOG and SOX17.

(D) Heat map of correlation matrix for PGCLCs in μ PASEs, human PGCs (Ref. (Tyser et al., 2021)) and PGCLCs derived using other protocols (Ref. (Chen et al., 2019; Sasaki et al., 2015)). Correlation coefficients between indicated cell types are calculated based on PGC ontogenic genes identified for cynomolgus embryo transcriptome data.

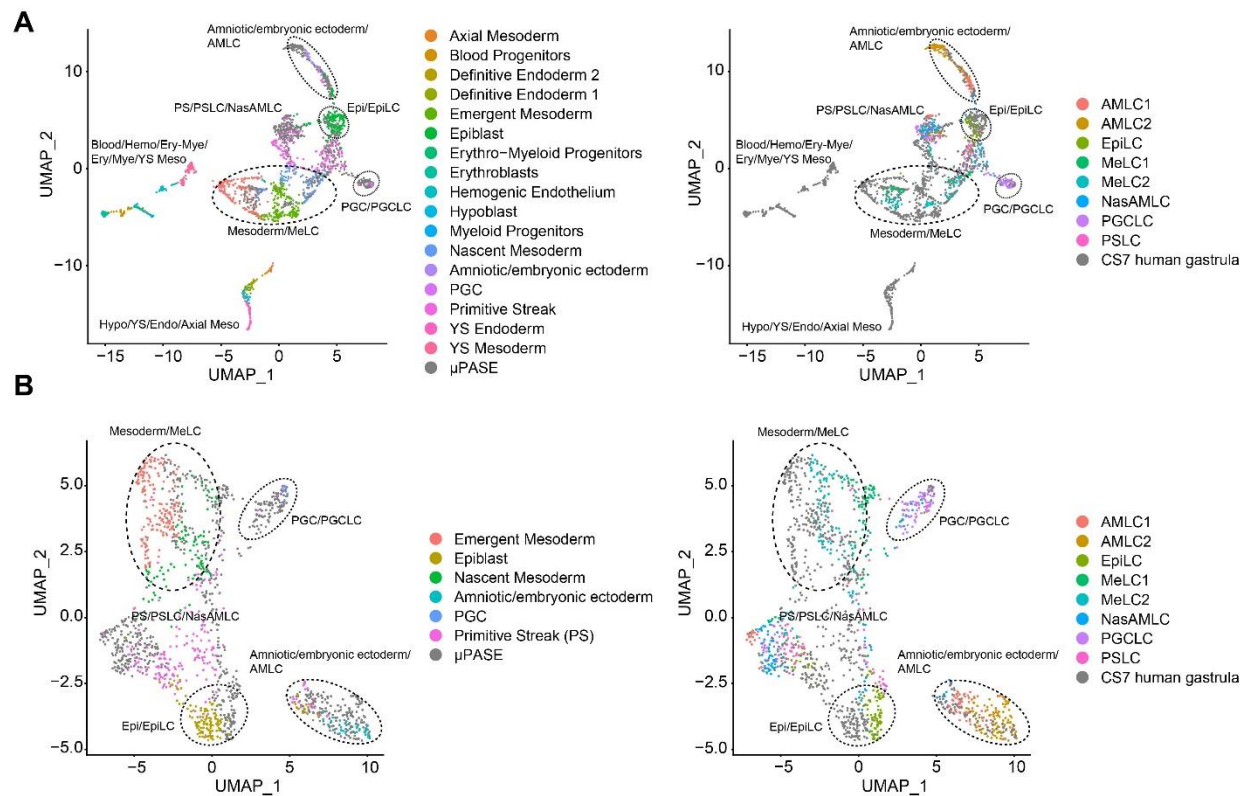
(E) DEGs related to HIF-1 signaling pathway (KEGG: 04066) in PGCLC as compared to PGCLC-branch NasAMLC.

(F) Representative confocal micrographs showing arrays of μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h, stained for SOX17; control (*top*); with LY294002 supplemented into the basal medium from $t = 0$ h (*bottom*).

(G) Percentage of SOX17+ PGCLCs in μ PASEs at $t = 48$ h under indicated conditions. $n = 20$ μ PASEs for each condition. Data were pooled from $n = 2$ independent experiments. Red lines represent the median.

In **C** and **F**, experiments were repeated three times with similar results. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bars, 50 μ m.

Supplemental Figure 4

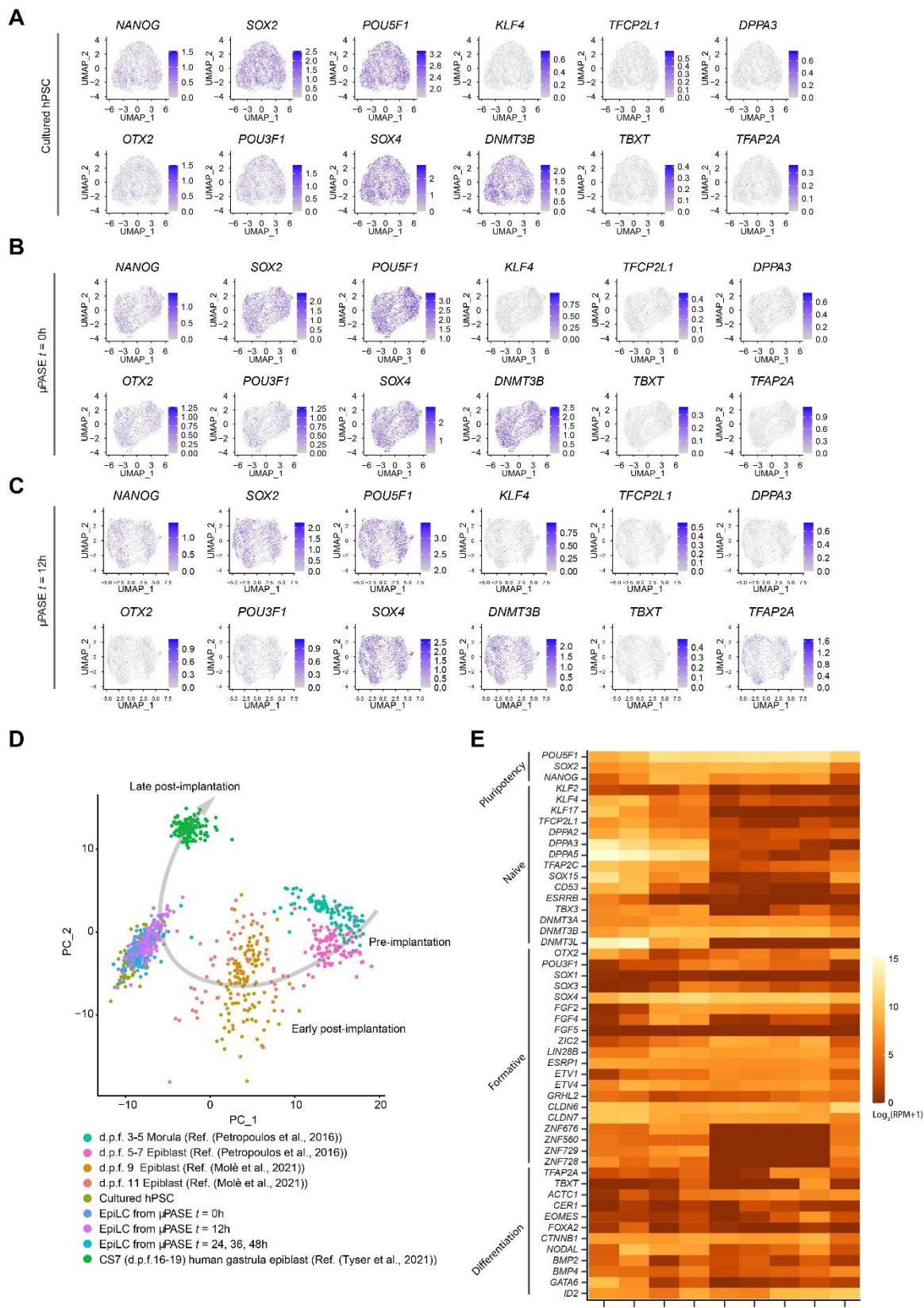


Supplemental Figure 4. scRNA-seq data integration of Carnegie Stage 7 human gastrula and downsampled μ PASEs. Related to Figure 4.

(A) UMAP plots of integrated dataset of CS7 human gastrula (all 1,195 cells) and downsampled μ PASEs (from Figure 1D, 100 cells per cluster). *Left:* color-coded according to original cell identity annotations of CS7 human gastrula; grey color indicates cells from μ PASEs. *Right:* color-coded according to cell identity annotations of μ PASEs as indicated in Figure 1D; grey color indicates cells from CS7 human gastrula.

(B) UMAP plots of integrated dataset of CS7 human gastrula (647 cells, excluding irrelevant cells) and downsampled μ PASEs (from Figure 1D, 100 cells per cluster). *Left:* color-coded according to original cell identity annotations of CS7 human gastrula; grey color indicates cells from μ PASEs. *Right:* color-coded according to cell identity annotations of μ PASEs as indicated in Figure 1D; grey color indicates cells from CS7 human gastrula.

Supplemental Figure 5



Supplemental Figure 5. Single-cell transcriptomic profiling of cultured hPSCs, μ PASEs at $t = 0$ h and $t = 12$ h. Related to Figure 4.

(A) Feature plots showing expression of selected markers in the UMAP plot of cultured hPSCs. $n = 3782$

(B) Feature plots showing selected expression of markers in the UMAP plot of μ PASEs at $t = 0$ h. $n = 2948$

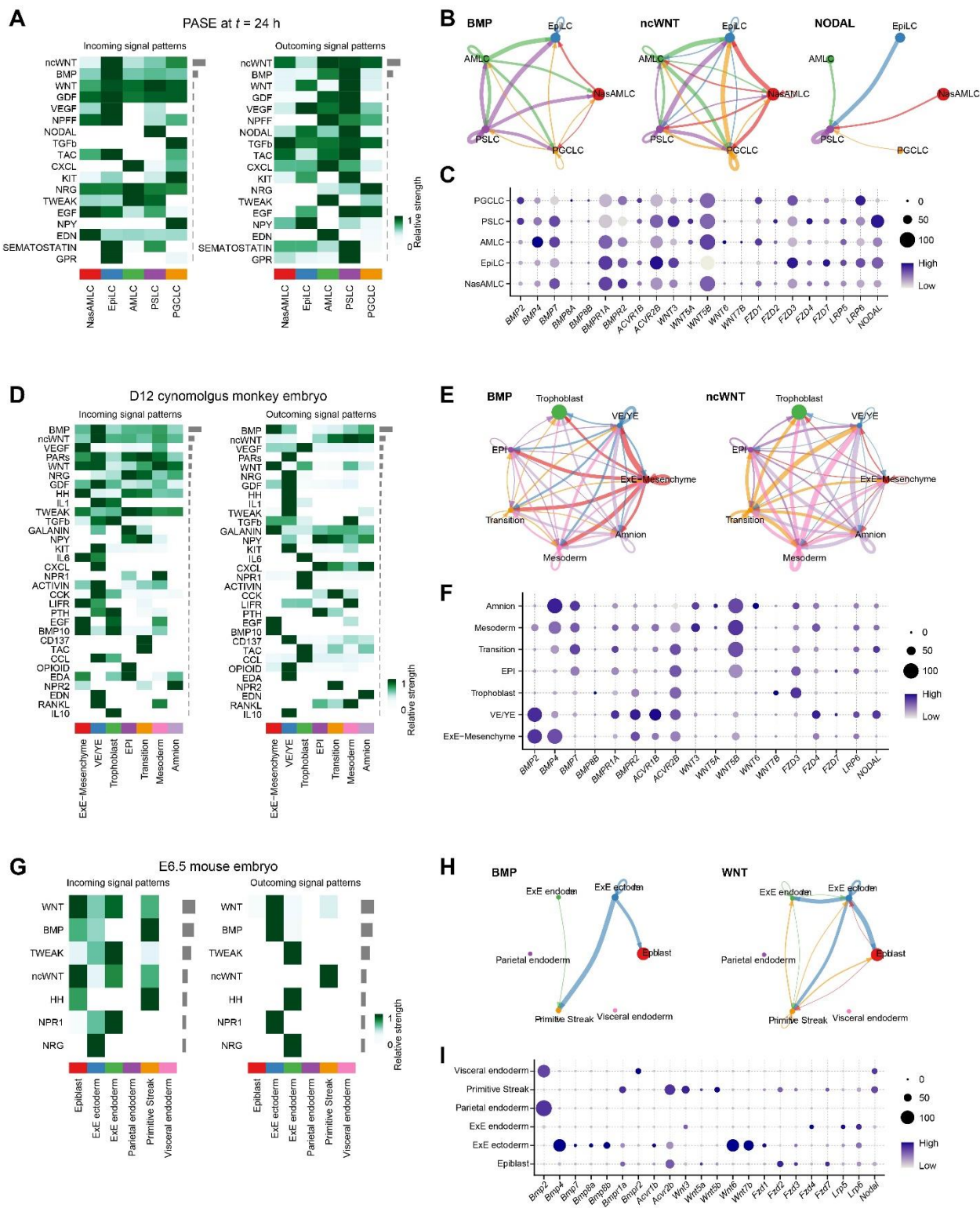
(C) Feature plots showing selected expression of markers in the UMAP plot of μ PASEs at $t = 12$ h. $n = 2732$

(D) Principal component analysis (PCA) plot of cultured hPSCs, μ PASEs at $t = 0$ h and μ PASEs at $t = 12$ h, EpiLCs from μ PASEs in **Figure 1D** (at $t = 24, 36$ and 48 h), d.p.f. 9 ($n = 108$) and d.p.f. 11 ($n = 62$) epiblasts from *in vitro* cultured human embryos (Ref.(Molè et al., 2021)), epiblasts from CS7 human gastrula ($n = 133$) (Ref. (Tyser et al., 2021)), d.p.f. 5-7 epiblasts from human blastocysts and d.p.f. 3-5 human morula cells (Ref.(Petropoulos et al., 2016)). PCAs were calculated using epiblast ontogenic genes identified from cynomolgus embryos (Nakamura et al., 2016, see **Table S5**). To prevent datasets with high number of cells dominating PCA calculation, cultured hPSCs, μ PASEs at $t = 0$ h, μ PASEs at $t = 12$ h, EpiLCs from μ PASEs (at $t = 24, 36$ and 48 h), d.p.f. 5-7 epiblasts from human blastocysts and d.p.f. 3-5 human morula cells were downsampled to 100 cells.

(E) Heatmap showing expression levels of selected genes reportedly related to human epiblast pluripotency states (Kinoshita et al., 2021; Takashima et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2021). Color codes are consistent with **D**.

In **A-C**, we could not identify reasonable distinct populations using unsupervised clustering algorithm (Seurat R package).

Supplemental Figure 6



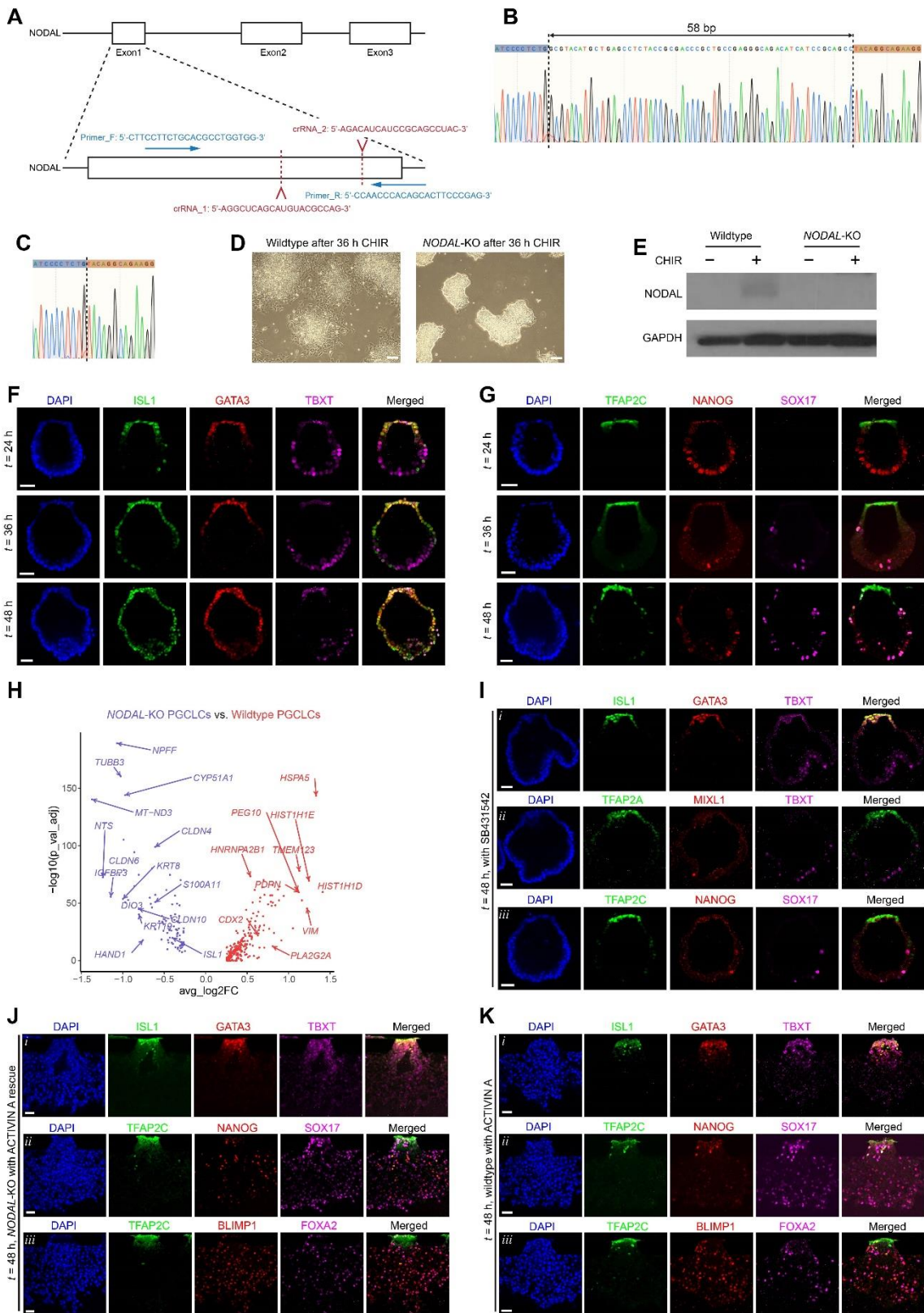
Supplemental Figure 6. Intercellular communication network analysis of μ PASEs, cynomolgus embryos and mouse embryos at the peri-gastrulation stage. Related to Figure 6.

(A), (D), (G), Heatmaps showing contributions of individual signaling pathways as incoming and outgoing signals for each cell type in μ PASEs at $t = 24$ h **(A)**, *in vitro* cultured cynomolgus embryos at Day 12 **(D)**, and mouse embryos at E6.5 **(G)**. Grey bars on the right indicate relative signal strengths of each pathway across all cell types within local tissue environments.

(B), (E), (H), Circle plots showing inferred signal networks of selected pathways in μ PASEs at $t = 24$ h **(B)**, *in vitro* cultured cynomolgus embryos at Day 12 **(E)**, and mouse embryos at E6.5 **(H)**. The dot size is proportional to the number of cells for each cell type, and the line thickness corresponds to the communication probability.

(C), (F), (I), Dot plots showing expression levels of selected ligands and receptors in μ PASEs at $t = 24$ h **(C)**, *in vitro* cultured cynomolgus embryos at Day 12 **(F)**, and mouse embryos at E6.5 **(I)**. The sizes and colors of dots indicate the proportion of cells expressing the corresponding genes and their averaged scaled values of log-transformed expression, respectively.

Supplemental Figure 7



Supplemental Figure 7. NODAL is essential for MeLC lineage development in μ PASEs. Related to Figure 6.

(A) Generation of *NODAL*-KO hPSCs. Two crRNA:tracrRNA duplexes were used simultaneously to delete a 58-bp portion of genomic DNA within the exon1 of *NODAL*.

(B), (C) Genomic DNA sequences of *NODAL* exon1 before and after CRISPR/Cas9-mediated gene deletion.

(D) Phase-contrast microscopy images of wildtype and *NODAL*-KO hPSC clones after exposure to CHIR99021 (10 μ M) for 36 h.

(E) Western blot showing NODAL protein expression in wildtype and *NODAL*-KO hPSCs after exposure to CHIR 99021 (10 μ M) for 24 h.

(F) Representative confocal micrographs showing *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs at indicated time points stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT.

(G) Representative confocal micrographs showing *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs at indicated time points stained for TFAP2C, NANOG and SOX17.

(H) Volcano plot showing DEGs between PGCLCs from wildtype and *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs, with selected genes labelled. The full DEG lists can be found in **Table S7**.

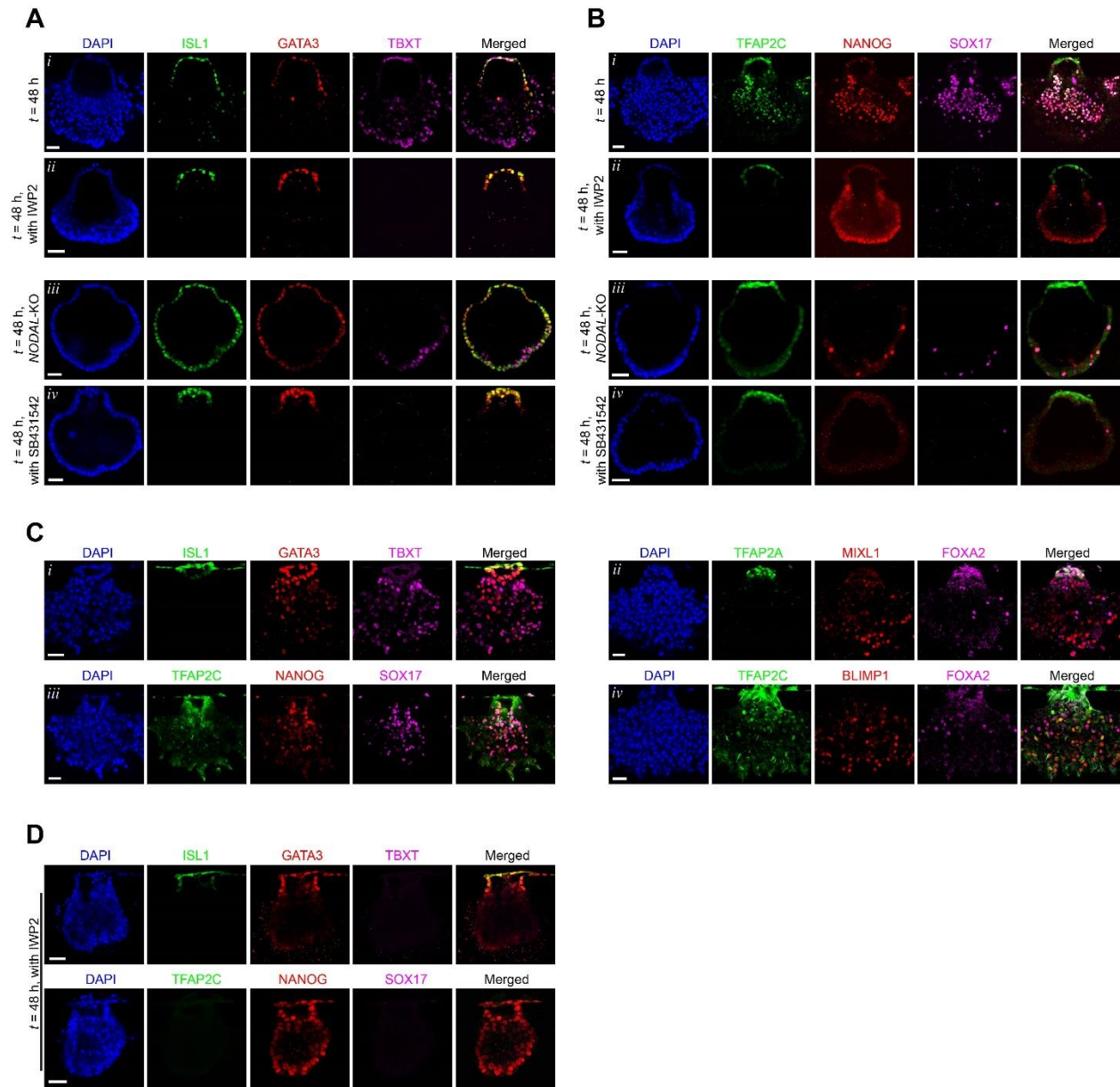
(I) Representative confocal micrographs showing wildtype μ PASEs with SB431542 supplemented into the basal medium from $t = 0$ h, stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT (*i*); TFAP2A, MIXL1 and TBXT (*ii*); TFAP2C, NANOG and SOX17 (*iii*).

(J) Representative confocal micrographs showing *NODAL*-KO μ PASEs with ACTIVIN A supplemented into the channel opposite to BMP4 stimulation from $t = 0$ h, stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT (*i*); TFAP2C, NANOG and SOX17 (*ii*); TFAP2C, BLIMP1 and FOXA2 (*iii*).

(K) Representative confocal micrographs showing wildtype μ PASEs with ACTIVIN A supplemented into the channel opposite to BMP4 stimulation from $t = 0$ h, stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT (*i*); TFAP2C, NANOG and SOX17 (*ii*); TFAP2C, BLIMP1 and FOXA2 (*iii*).

In **D, E and I-K**, experiments were repeated twice with similar results. In **F and G**, experiments were repeated three times with similar results, and nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Scale bars, 100 μ m (**D**) and 50 μ m (**F, G, I-K**).

Supplemental Figure 8

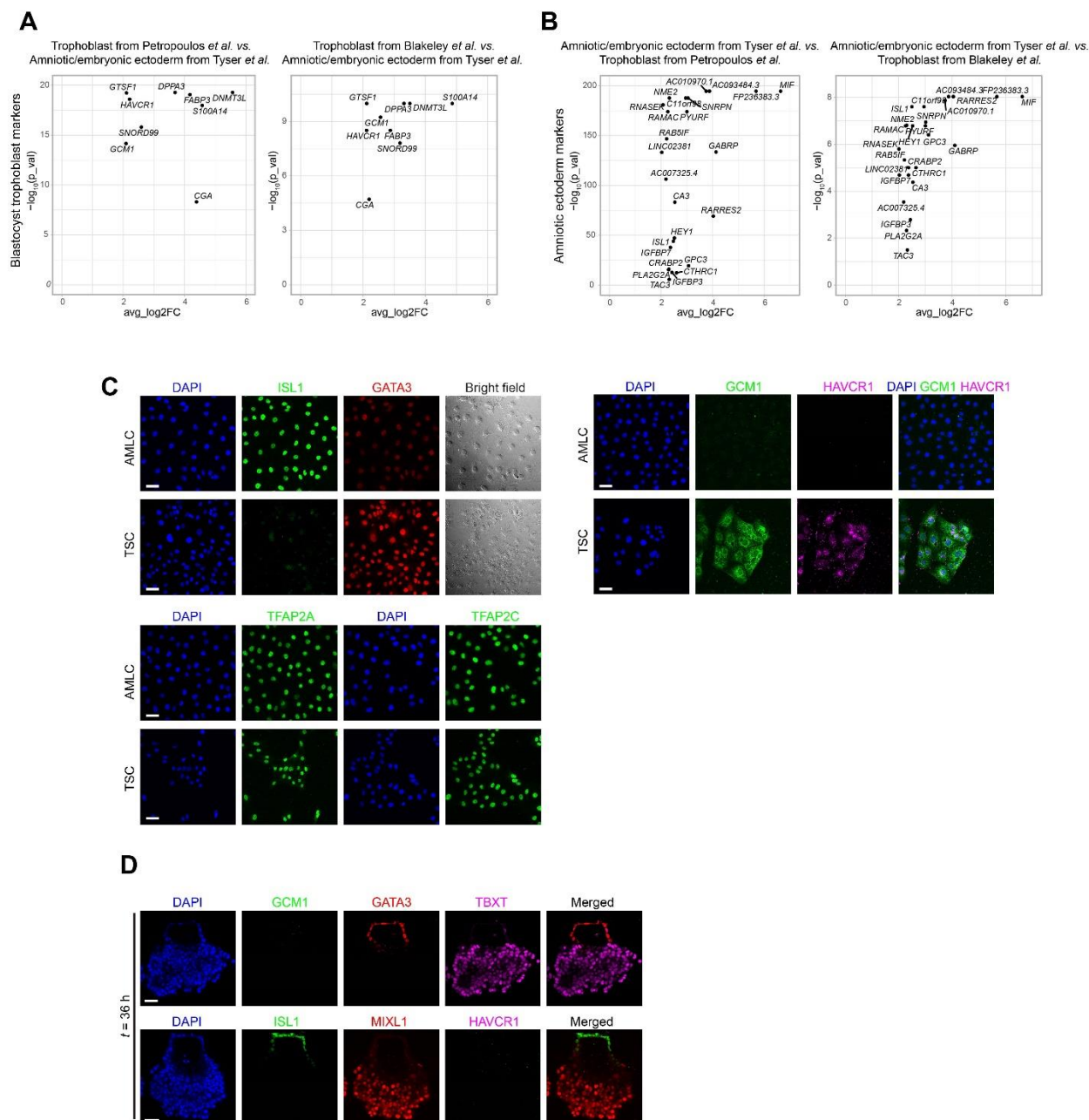


Supplemental Figure 8. μ PASEs generated with ESI-017 hPSC line and C4955 chimpanzee iPSC line.

(A) Representative confocal micrographs showing μ PASEs generated with ESI-017 hPSCs at *t* = 48 h stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT: wildtype (*i*), wildtype supplemented with IWP2 (*ii*), *NODAL*-KO (*iii*), wildtype supplemented with SB431542 (*iv*).

1581 **(B)** Representative confocal micrographs showing μ PASEs generated with ESI-017 hPSCs at $t =$
1582 48 h stained for TFAP2C, NANOG and SOX17: wildtype (*i*), wildtype supplemented with IWP2
1583 (*ii*), *NODAL*-KO (*iii*), wildtype supplemented with SB431542 (*iv*).
1584 **(C)** Representative confocal micrographs showing chimpanzee μ PASEs generated with C4955
1585 chimpanzee iPSCs at $t = 48$ h stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT (*i*); TFAP2A, MIXL1 and
1586 FOXA2 (*ii*); TFAP2C, NANOG and SOX17 (*iii*); TFAP2C, BLIMP1 and FOXA2 (*iv*).
1587 **(D)** Representative confocal micrographs showing chimpanzee μ PASEs generated with C4955
1588 chimpanzee iPSCs, supplemented with IWP2, at $t = 48$ h stained for ISL1, GATA3 and TBXT
1589 (*top*); TFAP2C, NANOG and SOX17 (*bottom*).
1590
1591 Experiments were repeated twice with similar results. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI.
1592 Scale bars, 50 μ m.

Supplemental Figure 9



Supplemental Figure 9. Stringent criteria for identifying human trophoblast and amniotic ectoderm. Related to Figure 7.

(A) Highly expressed genes identified using stringent criteria in human trophoblast, as compared with the amniotic/embryonic ectoderm from Ref. (Tyser *et al.*, 2021) shared between the trophoblast data from Ref. (Petropoulos *et al.*, 2016) and Ref. (Blakeley *et al.*, 2015) as indicated.

1599 **(B)** Highly expressed genes identified using stringent criteria in human amniotic/embryonic
1600 ectoderm from Ref. (Tyser et al., 2021), as compared with the trophoblast from Ref.
1601 (Petropoulos et al., 2016) and Ref. (Blakeley et al., 2015) as indicated.

1602 **(C)** Representative micrographs showing human trophoblast stem cells (TSCs) and amniotic
1603 ectoderm-like cells derived by treating hPSCs with BMP4, stained for ISL1 and GATA3; GCM1
1604 and HAVCR1; TFAP2A or TFAP2C, as indicated.

1605 **(D)** Representative micrographs showing μ PASEs at $t = 36$ h stained for GCM1, GATA3 and
1606 TBXT (*top*); ISL1, MIXL1 and HAVCR1 (*bottom*).

1607 In **C** and **D**, experiments were repeated twice with similar results. Nuclei were counterstained
1608 with DAPI. Scale bars, 50 μ m.