SteMClass: A Novel DNA Methylation-Based Classifier for iPSC In Vitro Differentiation States

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Abstract

Human induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) hold great promise for regenerative medicine, disease modelling, and drug discovery, but most downstream applications require differentiation into specialised cell types not covered by current quality control assays. Here, we present "SteMClass", a proof-of-concept DNA methylation-based classifier that standardises iPSC differentiation state identification across protocols with one test. We curated a reference cohort of 15 iPSC lines differentiated into seven distinct states (n = 97), performed array-based DNA methylation profiling, and trained a random forest model to classify the eight distinct differentiation states. In nested cross-validation, SteMClass achieved a Brier score of 0.018, and on an independent cohort (n = 58) attained 96.5% accuracy (Cohen's K = 0.959) with a 3% rejection rate. Applied to external data (n = 249), SteMClass achieved 85.1% overall accuracy (Cohen's K = 0.687) with a 12.9% rejection rate. Among classified samples (n = 217), accuracy was 97.7% (Cohen's K = 0.93). SteMClass is compatible with all Illumina methylation array versions, and accessible via an interactive web interface that supports classification and exploration of DNA methylation profiles. By providing a harmonised, single-assay framework for iPSC-derived differentiation state characterisation, SteMClass improves reproducibility and comparability across studies, paving the way for robust quality control standards and accelerating clinical translation.

Introduction

Due to their potential for self-renewal and to differentiate into all cell types of the human body, human induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) hold immense promise for regenerative medicine, drug screening and disease modelling (Shi et al., 2017). Despite the potential of iPSCs, there are significant challenges to address before routine clinical use.

Key limitations include safety concerns regarding genomic stability, immunogenicity and the scalability and reproducibility of differentiation and characterisation methods. Many recent developments have been made in the field of iPSC production in order to combat these issues, such as the development of universal cells that are camouflaged from the immune system (Lanza et al., 2019), the use of small molecules to replace growth factors (Liuyang et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024) and improved quality control of iPSC production such as genetic screening, and potency assessment (Dobner et al., 2024; Lenz, 2012, 2012; MacArthur et al., 2019; Tsankov et al., 2015; Yoshihara et al., 2017, Kügelgen et al., 2025). Despite the advancements in iPSC production and standardisation, scalable and reproducible differentiation of iPSCs into standardised, well-defined cell types remains a key challenge.

In recent years, large cell and tissue atlases have been generated using gene expression and DNA methylation profiling to identify distinct cell populations in vivo (Loyfer et al., 2023; Moss et al., 2018). However, cells generated by the differentiation of iPSCs in vitro are inherently distinct from their terminally differentiated in vivo counterparts due to their developmentally immature state, in vitro cell culture associated changes, reprogramming artefacts, and the persistence of somatic cell-specific epigenetic signatures (Cerneckis et al., 2024; Diane et al., 2025; Edgar et al., 2022; Franzen et al., 2021). Conventional assessments of iPSC differentiation generally depend on measuring a limited panel of lineage-characteristic gene or protein markers. Because the choice and interpretation of these markers vary among experiments and laboratories, this strategy is susceptible to considerable variability across experiments and laboratories (Grancharova et al., 2021; Kramer et al., 2016). Dobner et al. (2024) recently demonstrated the limitations of conventional gene-expression markers in distinguishing germ-layer identity. Using long-read nanopore transcriptomics on directed trilineage-differentiated samples from 15 iPSC lines, they showed that even the markers endorsed by the International Society of Stem Cell Research (ISSCR) overlap significantly across differentiation states. Hence, the authors devised and validated a concise 12-gene signature, which they incorporated into a machine-learning classifier for assigning early lineage identities (Dobner et al., 2024; Ludwig et al., 2023).

DNA methylation is tightly regulated and varies according to cell type with dynamic alterations playing a critical role in guiding cell fate and development. The epigenetic patterns that define the gene expression profiles of differentiated cells are established during development and maintained through subsequent cell divisions. As such, DNA methylation serves as a more consistent and enduring marker of a cell's identity than gene expression, which can be transient and subject to rapid changes in response to external stimuli (Bird, 2002; Gibney & Nolan, 2010; Jones & Taylor, 1980; Tompkins, 2022). The process of DNA methylation, carried out by DNA methyltransferase (DNMT) enzymes, and the turnover of methylation by TET enzymes are fundamental as cells exit pluripotency (Parry et al., 2021). Therefore, understanding the dynamics of DNA methylation changes through differentiation is key to improving differentiation efficiency and the standardisation of producing iPSCs and their differentiation derivatives. Research indicates that the efficiency of iPSC differentiation and the stability of differentiated cell populations are influenced by DNA methylation (Buckberry et al., 2023; Hajmousa et al., 2024; Ideno et al., 2022; Tesarova et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2023) and that DNA methylation patterns can serve as markers to identify iPSC lines with varying differentiation capacities (Butcher et al., 2016; Choi et al., 2020; Edgar et al., 2022; Nishizawa et al., 2016; Schmidt et al., 2022).

While whole-genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS) provides a comprehensive overview of the methylome, array-based methods, such as the Illumina Infinium assay, offer a cost-effective alternative for large-scale studies, enabling quantitative analysis of hundreds of thousands of curated CpG sites with high reproducibility and minimal inter-user variability (Bibikova et al., 2006; Capper et al., 2018; Chirica et al., 2024; Kurdyukov & Bullock, 2016; Tran et al., 2024). Leveraging this platform's scalability in conjunction with machine learning has led to the development of robust classification tools for several types of tumours (Capper et al., 2018; Danielsson et al., 2015; Dragomir et al., 2023; Hoang et al., 2024; Jurmeister et al., 2022; Tran et al., 2024).

Within this framework of classification tool development, "harmonisation" encompasses the standardisation of methodologies, reference datasets, analytical tools, and interpretive criteria, ensuring the DNA methylation data are consistent and comparable across laboratories, studies, and clinical settings. Such harmonisation, already successful in refining protocols and establishing machine learning-based classification tools in the field of brain tumours, ensures reliable classification, robust comparisons, and meaningful conclusions while minimising technical bias (Capper et al., 2018). As a result, brain tumour diagnostics have been transformed by a classifier built on these principles, culminating in their formal adoption by the WHO (Louis et al., 2021).

In this work, we bring these concepts to the iPSC research field by demonstrating that DNA
methylation profiling combined with machine learning can be leveraged to identify cells at
defined stages of iPSC differentiation. Our method employs a centrally curated, publicly
available reference dataset used to train a random forest classification tool we call SteMClass.

Researchers can upload their own test data via an online interface (https://pereze5-
stemclass.share.connect.posit.cloud/) to compare their test sample to the SteMClass
reference data. This unified DNA methylation-based assay can classify multiple cell types,
eliminating the need for numerous targeted tests for differentiation success assessment. This
enhances efficiency and enables direct comparisons across iPSC studies and differentiation
protocols with a single assay. Ultimately, this tool promotes harmonisation in iPSC research
and elevates the reproducibility and interpretability of findings in this rapidly advancing field.

Keywords: DNA methylation, induced pluripotent stem cells, differentiation, epigenetics,
regenerative medicine.

Materials and Methods

Cell Culture and Differentiation experiments

Culture of iPSCs
Human induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) were maintained on growth factor reduced
Geltrex (Gibco) in E8 or mTeSR (Stem Cell Technologies) media with daily media exchange.
Cells were enzymatically clump-passaged when >70% confluency was reached, usually every
2-4 days using 0.5mM EDTA (UltraPure™ EDTA, Thermo Fisher). Supplementary Tables 1-3
compiles the iPSC lines used in this study, and their maintenance culture conditions, detailed
protocol information is available on Protocols.io (Vallone et al., 2025). All iPSC lines were
provided by Berlin Institute of Health Core Unit Pluripotent Stem Cells and Organoids (BIH-
CUSCO) and have ethical approval for their use.

Differentiation Protocols
128 Cell type nomenclatures, iPSC lines and corresponding differentiation protocols used in this
129 study are described in Supplementary Tables 1-3 and Supplementary Figure 1.

Differentiation to Ectoderm
iPSCs were dissociated into single cells using TrypLE (Gibco) and seeded at a density of 5×10^5
cells per well in a 6-well plate (5.2×10^4 cells/cm^2) coated with 1:120 dilution of Geltrex™
(Gibco) in Essential 8™ Medium supplemented with 10 µM Y-27632 (Selleck Chemicals). Cells
were cultured for 2 days with daily medium changes using Essential 8™ Medium. After 2 days,
the medium was replaced with neural induction medium composed of DMEM/F12
supplemented with 2.5 mM L-glutamine, 15 mM HEPES, 1× B-27 Supplement, 1× N-2

Supplement (all from Thermo Fisher Scientific), 10 µM dorsomorphin (Tocris Bioscience), and
10 µM SB431542 (Tocris Bioscience) (Supplemental Figure 1c). Medium was replenished
every 24 hours for 7 days, after which cells were characterised using fluorescence-activated
cell sorting (FACS) to assess the expression of the markers PAX6 (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-123-
328), Nestin (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-119-799), SOX1 (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-111-042), and SOX2
(Miltenyi Biotec, 130-120-721). Samples with >85% positive expression for these markers
were harvested and stored as cell pellets at -80 °C. These ectoderm day 7 were used as
starting points to differentiate Neural Stem Cells and Astrocytes.

Differentiation to Neural Stem Cells
iPSCs were differentiated into ectodermal cells as described above for 7 days, after which cells
were analysed by FACS for the markers PAX6 and SOX2 (Supplemental Figure 1c). Batches
with >80% marker expression were dissociated into single cells and seeded at a density of
approximately 15,000 cells/cm^2 onto plates coated with either Geltrex™/Matrigel® (1:120
dilution in DMEM), or vitronectin (1:100 dilution in PBS without Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}) in Neural
Induction Medium composed of DMEM/F12 supplemented with 2.5 mM L-glutamine, 15 mM
HEPES, 1× B-27 Supplement, 1× N-2 Supplement (all from Thermo Fisher Scientific), 10 µM
dorsomorphin (Tocris Bioscience), and 10 µM SB431542 (Tocris Bioscience). Medium was
replenished every 24 hours for 18 days, after which cells were assessed morphologically,
harvested and stored as pellets at -80 °C.

Differentiation to Astrocytes
Astrocyte progenitor cells were generated from iPSCs as previously described (TCW et al.,
2017) (Supplemental Figure 1c). Briefly, iPSCs were differentiated into ectodermal cells as
described above for 7 days, then dissociated into single cells and seeded at a density of
15,000 cells/cm^2 onto plates coated with Geltrex™/Matrigel® (1:120 dilution in DMEM), or
vitronectin (1:100 dilution in PBS without Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}) in Neural induction medium
supplemented with 10 µM Y-27632. Medium was changed every 24 hours for 48 hours,
followed by replacement with complete Astrocyte Medium (ScienCell Research Laboratories,
Cat# 1801). Medium was changed every 48 hours, and when cells reached 90-95% confluency
(every 6–7 days), they were passaged to the initial seeding density of 15,000 cells/cm^2. After
30 days, cells were dissociated, and GLAST-positive cells were isolated using the Anti-GLAST
(ACSA-1) MicroBead Kit and a MiniMACS™ Separator (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-095-825),
following manufacturer´s instructions. Isolated GLAST-positive cells were stored as pellets at
-80 °C.

Differentiation to Endoderm
Before endoderm differentiation iPSC lines which were not cultured in mTeSR™1 (Stem Cell
Technologies) on Geltrex (Gibco) coated plates, were adapted for at least 2 passages to these

conditions. 70-80% confluent iPSC were harvested as single cells using Accutase (Gibco).

Three million cells per well of 6WP were seeded on Geltrex coated surface in mTeSR™1

supplemented with 10µM Y-27632 (Stem Cell Technologies). After 24 hrs, endoderm

differentiation was started using the STEMdiff™ Definitive Endoderm Differentiation Kit (Stem

Cell Technologies) following manufacturer´s instructions. This day was considered day 0. At

day 3 cells were harvested using Accutase and immunostained for FACS analysis using CD184

(CXCR4) (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-120-708) and SOX17 (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-111-031). Definitive

endoderm differentiation with >90% efficiency were used to derive lung progenitors and a

subfraction of the cells were stored at -80°C as a pellet for DNA isolation and downstream

application.

Differentiation to Lung Cells

iPSC derived definitive endodermal cells were derived as described above and further

differentiated to lung progenitors according to Jacob et al. (Jacob et al., 2019) (Supplementary

Figure 1a). Briefly, day 3 endoderm cells harvested as clumps using Gentle Dissociation

reagent (Stem Cell Technologies) were seeded in 6WP as 1:4 and 1:6 ratios in cSFDM basal

medium (described in Jacob et al., 2019) supplemented with 10µM SB431542 (Sigma), 2µM

Dorsomorphin and 10µM Y-27632 (Stem Cell Technologies). After 24 hrs, medium was

changed removing Y-27632 (day 4). Anterior foregut differentiation continued another 48hs

without media change. At day 6, medium was changed to lung progenitor induction medium

conformed by cSFDM basal medium supplemented with 3µM CHIR (EZSolution Avantor),

10ng/ml hBMP4 (Prepotech) and freshly added 100nM retinoic acid (Sigma). Medium was

changed every 48 hrs until day 15. Lung progenitors were isolated based on Carboxypeptidase

M (CPM) expression using anti human-CPM antibody (WAKO Fujifilm, 014-27501) and

subsequent magnetic separation using Anti-mouse IgG2a+b Microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec,

130-047-201), MACS separation columns (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-042-201) and MiniMACS

Separator (Miltenyi Biotec). CPM positive cells were stored as cell pellet at -80°C.

Differentiation to Mesoderm: Endothelial and Pericyte Progenitor Cells

Mesoderm and subsequent endothelial cell differentiation was adapted from Patsch et al.

(Patsch et al., 2015) (Supplementary Figure 1b). Briefly, 70-80% confluent iPSC were

harvested as single cells using Accutase (Gibco). Four hundred thousand cells were seeded

per well of 6WP on Geltrex coated surface in E8 or mTeSR media (hiPSC line dependent)

supplemented with 10µM Y-27632 (Stem Cell Technologies). After 24 hrs, at day 0, medium

was exchanged for 4ml per well of Endo Priming medium composed by 50% DMEM/F12

(Thermo Fisher, 11320-033) and 50% Neurobasal medium (Thermo Fisher, 21103049)

supplemented with B27 without Vitamin A (Gibco), N-2 (Gibco), 50µM Beta-mercapto-

ethanol (Gibco), GlutaMAX (Gibco), 6µM CHIR (EZSolution Avantor), and 25ng/ml hBMP4
recombinant (Prepotech). No medium change was performed for 72 hrs. At day 3, medium
was exchanged for Endo Induction medium consisting of StemPro-34 Basal medium and
supplements (Gibco), GlutaMAX (Gibco), 200ng/ml human recombinant VEGF (A) 165
(Prepotech) and 2µM Forskolin (Abcam). Cells were cultured for 48 hrs. At day 5, cells were
harvested as single cells using Acutasse (Gibco). CD144 was used as surface marker to assess
differentiation efficiency (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-100-742) by FACS and to isolate endothelial
progenitors using magnetic MicroBeads (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-097-857), MACS separation
columns (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-042-201) and MiniMACS Separator (Miltenyi Biotec), following
manufacturer´s instructions. Cells belonging to the CD144 positive and negative fraction
(Mesoderm) were kept as pellets at -80°C. Cells belonging to the CD144 positive fraction were
used as the starting population for endothelial cell differentiation. Cells of the negative
fraction are considered pericyte progenitor cells.

Differentiation to Endothelial Cells
Endothelial Progenitor cells (CD144+) obtained as described above were seeded on Gelatin
1% (Millipore) coated T25 flasks in complete EGM™-2 Endothelial Cell Growth Medium-2
BulletKit™ (Lonza). Between day 12-14 when cells were 90% confluent, they were harvested
as single cells using Acutasse (Gibco). FACS for CD31 (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-092-652) and
CD144 (Miltenyi Biotec, 130-100-742) expression was performed. In most cases, >90% CD31+
were observed. Cultures with lower differentiation efficiency were subjected to CD31+ cells
magnetic enrichment using equipment described above and CD31 Microbeads (Miltenyi
Biotec, 130-091-935). CD31+ endothelial cells were stored as pellet at -80°C.

Trilineage Differentiation
70-80% confluent iPSCs were seeded and differentiated into Ectoderm, Endoderm and
Mesoderm using the StemMACS™ Trilineage Differentiation Kit (Miltenyi Biotec), following
manufacturer´s instructions. At day 7 of differentiation cells were harvested using Accutase
or TrypLE (both Gibco). FACS analysis was performed to characterise ectodermal (SOX2,
PAX6), endodermal (CXCR4, SOX17) and mesodermal (CD144, CD140b -Miltenyi Biotec, 130-
121-052-) cells. The remaining cells were collected as pellet and stored at -80°C.

Immunostaining for FACS
150,000-300,000 single cells were used per tube. Surface marker staining was performed in
FACS buffer: DPBS without Calcium and Magnesium (Gibco), BSA 0.5% (Miltenyi Biotec) and
2mM EDTA (Gibco) for 10 minutes at 4°C. After 2 rounds of washing cells were fixed and
permeabilized using FoxP3 Staining Buffer Set (Miltenyi Biotec), incubations were done for 30
minutes at 4°C. After washes using Perm/wash buffer cells were incubated with antibodies
against intracellular antigens for 60 minutes at 4°C. After final washes cells were resuspended

in 250µl FACS buffer. Flow cytometry acquisition was performed using MACSQuant VYB
(Miltenyi Biotec) and analysis using FCS Express 5 Plus software.

DNA Extraction
DNA extraction was performed on harvested cell pellets using the Maxwell® RSC Instrument
(Promega) with either the Maxwell® RSC Cultured Cells DNA Kit (Cat# AS1620) or the
Maxwell® RSC Blood DNA Kit (Cat# AS1400) for fresh and frozen cell samples, and the
Maxwell® RSC FFPE Plus DNA Purification Kit (Cat# AS1720) for paraformaldehyde (PFA)-fixed
cell samples, with no difference in DNA methylation analysis quality observed. Extracted DNA
quantities were measured using the Quantus system together with the "QuantiFluor® ONE
dsDNA" kit (Promega).

DNA Methylation Analysis
256   A cohort of n=155 iPSC derivates of eight differentiation states was generated in technical
257   (independent experiments) or biological (distinct cell line donors) replicates, then randomly
258   split into a training cohort of n=97 with a minimum of 8 samples per differentiation state, and
259   a validation cohort of n=58. DNA extraction was performed on each sample cell pellet for
260   subsequent DNA methylation profiling.

Array-Based DNA Methylation Profiling
Genomic DNA was bisulfite-converted using the EpiTect Fast Bisulfite Kit (Qiagen) following
the manufacturers' protocol. The bisulfite-converted DNA was subsequently analysed using
the Infinium MethylationEPIC BeadChip array (v1.0 or v2.0) and scanned on the iScan System
(Illumina). Raw DNA methylation data were pre-processed using R (v 4.3.3). Signal intensities
were obtained from IDAT files using the Bioconductor package minfi (v 1.40.0) (Aryee et al.,
2014). Dye bias correction was performed using the Noob (normal-exponential out-of-band)
method with the preprocessNoob function without "between-array normalisation" (Triche et
al., 2013). Sex prediction of samples was performed using the predictSex function of the
wateRmelon package (v 1.36.0). Beta values for DNA methylation were calculated from
normalised data using the minfi getBeta function.

Analysis of Publicly Available Datasets

A publicly available methylation array dataset was systematically curated and downloaded
from the following Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) records as raw signal intensity files (IDAT
files):

GSE105093, GSE110544, GSE141521, GSE159479, GSE163322, GSE163324, GSE180402,
GSE196339, GSE197723, GSE207076, GSE207108, GSE236202, GSE247428, GSE253190,
GSE61461, GSE76372, GSE85828, GSE196339. The PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for
Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses; (Page et al., 2021)) flow chart illustrating the number

of datasets identified, included and excluded, and the reason for exclusions is available in
Supplementary Figure 6. All samples used in this study are outlined in Supplementary Table
5. GenomicMethylSet objects were generated from raw signal intensity files using the
readGEORawFile function of the GEOquery package (v2.62.1). (Davis & Meltzer, 2007).

Data filtering steps included the removal of probes with detection p-values greater than 0.05
in more than 10% of samples, probes containing single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) at
the CpG site, probes located on sex chromosomes, and cross-reactive probes as previously
described (Capper et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2013). Raw data from EPIC arrays were merged
with publicly available 450K array datasets using the combineArrays function in minfi. The
combined dataset underwent the same filtering and normalisation process as described
above.

Differential Methylation Analysis

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Differential methylation analysis on the CpG site and region level was performed in a one-to-
one fashion between iPSCs and the respective differentiation states as previously described
(Maksimovic et al., 2017). Differentially methylated positions (DMPs) were visualised as
volcano plots using the package EnhancedVolcano (v 1.20.0). Methylation-specific gene
ontology (GO) analysis of promoter-associated differentially methylated positions (DMPs)
was conducted for each differentiation state using the gometh function within the
missMethyl package (v 1.28.0) (Phipson et al., 2016). Investigation beyond the scope of the
classifier i.e. the "broader profiles" was done by identifying the top 20,000 CpGs from our
DMP analysis that distinguished each reference differentiation state from iPSC, for iPSC it was
the top 20,000 CpGs that were common to all differentiation state vs iPSC comparisons. The
annotated tables for the top 20,000 CpGs per differentiation state are available in
Supplementary Table 4, full DMP analysis results tables are available on request.

Unsupervised Analysis

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Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on DNA methylation beta values to
visualise methylation differences across samples during iPSC to astrocyte differentiation
(n=35). For each CpG probe, the standard deviation across samples was calculated, and the
5,000 most variable probes were selected. The resulting beta value matrix was transposed
such that rows represented samples and columns represented CpG sites. PCA was conducted
using the prcomp function in R with mean centring and scaling enabled. The proportion of
variance explained by each principal component was calculated as the squared standard
deviation of each component divided by the total variance. The first two principal
components were used for plotting. Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP)
was performed on the top 50,000 most variable CpGs for each respective dataset using the R
package umap (v 0.2.10.0). UMAP projections were computed using the uwot R package (v

0.2.2). UMAP parameters were set to n_neighbors=18, min_dist=0.3 n_components=2, with a Euclidean distance metric and a fixed random state for reproducibility. The resulting UMAP layout was integrated with sample metadata for downstream analysis. A scatter plot of UMAP coordinates was generated using ggplot2, with points representing individual samples, the final plots depicting the distribution of samples and cell types based on the top 50,000 most variable probes across samples.

Classifier development

A random forest classifier was built with ranger (v 0.16.0) within the tidymodels ecosystem (tidymodels v 1.2.0; parsnip v 1.2.1; recipes v 1.0.10; workflows v 1.1.4; tune v 1.2.1; rsample v 1.2.1; yardstick v 1.3.0) under R 4.3.3. Parallel execution used BiocParallel (v 1.36.1) and doParallel (v 1.0-17).

A nested cross-validation framework was used to obtain unbiased estimates of model performance while preventing information leakage (5-fold outer cross-validation repeated three times; 3-fold inner cross-validation).

Nested cross validation, feature selection and hyperparameter tuning.

Within each outer training split, CpG sites were first variance-filtered using the training data only, retaining the top 50,000 CpGs ranked by standard deviation to reduce dimensionality. Random forest hyperparameters were tuned exclusively in the inner cross-validation using a 20-point max-entropy (Latin hypercube) design over minimum node size (2-30) and number of trees (300-2000), while mtry was fixed per split to the square root of the number of retained predictors. Hyperparameters were selected by minimising the multiclass Brier score. Using the selected hyperparameters, the model was refit on the full outer training split and permutation importance was computed for all variance-filtered CpGs. CpGs were ranked by permutation importance, and nested feature selection was conducted by fitting models on increasing prefixes of this ranked list (2,000, 5,000, and 10,000 CpGs) using the same inner cross-validation structure. The final feature count per outer split was determined using a one-standard-error plateau rule on the inner-CV Brier score, selecting the smallest feature set whose performance was within one standard error of the minimum. This conservative criterion reduces the likelihood of selecting an overfit model driven by sampling variability.

Across outer splits, selected CpGs were aggregated by selection frequency. The final deployed feature set comprised the top-ranked CpGs up to the median selected feature count across splits. Consensus hyperparameters derived from the nested procedure were then used to refit the model on all training data.

Probability score calibration and threshold identification.

For probability calibration, outer fold predictions were pooled, and a multinomial ridge regression model was trained in a cross-fitted manner: predictions for each outer fold were calibrated using a model trained only on predictions from the remaining outer folds. This ensured that no sample was used to fit either the base classifier or the calibrator responsible for its calibrated probabilities. Calibration performance was summarised using the multiclass Brier score.

To determine a rejection threshold, the macro-averaged Youden index was evaluated across candidate probability cutoffs using the pooled cross-fitted calibrated predictions. Uncertainty was quantified by nonparametric bootstrap resampling. The selected operating point was defined as the largest threshold on the macro-Youden plateau, that is, the highest cutoff before any further increase resulted in a statistically significant decrease in macro-Youden based on the 95 percent bootstrap confidence interval. Samples with maximum predicted class probability below this threshold were assigned to a "Not Classifiable" category.

Final model and variable importance

The final random forest model was trained on the entire training cohort using the final feature set (10,000 CpGs) and consensus hyperparameters (mtry= 100, min_n = 5, trees = 1192) with a calibrated probability score threshold of 0.5. Variable importance was extracted from the fitted ranger object using the impurity-based measure. The trained classifier was serialised and saved as a workflow object for downstream application.

Model evaluation

Performance was assessed using two independent datasets:

1. Internal validation cohort (n = 58).

2. External validation cohort (n = 249, publicly available methylation array data).

The pre-trained random forest classifier was loaded from the serialised workflow object and the underlying ranger model was extracted. The pre-processing recipe was reconstructed using the recipes package and applied to generate a numeric feature matrix and factor response vector. Feature-level contributions for each test sample and a training cohort bias vector were computed from the tidy forest object. Samples from the validation cohorts which received a classification discordant with their annotation were identified. For each such sample, the top CpG features with the most negative contribution toward the annotated class and the most positive contribution towards the SteMClass classification (i.e., features driving their discordant classification) were extracted for further analysis.

SteMClass Web Application

SteMClass was developed in R using the Shiny framework with shiny, shinyjs, shinycssloaders, bslib, and thematic, employing a Bootstrap theme and custom CSS for interface rendering. DNA methylation preprocessing relies on minfi, methylumi, wateRmelon and preprocessCore for raw IDAT file handling and normalisation, with array manifests and annotation (IlluminaMethylationManifest) loaded dynamically. Preprocessing includes noob normalisation, conversion to a common 450K format where required, and genome mapping. The pre-trained SteMClass random forest model (loaded from GitHub Releases (https://github.com/pereze5/SteMClass_App/releases) is applied after aligning test data to the training reference cohort and imputing missing CpGs using means learned during model development. Predictions are output as class probabilities across eight reference differentiation states, with a rejection option for samples not reaching the 0.6 probability threshold. Visualisations include probability bar charts, UMAP projections generated with uwot, and heatmaps generated with ComplexHeatmap and circlize. Global heatmaps compare the test sample to reference profiles using the top 10,000 CpGs distinguishing a selected differentiation state from iPSC, while gene-level heatmaps display CpGs annotated to a specified gene (UCSC_RefGene_Name) ordered by genomic position and annotated by gene region (UCSC_RefGene_Group). Results and figures are exportable as high-resolution images or HTML outputs.

Cumulative-contribution analysis of CpG features

The tidy representation of the fitted forest (tidyRF) was queried with the featureContrib function from the package tree.interpreter (v 0.1.1), producing a three-dimensional array P × D × N (P = 10 000 CpGs, D = 8 classes, N = number of test samples). For each CpG × class cell we calculated the mean absolute contribution across the N samples, yielding a P × D matrix of average importances. For every class separately, CpGs were then ranked in descending order of this value, and the running sum was divided by the class-specific total to obtain a cumulative-fraction vector. The resulting cumulative curves were combined into a long-format data frame and plotted with ggplot2 on a log10 scale CpG-rank axis. An 80 % horizontal reference line highlights how the contributions accumulate.

Nanopore Sequencing

Library preparation with barcode labelling was performed with ~200-400 ng input of genomic DNA using the Rapid Barcoding Kit (SQK-RBK114.24, Oxford Nanopore Technologies, UK) according to the manufacturer's instructions. During the library preparation, input DNA is fragmented while simultaneously attaching barcodes using a time-efficient transposase-based approach known as "tagmentation". The final library was loaded onto an R10.4.1 flow cell (FLO-MIN114, Oxford Nanopore Technologies, UK), and low coverage whole genome

sequencing (WGS) was performed for 6-24 hrs on a MinION Mk 1B device (Oxford Nanopore
Technologies, UK). POD5 files containing the raw data were obtained in real time using the
manufacturer's software MinKNOW (v.1.3.1-v.3.6.0) and transferred to a high-performance
computing (HPC) cluster for further analysis. Analysis was performed using the nanoDx
classification pipeline v0.6.2 (Kuschel et al., 2022). The SteMClass training cohort raw IDAT
files were processed and converted into an H5 file format for use as the training cohort for
the nanoDx pipeline using the R package rhdf5 (v2.50.2). The nanoDx classification and
analysis pipeline is publicly available at https://gitlab.com/pesk/nanoDx. The source code for
the ad hoc random forest implementation is available at
https://gitlab.com/pesk/nanoBenchmark.

Results

DNA methylation dynamics during in vitro Astrocyte differentiation.

DNA methylation is well established as a marker of cell- and tissue-type identity in vivo. To
determine whether this specificity is preserved in isogenic cells in vitro, we analysed the DNA
methylation profiles of two parental iPSC lines differentiated to astrocyte-like cells, as the
length of the differentiation protocol (37 days) permitted longitudinal analysis across multiple
differentiation timepoints. For this we used a previously published protocol (TCW et al., 2017)
using a commercially available kit which results in *GLAST* positive cells by experimental day
37. iPSCs were cultured for two days in E8 medium (days -2 and -1) before starting the
differentiation protocol (day 0). The cells were purified by magnetic activated cell sorting
(MACS) at the end of the protocol (day 37). Principal component analysis (PCA) of the top
5,000 most variable CpG sites revealed a clear separation between iPSCs (n = 14) and their
post-differentiation astrocyte derivatives (n = 12) (Figure 1a). We further analysed samples
taken at nine time points during an astrocyte differentiation (time course experiment). These
intermediately differentiated astrocytes clustered along a continuum between the two end-
point differentiation states (Figure 1a). The vast majority of variation in the methylation data
was captured by PC1 (91.5% variance) which separated iPSCs from differentiated astrocytes
and intermediate states, capturing progression along the differentiation axis. Genome-wide
comparison of the iPSC and differentiated astrocytes uncovered 228,765 differentially
methylated positions (DMPs) (Figure 1b). In comparison to iPSC, differentiated astrocytes
displayed promoter hypomethylation of canonical astrocyte genes such as *GFAP*, *S100B*,
S100A16, and *SLC1A3* (Achicallende et al., 2022; Hernández-Ortega et al., 2024; Sturchler et
al., 2006) together with promoter hypermethylation of the pluripotency regulators *POU5F1*
and *HK2* (Figure 1b). Tracking the same CpGs during the time course differentiation
experiment showed that pluripotency loci (*POU5F1*, *HK2*) began to gain methylation by days
3-5, whereas astrocyte-specific genes such as *S100A16* and *S100B* started to lose methylation

by day 14 with de-methylation of *GFAP* occurring late in the differentiation (Figure 1c). Of note, the canonical ectodermal marker *PAX6* became methylated in the gene body by days 3-5, at the timepoint of ectodermal differentiation when the cells are expected to have *PAX6* expression by FACS.

Together, these results demonstrate that global DNA methylation landscapes undergo extensive and progressive remodelling during in vitro differentiation of isogenic iPSCs into astrocytes, following a lineage-consistent trajectory across timepoints. The concordance of these changes across genetically identical lines and their orderly progression with differentiation stage indicate that the observed methylation differences are associated with differentiation state, rather than arising from random variation or pre-existing epigenetic differences.

Figure 1: Identification of progressive DNA methylation changes during in vitro iPSC differentiation into astrocytes.

(a) Principal component analysis (PCA) plot of DNA methylation beta values from the 5,000 most variable CpG sites (selected by across-sample standard deviation) in iPSCs (n = 14) and

iPSC-derived astrocytes (n = 12) (two parental iPSC lines), together with nine intermediate time-point samples from the differentiation time course experiment. Data were mean-centred and scaled prior to PCA. Each point denotes an independent technical replicate (separately cultured and processed). Colours indicate differentiation states. PC1 (91.5% variance) separates iPSCs from astrocyte derivatives and intermediate states, reflecting progression along the differentiation axis.

(b) Volcano plot displaying differentially methylated CpGs for the comparison between the iPSCs (n=14) and astrocytes (n=12). Top significant differentially methylated CpGs (False discovery rate-adjusted p-value < 0.05) are labelled by their associated gene, with canonical lineage-specific markers indicated in green.

(c) DNA methylation dynamics were evaluated during a 37-day iPSC derived astrocyte differentiation experiment. For visualisation purposes, the 13 CpG sites showing the largest differences in beta values between undifferentiated and differentiated states are depicted. The heatmap displays mean beta values across iPSC samples (n = 14), individual beta values at the nine intermediate differentiation experiment stages, and mean beta values in astrocyte samples (n = 12). Rows correspond to CpG sites, ordered by hierarchical clustering using Pearson correlation distance. CpG loci are annotated with CpG unique IDs and their associated gene names.

Unsupervised dimensionality reduction of DNA methylation data separates iPSC-derived cells according to differentiation state.

We next investigated whether the lineage-specific methylation changes observed during astrocyte differentiation generalise to other iPSC derived cell types. Early ectodermal, mesodermal and endodermal progenitor cultures were generated with at least two independent protocols per lineage from 11 independent iPSC lines (see Methods). For each of these cell types, we analysed homogeneous cell populations based on their conventional marker expression as analysed by FACS (Supplementary Figures 1 and2). Selection of populations in which at least 85% of the cells expressed the conventional differentiation markers was done to minimise intra-sample heterogeneity. Unsupervised analysis of the 50,000 most variable CpG sites across all samples was visualised with UMAP (Figure 2a). Four discrete clusters emerged: pluripotent iPSCs and three well-separated groups corresponding to the three germ-layers ectoderm, mesoderm and endoderm. Crucially, samples produced with different protocols converged on the same germ-layer cluster, and technical replicates from separate differentiation batches co-localised, demonstrating that the differentiation state-specific DNA methylation signatures are robust and reproducible between experiments.

To determine whether DNA methylation signatures can resolve a broader spectrum of differentiation states, we expanded the dataset to a total of eight in vitro differentiation states (undifferentiated iPSCs, ectodermal cells, mesodermal cells, endodermal cells, lung cells, endothelial cells, neural stem cells, and astrocytes). Cell type nomenclatures and corresponding differentiation protocols, along with the iPSC lines used in this study are described in Supplementary Tables 1-3 and Supplementary Figure 1, and representative data for marker expression and cell morphology are detailed in Supplementary Figure 2.

Unsupervised analysis of the 50,000 most variable CpG sites across all samples, visualised with
UMAP, produced eight well-separated clusters that mapped one-to-one onto the designated
differentiation states (Figure 2b). The observed clustering of distinct differentiation states was
independent of potential batch effects such as parental cell line, donor sex, or DNA
methylation array (EPIC) version (Supplementary Figure 3a-d). To interpret the
differentiation-associated methylation patterns evidenced by our unsupervised analysis, we
performed pairwise differential methylation analyses comparing iPSCs against the 7
differentiation states (Supplementary Figure 4, Supplementary Table 4). Gene ontology
enrichment of the resulting DMPs confirmed that the methylation changes align with known
lineage-specific biological processes in each differentiation state (Supplementary Figure 4).

These findings demonstrate that genome-wide DNA methylation profiles provide a robust
read-out of differentiation state across a diverse set of iPSC lines and differentiation
derivatives, underscoring their utility for benchmarking and standardising in vitro
differentiation characterisation.

Figure 2: Unsupervised analysis indicates that differentiation state-specific DNA methylation signatures are reproducible across cell lines and protocols.

(a) UMAP plot of DNA methylation data (50,000 most variable CpGs) from 15 independent iPSC lines, 11 of which were differentiated into ectodermal, endodermal, and mesodermal lineages using at least two differentiation protocols per lineage with each point representing an independent technical and/or biological replicate. Colours represent differentiation states, the differentiation protocol used is indicated by shape.

(b) UMAP plot of DNA methylation data (50,000 most variable CpGs) from 15 independent iPSC lines, 11 of which were differentiated into ectodermal, endodermal, and mesodermal lineages including at

least two differentiation states per germ layer. Each point represents an independent technical and/or biological replicate. Colours represent differentiation states; iPSCs are represented in pink, endodermal differentiation states (endoderm and lung) are represented in green tones, ectodermal differentiation states (ectoderm, neural stem cells and astrocytes) are represented in blue tones and mesodermal differentiation states (mesoderm and endothelial cells) are represented in orange tones.

Building and Validating a DNA Methylation-Based Differentiation State Classifier: SteMClass

On observing that the methylation differences between in vitro differentiation states were reflective of differentiation processes, we leveraged this to train a random forest algorithm for DNA methylation-based differentiation state classification. We chose to use a random forest model due to its ability to implicitly handle feature collinearity, built-in feature selection capabilities, and robustness in high-dimensional datasets, all of which are critical properties when working with the correlated and high-dimensional structure of methylation data. Model development followed a nested cross-validation framework (5-fold outer cross-validation repeated three times; 3-fold inner cross-validation), enabling unbiased performance estimation, hyperparameter tuning, feature selection, calibration, and threshold determination. Within each outer split, CpGs were variance-filtered, ranked by permutation importance, and the optimal feature-set size was selected using the one-standard-error rule. Hyperparameters (minimum node size and number of trees; mtry was fixed to the square root of the predictor count) were tuned in the inner loop using a 20-point Latin-hypercube search, with model selection based on the multiclass Brier score (Methods, Supplementary Figure 5a).

Cross-fitted calibrated probabilities obtained using a multinomial ridge regression calibrator yielded a multiclass Brier score of 0.018 and a macro expected calibration error (ECE) of 0.028, indicating well-calibrated predictions (Supplementary Figure 5b). To reduce overconfident classifications, we evaluated candidate rejection thresholds between 0.10 and 0.95 using the pooled cross-fitted calibrated predictions and the macro-averaged Youden index. The selected operating point was a probability cut-off of 0.5 (macro-Youden = 0.978), corresponding to the highest threshold before a statistically significant decline in macro-Youden was observed (Figure 3). Lowering the threshold from 0.55 to 0.50 significantly improved Macro-Youden (p = 0.00899), whereas lowering from 0.50 to 0.45 did not (p = 0.372). Samples with a maximum predicted class probability below 0.5 were therefore rejected and labelled "Not Classifiable."

SteMClass was evaluated on an independent cohort of 58 samples representing the eight distinct differentiation states included in the classifier and attained 96.5% accuracy, Cohen's

K = 0.959, and a 3% reject rate (Figure 3b). These validation samples were generated in the

same laboratory as the training cohort ("internally"), derived from the same iPSC lines, using

the same differentiation protocols. Despite these controlled conditions, the validation

samples represented independent experiments, reagent batches, and personnel.

To further evaluate SteMClass, we assembled an "external" validation cohort of 249 publicly

available DNA methylation array samples (Supplementary Figure 6a). Sample labels were

assigned based on the materials and methods described in the originating publications and

mapped to the differentiation states defined in this study. Importantly, these annotations

were generated across independent laboratories using diverse differentiation protocols and

variable levels of phenotypic and molecular characterisation and therefore do not constitute

a harmonised or uniformly defined ground truth. This heterogeneity reflects the current

landscape of in vitro differentiation studies and represents precisely the scenario SteMClass

was designed to address: objective, methylation-based state assignment across

experimentally variable systems. In this context, relative to literature-reported annotations

SteMClass demonstrated 85.1% agreement (Cohen's K = 0.687) with a 12.9% rejection rate

(Figure 3c). Among classified samples (n = 217), accuracy was 97.7% (Cohen's K = 0.93). To

visualise how many CpG probes drive the classifier decisions, we quantified the absolute

feature contribution of every probe for every test sample (internal and external combined)

and aggregated these values across samples (see Methods). The resulting cumulative-

contribution curves (Figure 3d) rise gradually: no class reaches 80% of its total weight before

1000 ranked probes and the remaining 20% is dispersed over several thousand additional

sites. Hence SteMClass recognises each lineage through a wide methylation footprint rather

than a handful of high-impact markers, making the model inherently robust to noise at

individual CpGs.

We additionally tested iPSC-derived samples from the same publicly available datasets in

cases where the sample metadata indicated a differentiation state outside the scope of

SteMClass's training. (External Out-of-Scope Validation Cohort (n=54); Supplementary Figure

6b, Supplementary Table 5). As expected for states outside the scope of SteMClass, most of

these samples were rejected. Six early-stage endoderm (< 3 days) and three embryoid body

samples were classified as iPSC. One embryoid body sample was classified as ectoderm and

one lung progenitor sample (at a differentiation stage not represented in SteMClass) was

classified as mesoderm; the remaining samples were not classifiable. The embryoid body

assignments to iPSC or ectoderm occurred in developmentally proximal states and are

therefore consistent with projection onto the closest reference lineage. Multiclass random

forests operate as closed-set classifiers. When a sample lies outside the training distribution, vote fractions are distributed across all learned classes rather than withheld, and samples near decision boundaries may receive a neighbouring lineage label instead of being rejected. Across 303 external validation samples, only a single biologically discordant assignment (lung progenitor classified as mesoderm) was observed. This pattern is consistent with expected behaviour when projecting previously unseen differentiation states onto a finite reference atlas and does not indicate systematic misclassification.

To evaluate the robustness of methylation-based classification across different platforms, a subset of the internal validation cohort (n=13/58) was analysed using both EPIC array and long read nanopore sequencing (Supplementary Figure 6c). Classification of the nanopore sequencing data was performed using the previously published nanoDx pipeline (Euskirchen et al., 2017) with an ad-hoc random forest model trained on the reference set generated in this study. The classifier demonstrated high reproducibility, correctly classifying 12/13 cases consistently between the nanopore sequencing and methylation array platforms. This serves as a proof of principle that SteMClass can be implemented using nanopore sequencing.

Figure 3. Integrated assessment of SteMClass: threshold tuning, independent validation, and feature-level

signal distribution.

(a) Macro-Youden index as a function of classification probability threshold. Points denote empirical

estimates computed from pooled cross-validated calibrated predictions and the ribbon shows the 95%

percentile bootstrap confidence interval (1,000 resamples). Macro-Youden is defined as the mean

one-vs-rest Youden's J across classes. The vertical dashed line indicates the largest threshold before a

statistically significant improvement when lowering the cut-off. Significance was assessed using paired

bootstrap differences between adjacent thresholds (one-sided test on ΔYouden).

(b) Sankey diagram showing classifier performance on the independent internal validation cohort (n

= 58). Each flow connects the original sample annotation (reported phenotype) to the SteMClass

predicted class. The classifier achieved 96.5% accuracy, Cohen's κ = 0.959, and a 3% reject rate. The

internal cohort comprised: Astrocytes (n = 5), Ectodermal cells (n = 8), Endodermal cells (n = 7),

Mesodermal cells (n = 11), Endothelial cells (n = 5), iPSCs (n = 12), Lung cells (n = 5), and NSCs (n = 5).

(c) Sankey diagram showing SteMClass predictions versus reported phenotype for the external validation cohort. The external cohort comprises iPSCs (n = 178), iPSC-derived Ectoderm (n = 20), Endoderm (n = 20), Mesoderm (n = 21) and Astrocytes (n=10) from multiple studies (Supplementary Table 5).

(d) Cumulative absolute feature contribution per class. For each of the eight cell-state classes (colour-coded), lines show how the summed absolute contribution to classification accumulates as CpG sites are added in descending order of their mean absolute contribution across all 307 test samples (internal + external). The x-axis is on a $\log_{10}$ scale; the dashed horizontal line marks 80% of the total contribution. All classes reach this 80% level only after on the order of 10^3 CpGs, indicating that SteMClass derives its decisions from a broad, distributed methylation signature rather than a small handful of loci.

Integrative Broad and CpG-Level Profiling Explains Classification Outcomes.

To further interpret the classification results we looked beyond the scope of the classifier and compared the broader DNA methylation profiles of the validation samples to the reference cohort by investigating the top 20,000 CpGs that distinguish each differentiation state from iPSC (see Methods; Supplementary Table 4). This allows a perspective beyond the 10,000 total features used by SteMClass to investigate re-classified and "Not Classifiable" samples. Four of the external validation cohort endoderm samples were re-classified as iPSC by SteMClass. Hierarchical clustering of these samples with the reference cohort iPSC and endodermal cells showed clustering with the iPSC samples based on their broader methylation profile (Figure 4a). Investigation of the top contributing variables to the classifier's decision in favour of iPSC and against endoderm included the canonical pluripotency marker *POU5F1* and endodermal marker *APC* (Figure 4b). Closer investigation of the *POU5F1* promoter region confirmed methylation levels more consistent with reference iPSC in these test samples (Figure 4c). Taken together, these results support the likelihood of inefficient differentiation experiments rather than misclassifications. Four iPSC samples from the external cohort were not classifiable. These four samples formed a cluster distinct from the SteMClass reference iPSCs based on their 20,000 CpG broader methylation profile (Figure 4d). To identify potential markers of iPSC undifferentiated state, we interrogated the top 100 negatively contributing variables for iPSC common to the four rejected samples (Figure 4e). Top hits included *PALLD* and *FGFR2* which were hypermethylated in promoter CpGs in the four unclassifiable samples. Three of the samples are more similar to reference iPSCs on the methylation profile, suggesting subtle cumulative differences. One sample exhibited an especially divergent methylation profile, most notably at the *POU5F1* gene promoter, suggesting a questionable undifferentiated state and therefore compromised iPSC quality rather than a classification error for this sample (Figure 4f).

Figure 4. Interpreting SteMClass decisions via broad and narrow view methylation profiling

(a) Hierarchical clustering of four samples published as having endoderm-differentiation that SteMClass re-classified as iPSC (yellow), together with reference iPSC (pink) and reference endoderm (green) profiles. Clustering was performed on a Euclidean-distance matrix (complete linkage) computed from beta values at the

top 20,000 CpGs most discriminating iPSC from all other cell types ("broad view"; Supplementary Table 4). The samples reclassified by SteMClass cluster with reference iPSC. **(b)** Heatmap of the 100 CpGs with highest positive importance for distinguishing iPSC vs. endoderm in the random forest model. Rows represent CpGs and columns represent samples (reference and re-classified endoderm); both were hierarchically clustered using complete linkage with Euclidean distance. Heatmap colours indicate beta value (white = low, blue = high). CpGs associated with canonical markers such as *POU5F1* (pluripotency) and *APC* (endoderm) are labelled. Also, in this analysis the reclassified samples cluster with reference iPSC. **(c)** Genomic view of beta values across the *POU5F1* promoter region (chr6:31,134,000-31,140,000) for reference iPSC, reference endoderm, and the four re-classified endoderm samples ("narrow view"). Tracks show methylation beta values for each sample (points), confirming an iPSC-like profile in re-classified samples for this important pluripotency marker. **(d)** Hierarchical clustering of four "Not Classifiable" test samples published as iPSC (grey and orange) with SteMClass reference iPSC profiles (pink), using the same 20,000 CpG set most discriminating iPSC from all other cell types and clustering parameters as in (a). Of the four rejected samples, three form a distinct clustering branch (grey), indicating atypical iPSC methylation patterns, with one sample being a clear outlier from all other samples (orange). **(e)** Heatmap of the 100 CpGs whose contributions to the iPSC class were most strongly negative across all four not classifiable samples. (f) Genomic view of beta values at the POU5F1 promoter for the four non-classifiable samples. The outlier sample (orange) displays markedly higher methylation, which does not conform to the expected undifferentiated iPSC profile at this locus, while the three remaining samples (grey) remain broadly consistent with iPSC status.

Seven of the eight non-classifiable/reclassified mesoderm samples (all from GSE85828) clustered closer to iPSC and endoderm references than to mesoderm based on the top 20,000 CpG DNA methylation profiles, whereas one sample appeared as a clear outlier across all differentiation states (Supplementary Fig. 7a). Three samples grouped directly with endoderm references, and the remaining four localised between mesoderm and endoderm, but with distance metrics indicating greater similarity to iPSC and endoderm than to mesoderm. The CpGs most strongly contributing to rejection from mesoderm classification included those associated with mesoderm regulators *MSGN1* and *WNT5B*, arguing against technical misclassification and instead suggesting incomplete or divergent mesoderm specification. Additional discriminatory loci included *APC* and *EFCAB2*. These CpGs were hypomethylated in the test samples and in endoderm relative to iPSC and mesoderm references (Supplementary Fig. 7b). Collectively, these findings indicate that the GSE85828 samples exhibit an epigenetic profile distinct from reference mesoderm and more likely an intermediate "mesendoderm" differentiation state, consistent with the limited epigenetic resolution between mesoderm and endoderm in this dataset which has been described previously (Schmidt et al., 2022). Among the two non-classifiable ectoderm samples, one was a clear outlier, while the remaining one resembled reference ectoderms in their global profiles (Supplementary Figure 7d). Sixteen of twenty external validation cohort endoderm-annotated samples failed to reach the 0.5 classification probability threshold and hierarchical clustering confirmed that all non-classifiable endoderm samples grouped preferentially with

iPSC profiles rather than with the highly efficient (>90% CXCR4$^+$/SOX17$^+$) definitive endoderm reference set (Supplementary Fig. 7e). This pattern suggests that many endoderm samples in the external validation cohort retain epigenetic features more consistent with pluripotency or an early transitional state than with fully specified definitive endoderm. Inspection of the 100 CpGs contributing most strongly to rejection from endoderm classification revealed divergence at loci associated with lineage specification, including *APC*, (Supplementary Fig. 7f). Collectively, these findings point to substantial heterogeneity in endoderm differentiation outcomes across protocols, potentially reflecting differences in timing, efficiency, or lineage resolution rather than purely technical misclassification. These findings underscore the need for a unified, quantitative assay for cellular differentiation state characterisation.

SteMClass Classification Mirrors Progressive DNA Methylation Shifts During Differentiation.

The CpG sites contributing to the rejected classification of the not classifiable astrocyte samples from the internal validation cohort (n=2) and external validation cohort (n=2) included the previously identified ectoderm-characteristic *PAX6* gene body region, possibly indicating inefficiency in neural commitment in these experiments (Supplementary Figure 7h, Figure 5a). In a limited comparison restricted to these two failed experiments (replicating this is not feasible) compared to our successful reference and test sample experiments (total samples n=65), this observed decrease in *PAX6* gene body methylation was evident only at the day 37 astrocyte differentiation stage (Figure 5b). Improving the consistency of astrocyte populations could involve incorporating SteMClass DNA methylation-based screening at a later intermediate timepoint, enabling the selection of wells that are most closely progressing toward the astrocyte state. Although it is beyond the scope of this study, as the SteMClass reference set grows beyond this proof-of-concept classifier, our harmonised framework will enable more robust interrogation of such epigenetic determinants of differentiation propensity. To further explore how SteMClass predictions relate to the dynamic DNA methylation patterns during differentiation, we examined changes in predicted differentiation states during the transition from iPSCs to astrocytes (the same 9 time point experiment displayed in Figure 1), as determined by SteMClass' predictions and probability scores. The predicted cell identities and their associated probability scores at multiple differentiation stages demonstrate how SteMClass adjusts as cells move from a pluripotent state toward more lineage-restricted fates (Figure 5c). The progressive shift in probabilities reflects the model's sensitivity to intermediate, transient states and its capacity to track subtle changes in lineage commitment.

Figure 5. Epigenetic driver inference and dynamic tracking of astrocyte differentiation using SteMClass

(a) Heatmap of the 100 CpG sites with the strongest methylation differences (delta beta) in the two not classifiable internal validation samples (grey columns), compared to reference astrocytes (purple columns). Rows represent CpGs and columns represent samples; both were hierarchically clustered using complete linkage with Euclidean distance. Heatmap colour indicates beta value (white = low, blue = high); three *PAX6* gene body-associated CpGs rank among the top features, possibly implicating inefficient neural commitment in these two failed differentiations. **(b)** Boxplots show sample-level mean beta-values (0-1) for the *PAX6* CpGs opposing astrocyte classification across iPSC, ectoderm and astrocyte samples. Colours denote SteMClass-assigned differentiation states: iPSC (pink), ectoderm (light blue), astrocyte (dark purple) and "Not classifiable" (grey). Samples are split into panels by differentiation outcome: successful (n = 59) and unsuccessful (n = 6), defined by passing or failing the SteMClass 0.5 cutoff. In successful experiments, *PAX6* methylation increases during the differentiation from iPSC to ectoderm to astrocyte, whereas in failed experiments it decreases at the astrocyte stage. Since these CpGs are among the top features

contributing to ectoderm and astrocyte classification in SteMClass, monitoring the differentiation using SteMClass at further intermediate stages may help identify at-risk differentiations earlier. All pairwise comparisons within the successful group were significant (****, p < 0.0001; Wilcoxon rank-sum). No statistical testing was applied to the unsuccessful group due to limited sample size. **(c)** Temporal SteMClass classification shifts during the same iPSC to astrocyte nine time point differentiation experiment shown in Figure 1c. Top panel: heatmap of predicted class probabilities (0-1) at each harvest point for each class represented in SteMClass. Bottom panel: representative culture images at day -2 (classified as iPSC), day 7 (classified as ectoderm), and day 37 (classified as astrocyte), illustrating the morphological progression in line with classification shifts. Scale bars = 200 μm.

Discussion

A fundamental obstacle in stem cell research and regenerative medicine is the lack of standardised frameworks to assess the quality and maturation stage of differentiated cells, causing variability in both results and interpretation. While tools like the TaqMan hPSC Scorecard Assay (Thermofisher Scientific) and hiPSCore (based on long-read nanopore sequencing of 12 early trilineage -linked genes) help gauge pluripotency and trilineage potential (Dobner et al., 2024; Lenz, 2012; Tsankov et al., 2015), most downstream applications demand differentiation into more specialised cell types that are not covered by these assays. Currently, evaluations of these more advanced stages vary widely and often rely on a handful of molecular markers, genes or proteins whose expression may fluctuate based on protocol specifics, laboratory conditions, and genetic backgrounds.

Our classifier prototype, "SteMClass", demonstrates strong predictive performance, with a Brier score of 0.018 as calculated during the cross-validation procedure. Validation with one internally generated independent validation cohort and one independent validation cohort compiled from publicly available data from published studies reinforces these findings, demonstrating StemClass' robustness to variations in experimental conditions, as well as the classifier's ability to identify potentially problematic samples.

While these are promising results, further harmonisation requires data from multiple research centres to address protocol, reagent, characterisation and data format inconsistencies across institutions. To preliminarily explore its performance across different institutions, we incorporated DNA methylation array data for which the published differentiation protocols closely matched our training cohort, allowing for an initial assessment of classifier applicability in varied contexts. External samples annotated as mesoderm and endoderm that failed classification showed global epigenetic deviation from the SteMClass references, suggesting biological divergence rather than technical

misassignment. In the study GSE85828, most mesoderm samples clustered closer to iPSC and
endoderm than to reference mesoderm, and rejection was driven by CpGs at canonical
mesoderm regulators (*MSGN1*, *WNT5B*) and additional loci including *APC*. These findings are
consistent with incomplete or unresolved lineage specification and align with prior reports
that iPSC-, mesoderm-, and endoderm-labeled samples in this dataset are not epigenetically
distinguishable by global DNA methylation profiling (Daily et al., 2017; Schmidt et al., 2022).
Notably, mesoderm identity in that study was assessed by flow cytometry for *Brachyury* and
OCT4 expression. Brachyury, however, is characteristic of only very early mesodermal
progenitors, unlike the mature mesodermal cells used to train SteMClass, which were
validated at >90% efficiency using CD144/CD140b. This difference in differentiation stage
likely underlies the unexpected classification, whereas mesoderm samples generated through
standardised trilineage differentiation protocols in other studies classified as expected.
A similar explanation likely underlies the rejection of external dataset endoderm-annotated
samples to classify as endoderm. All SteMClass reference endoderm samples were validated
by flow cytometry, confirming high differentiation efficiency (>90% SOX17$^+$/CXCR4$^+$). Previous
studies often relied on semiquantitative marker assessments, which have been shown to yield
less distinct DNA methylation profiles (Daily et al., 2017; Dobner et al., 2024; Elsafi Mabrouk
et al., 2024; Schmidt et al., 2022). For example, GSE253190 reported heterogeneous *GATA6*
immunofluorescence and *SOX17* RT-qPCR without assessing residual pluripotency, while
GSE207076 showed persistent *OCT4* staining in the representative immunofluorescence
images. The Activin-based differentiation in GSE85828 also produced mesoderm and
endoderm populations that were not epigenetically resolved from each other or from iPSC by
methylation profiling. Collectively, these observations indicate that samples annotated as
"endoderm" often represent heterogeneous or incompletely specified states. Expanding the
training cohort to include rigorously validated, stage-resolved endoderm samples across
developmental windows may improve classifier utility and enable discrimination of epigenetic
subtypes, potentially resolving early regional identities (e.g., anterior versus posterior
definitive endoderm) rather than collapsing them into a single reference group as is the
current standard. In addition to our observation of differentiation outcome heterogeneity
across published studies, it has also been shown that iPSC-derived cardiomyocytes frequently
show inconsistent gene expression profiles and cell compositions across different laboratories
and methods (Grancharova et al., 2021) underscoring the need for more standardised and
robust assessment tools.

SteMClass is adaptable to new technologies, already integrating data from the latest EPICv2.0
methylation arrays and can also be adapted to nanopore sequencing based on our proof-of-

concept experiment. By adapting to nanopore sequencing, SteMClass can leverage direct,
real-time analysis of native DNA without the need for bisulfite conversion, streamlining
sample preparation and significantly reducing associated costs. Nanopore sequencing
requires relatively low initial investment compared to array-based platforms, making it more
accessible for laboratories with limited budgets. While single-cell DNA methylation profiling
remains technically complex and expensive, SteMClass' use of bulk methylation data on
relatively pure cell populations provides a practical alternative for cell-type-specific
classification. This combination of cost-effective setup and simplified workflows enhances the
utility and scalability of SteMClass for a broader range of research environments.

Looking ahead, the SteMClass prototype offers a conceptual foundation from which several
future directions might be explored. Among the most promising possibilities would be an
extension toward predicting differentiation potential, which would support the screening of
iPSC lines for lineage-specific applications relevant to both regenerative medicine and disease
modelling. The classifier's design might also inspire quality control frameworks for clinical-
grade stem cell production. In organoid and co-culture systems, the classifier could track cell-
state composition on sorted models, supporting studies on tissue modelling and cell
interactions. Together, these applications position the classifier as a valuable starting point
for advancing stem cell research, quality control in regenerative medicine, and precision
medicine applications. In addition to the classification tool itself, the dataset is currently the
most extensive DNA methylation data resource of iPSC lines and their isogenic differentiated
derivatives across multiple stages of ectoderm, endoderm, and mesoderm, maintained and
characterised under standardised conditions. This methylation dataset is a valuable research
resource and can provide a wealth of information on the dynamics of DNA methylation during
in vitro differentiation considering that cells derived from iPSCs in vitro differ inherently from
their fully mature in vivo counterparts. Beyond classification, the DNA methylation data
generated by both array-based and nanopore long-read sequencing methods can be used for
additional quality control measures in iPSC maintenance and differentiation experiments such
as CNV detection, biological sex prediction, and genotype verification without the need for
additional testing (Capper et al., 2018; Daenekas et al., 2024; Kuschel et al., 2022).

Conclusion

SteMClass (https://pereze5-stemclass.share.connect.posit.cloud/) is a publicly available
proof-of-concept DNA methylation-based classifier prototype that rapidly and reproducibly
verifies iPSC and iPSC-derived differentiation states. It identifies and characterises distinct
stages of iPSC differentiation, providing a standardised framework for classification that

enables consistent cross-laboratory comparisons. By supporting the development of
harmonised reference datasets and interpretive criteria, SteMClass will enable
standardisation in stem cell research and accelerates translation toward clinical applications.

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Conflicting Interests

1185 The authors have no conflicting interests to declare.

Author contributions

E.P. performed differentiation experiments, generated DNA methylation data, conducted
bioinformatic analyses, prepared figures and tables and wrote the manuscript. V.F.-V.
performed differentiation experiments and prepared figures and tables. D.T. and P.W.
performed DNA extraction and EPIC array processing. C.S. and B.O. contributed to the data
processing workflow. P.E. supported nanopore sequencing-based methylation profiling.
D.C., V.F.-V. and H.S. conceived and supervised the study. All authors contributed to
manuscript editing and approved the final version.

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1195 **Data Availability**

1196 Web application source code is available at https://github.com/pereze5/SteMClass_App, all

1197 annotation, reference and test data required to reproduce the results reported here are

1198 available at https://github.com/pereze5/SteMClass_App/releases and raw data are

1199 deposited at GSE308134.

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