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 0.0264, 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 = 241), performance was 76.5% accuracy (Cohen's K = 0.593) with a 16.6% rejection rate and enabled the detection of potentially inefficient differentiations. 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). 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 accurately identify cells at defined
stages of iPSC differentiation. Our method leverages 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

201   Mesoderm and subsequent endothelial cell differentiation was adapted from Patsch et al.
202   (Patsch et al., 2015) (Supplementary Figure 1b). Briefly, 70-80% confluent iPSC were
203   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

A cohort of n=155 iPSC derivates of eight differentiation states was generated in technical (independent experiments) or biological (distinct cell line donors) replicates, then randomly split into a training cohort of n=97 with a minimum of 8 samples per differentiation state, and a validation cohort of n=58. DNA extraction was performed on each sample cell pellet for 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): GSE110544, GSE163324, GSE105093, GSE141521, GSE159479, GSE163322, GSE180404, GSE197723, GSE207076, GSE207108, GSE236202, GSE247427, GSE247428, GSE247428, GSE253190, GSE253190, GSE61461, GSE85828. 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

Differential methylation analysis on the CpG site and region level was performed in a one-to-one fashion between iPSCs and the respective differentiated cell states as previously described (Maksimovic et al., 2017). Differentially methylated positions (DMPs) were visualized 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 cell 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 differentiated cell state from iPSC, for iPSC it was the top 20,000 CpGs that were common to all cell state vs iPSC comparisons. The annotated tables for the top 20,000 CpGs per cell state are available in Supplementary Table 4, full DMP analysis results tables are available on request.

Unsupervised Analysis

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).

Feature selection

Differential-methylation analyses were performed for each of the seven derivative cell states against iPSCs (adjusted $P < 0.05$). For every CpG the smallest FDR across comparisons was retained, the CpGs were ranked within cell state, and CpGs were sampled proportionally to list length to assemble a panel of 10 000 sites. This ranked-allocation procedure ensured that all cell states contributed to the predictor set proportionally, preserving the most significant markers while reflecting the true DMP burden of each cell state.

Nested cross-validation and parameter tuning

For training the random forest model a nested cross-validation (CV) was used: An outer loop with 5-fold stratified CV repeated 5 times for performance estimation and an inner loop with 3-fold stratified CV within each outer split for hyper-parameter tuning. A Latin-hypercube search of 20 combinations was carried out over minimum node size (min_n) and number of trees (trees). The number of variables sampled at each split (mtry) was fixed to the square root of the predictor count, i.e. 100. Model selection used Brier score (brier_class). Because the eight classes differed by at most a factor of two, no additional re-sampling or class weighting was applied, repeated fold stratification was deemed sufficient.

Threshold-based rejection

Raw class probabilities from the outer folds were pooled and a probability cut-off was optimised across thresholds 0.50-0.95 (step 0.05) using the macro-Youden index (sensitivity + specificity - 1). Predictions with maximum class probability below this value were assigned to a "Not Classifiable" category.

Final model and variable importance

The best hyper-parameters (min_n = 3, trees = 1570, mtry = 100) were used to fit the definitive random forest model on the entire training cohort. Variable importance was extracted from the fitted ranger object (impurity measure). The pre-trained random forest classifier was saved as a serialised workflow object.

Model evaluation

Performance was assessed using two independent datasets:

1. Internal validation test cohort (n = 58)

2. Public test cohort (n = 241, publicly available methylation array data), where class labels were predicted after harmonising feature columns.

The pre-trained random forest classifier was loaded from the serialised workflow object and the underlying ranger model was extracted. The preprocessing recipe was reconstructed using the recipes package and applied to generate a numeric feature matrix and factor response vector. Test data were aligned to the training feature space by imputing missing CpGs with the mean beta value calculated from the training cohort dataset. Feature-level contributions for each test sample and a training set 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 cell 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 cell 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 set raw IDAT files

were processed and converted into an H5 file format for use as the training set 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. 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. PC2 (3% variance) likely captures differences between the two parental iPSC lines. 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 data show that global DNA methylation landscapes are extensively and progressively remodelled in a lineage-consistent manner during in vitro differentiation of isogenic iPSCs to their astrocyte derivatives, supporting that the observed changes reflect differentiation state rather than inherent genetic 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. PC2 (3% variance) likely captures differences between the two parental iPSC lines.

(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 Figure 1+2). 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 protocol-independent 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 cell states (Figure 2b). The observed clustering of distinct cell types was independent of potential batch effects such as parental cell line, donor sex, or DNA methylation array (EPIC) version (Supplementary Figure 3a-d). These findings demonstrate that genome-wide DNA methylation profiles provide a robust, protocol-independent read-out of differentiation state across a diverse set of iPSC 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 protocol-independent and reproducible.

(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, with ectoderm, endoderm, and mesoderm forming distinct clusters, 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, with each differentiation state forming

distinct clusters. 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.

520 **Differential methylation analysis identifies DNA methylation-based signatures**
521 **for cell state classification.**

To isolate the differentiation-associated methylation patterns evidenced by our unsupervised

analysis, we performed pairwise differential methylation analyses comparing iPSCs against

the 7 differentiated cell states (Figure 3, 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 cell state (Figure 3,

Supplementary Figure 4).

Figure 3. Differential DNA methylation identifies lineage-specific features for differentiation state classification.

(a–d) Volcano plots of differentially methylated positions (DMPs) comparing iPSCs to: (a) ectoderm, (b) endoderm, (c) mesoderm, and (d) endothelial cells. Each point is a differentially methylated CpG; blue points meet significance thresholds (FDR-adjusted $p < 0.05$ and $|\log_2$ fold change$| > 1.5$). The most significant CpGs are annotated with their associated gene. Canonical or candidate novel lineage markers are highlighted in green to emphasise key methylation shifts underlying differentiation. Bar plots summarise gene ontology enrichment among significant DMP-associated genes, showing overrepresented biological processes and pathways consistent with the expected differentiation programs. Overall, the methylation patterns support known lineage trajectories and provide differentiation-specific epigenetic signatures. NS, not significant.

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

These differentiation-specific DMPs allowed us to identify cell state-specific signatures. Because many CpGs were differentially methylated across multiple cell states, we assigned each CpG to the single cell state with which it had the most significant FDR-adjusted p-value. We then selected a total of 10 000 CpGs, sampling proportionally from each cell states ranked list of DMPs. Using these 10 000 CpGs, we built a Random Forest classifier ("SteMClass") in the R tidymodels framework with a ranger engine. In practice, once a CpG passes the feature selection step, its DNA methylation status is retained for all samples; any residual signal that overlaps multiple cell states remains available to the classifier. This strategy preserves cell state-specific methylation signatures while keeping feature dimensionality tractable.

A nested cross-validation (5-fold outer x 5 repeats, 3-fold inner) was applied to the model for unbiased performance estimation and hyperparameter tuning, exploring number of trees and minimum node size (min_n) via a Latin-hypercube search (Supplementary Figure 5a). The number of variables sampled per split (mtry) was fixed at 100 and model selection prioritised the Brier score. The final model, fitted on 97 training samples with min_n = 3, trees = 1570, mtry = 100, had a Brier score of 0.0264 and macro expected calibration error (ECE) of 0.029 (Supplementary figure 5b). These cross-validated out of bag metrics indicate SteMClass' robust calibration and overall discriminative power. To minimise overconfident calls, we pooled raw probabilities from all outer folds and optimised a rejection threshold between 0.50 - 0.95 (step 0.05) using the macro-Youden index and a cutoff of 0.6 (macro-Youden = 0.975) was chosen (Figure 4a). Subsequent test samples whose maximum class probability fell below 0.6 were rejected and labelled "Not Classifiable."

SteMClass was evaluated on an independent validation set of 58 samples representing the eight distinct cell states included in the classifier and attained 96.5% accuracy, Cohen's κ = 0.959, and a 3% reject rate (Figure 4b). The validation samples were generated in the same laboratory as the training set ("internally"), derived from the same iPSC lines, using the same differentiation protocols. Despite these controlled conditions, the test samples represented independent experiments, reagent batches, and personnel.

To further evaluate SteMClass' performance, a cohort of publicly available methylation array data was compiled (Supplementary Figure 6a). The dataset included 241 samples that, based on the materials and methods described in their respective publications, were deemed comparable to the cell states defined in this study. This external validation step was designed to test SteMClass' ability to generalise to data generated by independent laboratories and the

classifier achieved an overall accuracy (based on the sample annotation in the literature) of
76.5%, Cohen's κ = 0.593, and a 16.6% reject rate (Figure 4c). 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 4d) 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. iPSC derived
samples from the same publicly available datasets for which the sample metadata indicated
that the cell state was not captured by SteMClass were also tested (n=34; Supplementary
Figure 6b, Supplementary Table 5). Four early stage (< 3 days) endoderm samples and three
embryoid body samples were classified as iPSC, while none of the remaining samples were
arbitrarily assigned a class, supporting the specificity of SteMClass to its defined states.

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.

Figure 4. Integrated assessment of SteMClass: threshold tuning, independent validation, and feature-level signal distribution.

a) Identification of the classification probability cutoff via pooled macro-Youden and bootstrap inference. A line plot of pooled macro-Youden (y-axis) against candidate thresholds (x-axis), with ribbon showing the 95% bootstrap confidence interval and points the empirical estimates. A specificity constraint (mean macro-specificity ≥ 0.95) was imposed, the plateau threshold, defined as the highest threshold below which further lowering yields no statistically significant Youden gain, is indicated by the green dash line. Bootstrap analysis of adjacent threshold steps reveals that lowering from 0.65 to 0.60 gives a small but statistically significant improvement in macro-Youden (one-sided bootstrap p = 0.049), whereas further lowering from 0.60 to 0.55 does not (p = 1), supporting 0.60 as the threshold.

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 (including "Not Classifiable" rejections). Despite being generated in the same laboratory and from the same iPSC lines and protocols as the training data, these samples derive from independent experiments, reagent lots, and personnel. 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
compiled from publicly available methylation datasets (n = 241). Flows connect the original sample annotation
to the classifier's assigned class (including "Not Classifiable" rejections), highlighting agreement and
discordance. The external cohort comprises iPSCs (n = 178), iPSC-derived Ectoderm (n = 20), Endoderm (n = 22),
and Mesoderm (n = 21) from multiple studies: GSE105093 (Sultanov et al., 2018), GSE110544 (Banovich et al.,
2018), GSE141521 (Nishino et al., 2021), GSE159479 (Horii et al., 2021), GSE163322 (Tanaka et al., 2023),
GSE180402 (Cypris et al., 2022), GSE197723 (Crochemore et al., 2023), GSE207108 (Ahern et al., 2022),
GSE207076 (Schmidt et al., 2022), GSE247428 (Puri et al., 2023), GSE253190 (Elsafi Mabrouk et al., 2024),
GSE61461 (Johannesson et al., 2014), GSE76372 (Kitayama et al., 2016), GSE85828 (Daily et al., 2017).

d) Cumulative absolute feature contribution per class. For each of the eight cell-state classes (colour-coded),
lines show how the summed absolute contribution accumulates as CpG sites are added in descending order of
their mean absolute contribution across all 299 test samples (internal + external; n=299). The x-axis is on a $\log_{10}$
scale; the dashed horizontal line marks 80% of the total contribution. All classes reach the 80% level after
approximately 1,000 CpGs, indicating that SteMClass bases its decisions on a broad, distributed methylation
signature rather than being biased by a small set of marker 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 test samples to the reference set by
investigating the top 20,000 CpGs that distinguish each cell state from iPSC (see Methods;
Supplementary Table 4). This allows a wider perspective beyond the 10,000 total features
used by SteMClass to investigate re-classified and "Not Classifiable" samples. Four of the
publicly available 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 cell state profile (Figure 5a).
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 5b). Closer investigation of the POU5F1 promoter region confirmed
methylation levels more consistent with reference iPSC in these test samples (Figure 5c).
Taken together, these results support the likelihood of inefficient differentiation experiments
rather than   misclassifications.
Four iPSC samples from the external validation set were not classifiable. These four samples
formed a cluster distinct from the SteMClass reference iPSCs based on their 20,000 CpG
broader cell state profile (Figure 5d). To identify potential novel markers of iPSC
undifferentiated state, we interrogated the top 100 negatively contributing variables for iPSC
common to the four rejected samples (Figure 5e). Top hits included FGFR2, PALLD and HK2

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 an unclear undifferentiated state and

therefore compromised iPSC quality rather than a classification error for this sample (Figure

5f).

Figure 5. Interpreting SteMClass classification boundaries via broad and narrow view methylation analysis

(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 differentiation 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. Promoter CpGs in FGFR2, PALLD and HK2 show consistent hypermethylation relative to

reference iPSCs.

(f) Genomic view of beta values at the POU5F1 promoter for the four not classifiable samples, revealing that the

outlier sample (orange) exhibits markedly higher methylation, suggestive of incomplete reprogramming,

whereas the three samples (grey)remain broadly consistent with iPSC status in this region.

Six out of ten non-classifiable mesoderm samples clustered closer to iPSCs than to reference

mesoderm based on their methylation profile, with one sample being a clear outlier to both

cell states (Supplementary Figure 7a). The top CpGs driving rejection for classification as

mesoderm included those within the promoter of canonical mesoderm marker genes such as

MSGN1 and WNT5B consistent with incomplete mesoderm differentiation rather than

misclassification (Supplementary Figure 7b). Two samples fell within the reference mesoderm

clusters and scored for mesoderm but did not reach the 0.6 threshold for assignment to this

class, possibly implying either test sample heterogeneity or batch effects which could be

mitigated by including more protocol- and laboratory-diverse data to the reference set.

Among the seven rejected ectoderms, one was a clear outlier, while the remaining six

resembled reference ectoderms in their global profiles (Supplementary Figure 7d). However,

negatively contributing variables for ectoderm classification common to the rejected samples

highlighted PAX6 as one the most differentially methylated genes (Supplementary figure 7f)

indicating a fundamental difference compared to reference ectoderm in these six samples.

Two samples lacked the key differences and yielded borderline probability scores (~0.58),

again possibly explained by the aforementioned batch effects. The other five samples, which did show those DMP patterns, are more likely to represent incomplete ectoderm differentiations.

Eighteen of 22 public endoderm samples failed to meet our 0.6 probability threshold and instead clustered closer to reference iPSCs (Supplementary Fig. 7g), likely reflecting sample heterogeneity, underrepresentation of certain protocols in the training set, and/or batch effects from diverse data sources. Endodermal samples deviated more from reference signatures than other lineages, suggesting greater variability in differentiation efficiency and epigenetic outcome. Given the diversity of endoderm protocols and the critical role of timing in patterning, it is likely that multiple biologically distinct subclasses are currently grouped under the label "endoderm" in the literature. Therefore, expanding the reference set to include broader protocol coverage and subclass definitions may improve classifier performance. 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 two not classifiable astrocyte samples from the internal validation set (Figure 4b) included the previously identified ectoderm-characteristic PAX6 gene body region, possibly indicating inefficiency in neural commitment in these experiments (Figure 6a). 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 and also even within the "successful experiment cohort" (Figure 6b). 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 cell 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 6c). 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 6. Epigenetic driver inference and dynamic tracking of astrocyte differentiation using

SteMClass

(a) Heatmap of the 100 CpG sites whose contributions most strongly oppose astrocyte classification

in the two not classifiable internal validation samples (grey columns), alongside 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); four 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 four 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 0.6 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. 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. Here we
describe the development of a proof-of-concept DNA methylation-based classifier for iPSC
and iPSC derived cells.

The classifier prototype, "SteMClass", demonstrates strong predictive performance, with a
Brier score of 0.0264 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 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 set, allowing for an initial assessment of classifier applicability in varied contexts. Our data shows that endodermal cells especially deviate far more from SteMClass reference signatures than samples of other lineages, implying that endoderm differentiation protocols may exhibit greater variability in efficiency and epigenetic outcome. All SteMClass reference endoderm samples were validated by flow cytometry, confirming high differentiation efficiency (90–99% $SOX17^+/CXCR4^+$). Public datasets (e.g., GSE253190, GSE163322, GSE207076) rarely report comparable quantitative measures, and semiquantitative marker assessments have been shown to yield overlapping DNA methylation profiles (Daily et al., 2017; Dobner et al., 2024; Elsafi Mabrouk et al., 2024; Schmidt et al., 2022). Expanding the reference set to include diverse differentiation protocols could improve classifier generalisability and enable assessment of how protocol-specific efficiencies influence lineage specification. A larger dataset may also reveal methylation subtypes of endoderm corresponding to early regional patterning (e.g., anterior, midgut, posterior), shifting the classifier from a single endoderm signature toward a spectrum of progenitor identities.

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.

The SteMClass classifier offers a wide range of future applications that could significantly advance stem cell research and clinical applications. By expanding to the prediction of differentiation potential, it could help screen iPSC lines for lineage-specific applications, facilitating regenerative medicine and disease modelling. It also holds potential as a blueprint

to develop quality control tools in clinical-grade stem cell production, ensuring reproducible
cell differentiation for therapeutic use. 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 that rapidly and reproducibly verifies iPSC
and iPSC-derived differentiation states. It identifies and characterises distinct stages of iPSC
differentiation with high reproducibility, providing a standardised framework for classification
that enables consistent cross-laboratory comparisons. By supporting the development of
harmonised reference datasets and interpretive criteria, SteMClass advances standardisation
in stem cell research and accelerates translation toward clinical applications.

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Conflicting Interests

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
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1166 **Data Availability**
1167 Web application source code is available at https://github.com/pereze5/SteMClass_App, all
1168 annotation, reference and test data required to reproduce the results reported here are
1169 available at https://github.com/pereze5/SteMClass_App/releases and raw data are
1170 deposited at [GEO Accession TBC].
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