Establishing benchmarks for quantitative mapping of m[6]A by Nanopore Direct RNA Sequencing

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Abstract

Nanopore direct RNA sequencing (DRS) coupled with Dorado modification-aware basecalling enables mapping of epitranscriptomic modifications including N^6-methyladenosine (m^6A) at the level of individual RNAs. However, a lack of systematic benchmarking continues to raise questions regarding the sensitivity, specificity, and reproducibility of this method. To address this and to establish a best-practice workflow, we evaluated multiple Dorado versions using *in vitro* transcribed RNA and an m^6A methyltransferase inhibitor as specificity controls. We established that stringent filtering is necessary to reduce false-positive calls and found strong concordance at high-stoichiometry sites when compared to an orthogonal m^6A mapping method (GLORI). Further, by applying DRS to primary human fibroblasts and HD10.6 neurons, we uncovered cell type-specific differences in m^6A stoichiometry, indicating a finely tuned epitranscriptomic regulation. Our study thus presents the first systematic comparison of Dorado and GLORI from the same input RNA and expands characterization of the m^6A epitranscriptome to fibroblasts and neurons.

Introduction

Epitranscriptomics describes the occurrence of chemical modifications on RNA that regulate stability, localization, splicing, translation or decay[1]. To date, over 170 RNA modifications are known to occur across all classes of RNA including eukaryotic mRNA[2]. Of these, at least thirteen different chemical modifications have been characterized in mRNAs, comprising both cap-proximal and internal modifications[3]. By contrast, current evidence indicates that lncRNAs harbor a more limited repertoire of modifications, primarily *N^6*-methyladenosine (m^6A), 5-methylcytosine (m^5C), and N7-methylguanosine (m^7G)[4]. One of the best studied and most abundant internal mRNA modifications is m^6A. Functional studies of m^6A methylases, demethylases and m^6A binding proteins, as well as sequencing-based mapping methods have increased our understanding of m^6A as a reversible and dynamic modification that fine-tunes nearly all aspects of mRNA metabolism[5-9].

In addition to m^6A, other widespread and functionally important marks include m^5C, which is less abundant but influences mRNA export and stability, pseudouridine (Ψ), which contributes to mRNA stability, translation and splicing, and adenosine-to-inosine (A to I) editing, which is involved in splicing, stability and recoding events that contribute to protein diversity[10].

Techniques based on short-read (Illumina) sequencing have advanced in recent years to achieve single-nucleotide resolution and quantitative mapping of RNA modifications. The approaches that have emerged

to map m[6]A can be broadly classified as antibody-based, enzyme-assisted or chemical conversion
methods[11].

Early antibody-based techniques[12-14] provided the first transcriptome-wide insights into m[6]A architecture,
albeit at limited resolution. Enzyme-assisted methods[15,16] have improved precision but can introduce
enzymatic biases. These biases are avoided with GLORI-Sequencing (GLORI), which selectively deaminates
unmethylated adenosines, enabling theoretically unbiased, quantitative, single-nucleotide mapping of
m[6]A[17].

Despite advances, the broad utility of these approaches is limited by a lack of isoform specificity, as well
as biases associated with amplification, specificity of antibodies or variable adenosine conversion rates[18].
Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) direct RNA sequencing (DRS) offers an alternative to these methods
by analyzing native RNA molecules that have retained their modifications[19]. As single RNAs pass through
nanopores, signal changes are interpreted to determine canonical and modified residues at single-
nucleotide resolution on individual transcripts[20,21]. For the now discontinued DRS SQK-RNA002 chemistry
used with R9 flowcells, multiple research groups developed algorithms for detecting RNA modifications.
These methods can be divided into error rate-based and current signal-based[22]. While the recent release
of the DRS SQK-RNA004 chemistry and RNA-specific flowcells reduced the utility of many of these tools,
introduction of a modification-aware basecaller (Dorado) provides an all-in-one toolkit for basecalling,
RNA modification detection, and poly(A) tail length estimation. Early versions of Dorado (e.g. v0.5.0 and
v0.6.0) enabled m[6]A (DRACH-context only) detection, while version v0.7.0 enabled detection of Ψ and all-
context m[6]A. More recent versions (v0.8.0 and v0.9.0) allow both DRACH- and all-context m[6]A detection,
together with Ψ, inosine and m[5]C[23].

In a recent overview of this emerging technology, Cruciani and Novoa highlighted the importance of
rigorous evaluation of the limitations of Dorado and advocated forcefully for the establishment of best
practices to ensure consistency and accuracy going forward[24]. To date, only a handful of studies of this
kind have been published. A series of studies from Novoa and colleagues showed that Dorado performs
robustly on synthetic modified and unmodified RNA molecules but also found that overlaps in the
identification of specific modifications and false-positive calls remain a challenge but can be mitigated by
the inclusion of *in vitro* transcribed (IVT) controls[25,26]. Independently, Esfahani and colleagues used poly(A)
RNA from a B-lymphocyte cell line to compare SQK-RNA002 and SQK-RNA004-derived DRS data. While
they concluded that Dorado outperformed other RNA modification detection tools, IVT controls were
necessary to reduce false-positive calls[27]. Recent benchmarking efforts comparing Dorado and m6Anet on

SQK-RNA004 chemistry have shown that both tools achieve high recall and strong stoichiometry

correlations at DRACH motifs but exhibit higher false discovery rates on IVT controls and lower recalls of

low-stoichiometry genomic m^{6}A sites. However, these evaluations relied on previously published GLORI

and eTAM-Seq datasets, rather than matched input material[23,26]. By directly comparing m^{6}A detection by

DRS coupled with Dorado and GLORI on the same RNA inputs, our study overcomes this limitation.

Specifically, we systemically benchmark multiple versions of Dorado using poly(A) RNA from primary

(normal) human dermal fibroblasts (NHDFs) and functional human neurons produced through terminal

differentiation of HD10.6 cells[28], along with IVT RNA. We included treatments with STM2457, an enzymatic

inhibitor of the primary m^{6}A methyltransferase METTL3[29], to robustly assess false-positive m^{6}A detection

rates and also compared the DRS outputs with those obtained from GLORI[30] using the same RNA as input.

While our analysis is centered on the sensitivity and specificity of m^{6}A detection in DRS datasets, we also

benchmark the ability of Dorado to reliably detect m^{5}C, Ψ, and inosine. Together, our data provides a

robust workflow for DRS-based modification detection that reliably captures transcriptome-wide, isoform-

level, site-specific stoichiometries of RNA modifications.

Results

Systematic benchmarking of ONT's Dorado across human cell types.

To evaluate the performance of ONT's basecalling tool Dorado across different human cell types, we

selected primary NHDFs and differentiated HD10.6 cells as a neuron-like model. Prior to isolation of total

RNA, cells were treated for 48h with a small molecule inhibitor of METTL3 (STM2457) or with vehicle

(DMSO). We then isolated poly(A) RNA and subjected the same input material to both DRS and GLORI. The

same material was also used to generate IVT RNA (**Fig. 1A**). Dorado basecalling using version v.0.9.0

resulted in over 13M reads using poly(A) RNA from NHDFs treated with DMSO or STM2457, while we

obtained over 5M and 10M reads from DMSO- and STM2457-treated HD10.6 cells, respectively. The rate

of primary alignment to the human genome (hg38) was over 98% for all the sequenced samples. A detailed

overview of read statistics generated by DRS can be found in **Supplementary Table S1**.

To systematically benchmark Dorado, we performed basecalling using versions v0.5.0 through v0.9.0.

Reads were aligned to the human genome and transcriptome to obtain comprehensive information on

isoform-level modification detection. Further, we explored different aspects of detected modifications

using the outputs generated by ONT's Modkit tool[31]. We assessed multiple filtering strategies using base

and modification probabilities, as well as stoichiometry distributions, and evaluated them based on the

IVT data and sensitivity to METTL3 inhibition. By filtering out false-positive calls using multiple control

layers, we determined high-confidence m6A sites (**Fig. 1B**). Finally, we compared these high-confidence

predictions with sites identified by GLORI performed on the same input RNA. Using these results, we

developed a benchmarked pipeline that filters m6A sites predicted by Dorado to minimize false-positive

detection without impacting sensitivity (**Fig. 1C**).

Stringent filtering of modification probabilities removes false positives

During modification-aware basecalling, each nucleotide is assigned a basecall probability score ranging

from 0 to 1. Similarly, individual modified nucleotides are assigned a modification probability score in the

same range. To establish a baseline for false-positive m6A predictions, we plotted basecall and modification

probability distributions for an IVT poly(A) RNA dataset processed using Dorado v0.9.0 and aligned to

human genome (**Fig.2**). We binned basecall and modification probability values for A and m6A (all-context

and DRACH) and compared this data from DMSO- and STM2457-treated NHDF datasets.

We observed that 75-90% of A basecalls (in all datasets) have probability scores above 0.8 **(Fig. S1A)**. Since

all A bases are considered during all-context m6A calling, the fraction of m6A sites is substantially smaller

when compared to DRACH-context m6A sites (**Fig.2A,B, Fig.S1B,C**). The modification probability

distributions are effectively identical for DMSO-treated, STM2457-treated and IVT datasets below 0.98,

while the profiles differ substantially at probabilities ≥ 0.98. This suggests that sites detected below 0.98

are likely false positives, indicating that only high-probability m6A calls can be considered reliable. Here,

STM2457 treatment shows a marked reduction in the number of reported m6A sites in both all-context

and DRACH-only datasets when compared to the DMSO treatment (**Fig. 2A,B**).

In addition to m6A, we examined modification probability distributions for Ψ, inosine and m5C, each of

which can be basecalled with Dorado v0.9.0 (**Fig. S2**). For Ψ and I, the modification probability distributions

for the STM2457 and DMSO datasets only diverge from the IVT dataset at ≥ 0.99 modification probability,

thus providing a relevant threshold for filtering out false positives (**Fig. S2A,B**). By contrast, m5C

modification probability distributions were similar between all three datasets and no filter could be

adequately established (**Fig. S2C**). While this likely reflects a low rate of m^{5}C installation, it also indicates

that the m^{5}C model utilized by Dorado requires further refinement.

Modification probability distributions have similar profiles for transcriptome-aligned NHDF data (**Fig. S3)**

as well as genome- and transcriptome-aligned data from HD10.6 cells **(Fig. S4, Fig. S5**). Of note, the fraction

of high-probability inosine sites is increased in STM2457-treated cells, compared to DMSO-treated ones

in genome-aligned data (**Fig. S2B, Fig.S4D**), which points to increased numbers of retained introns in the

METTL3-inhibited sample. Accordingly, this effect is absent in transcriptome-aligned data (**Fig. S3D, Fig.**

S5D).

While IVT transcriptomes serve as excellent negative controls, we also considered whether the RNA

calibration strand (RCS) that is added during DRS library preparation could serve a similar function. The

RCS is a synthetic Enolase II RNA derived by IVT[13] that, similarly to the IVT transcriptomes, are devoid of

RNA modifications. Despite the reduced diversity of sequence in the RCS data, the overall results were

comparable to that from the IVT transcriptome data (**Fig. S6A,B, Fig. 2A,B**), demonstrating that the RCS

can be used as a "built-in" negative control for modification detection with DRS. Finally, we determined

that basecall and modification probability distributions remain generally consistent between Dorado

versions although more m^{6}A and Ψ sites are detected with high modification probability in Dorado versions

v0.8.0/v0.9.0 compared to v0.7.0 (**Fig. S6C-E**).

Filtering by stoichiometry further eliminates potential false positives

We next examined the stoichiometry distributions for all m^{6}A sites in both unfiltered and filtered NHDF

datasets (**Fig. S7**). Here, unfiltered datasets showed that the vast majority of m^{6}A sites, 92% for all-context

and 75% for DRACH-context, have stoichiometry values < 10% with less than 1% sites showing high (> 50%)

stoichiometry. Application of our filtering strategy removed over 70% of the sites (**Fig. 2E)**, regardless of

the context, almost all of which showed stoichiometries of < 10%, without significantly changing the

numbers of high stoichiometry sites detected (**Fig. S7**). A similar analysis of the IVT transcriptome revealed

large numbers of false positive m^{6}A sites with stoichiometry values below 10%, most of which were

eliminated by application of our filters (**Fig. S8A,B**). However, the remaining presence of low stoichiometry

false-positive sites indicates that an additional layer of filtering to exclude sites with < 10% stoichiometry

is beneficial. An additional argument in support of our filtering strategy is the observation that treatment

with the METTL3 specific inhibitor STM2457 dramatically reduced m^{6}A installation at sites with ≥ 10%

stoichiometry in untreated datasets in a context-independent manner (**Fig. 2C,D, Table S2**). Similar results

were observed for the transcriptome-aligned NHDF and HD10.6 m^6A stoichiometry distributions as well

(**Fig. S9, Fig. S10, Table S2**).

To determine whether our filtering strategy could be applied to other RNA modifications detected by

Dorado, we generated stoichiometry distributions for Ψ and inosine in unfiltered and filtered (≥ 0.99

modification probability) human genome-aligned DMSO- and STM2457-treated NHDFs and HD10.6s. As

with m^6A (**Fig. S7**), 92% of detected Ψ and 96% of inosine have less than 10% stoichiometry (**Fig. S11, Fig.**

S12). A recent study that explores Ψ in human mRNAs using 2-bromoacrylamide-assisted cyclization

sequencing (BACS) corroborates our results, showing that 82% of Ψ modifications are detected at low

levels (below 20%)[32].

Above 10% stoichiometry, in our data, there are more inosine sites in STM2457-treated cells than

DMSO-treated cells, reflected also in the stoichiometry distributions (**Fig. S11, Fig. S12, Table S2**). Ψ and

inosine stoichiometry distributions in our IVT data **(Fig.S8C,D)** further validates our filtering strategy of ≥

0.99 modification probability, as it substantially reduces the number of detected false-positive sites in the

unfiltered data even at higher (> 50%) stoichiometries in case of inosine (**Fig.S8D**).

We have thus demonstrated that setting thresholds for basecall modification probabilities provides a

robust method for identifying and filtering false-positive modification calls. For the purposes of this study,

we further evaluated the effect of placing the modification threshold on the modification data and

restricted the downstream analyses to m^6A sites with probability scores ≥ 0.98.

RNA modification detection rates differ between Dorado versions

Dorado basecalling relies on models generated using Remora (github.com/nanoporetech/remora) that are

frequently updated. This raises an important question as to whether these updates produce notably

different outputs that could impact biological interpretation. To address this, we utilized multiple Dorado

versions and Remora models to perform modification calling of our NHDF dataset. We restricted our

analyses to m^6A and Ψ as these are the only modifications that could be detected in previous versions.

Here, we observe that m^6A and Ψ stoichiometry distributions are generally consistent between different

Dorado versions (**Fig. S13**), albeit with greater numbers of low stoichiometry (< 10%) sites detected in

older Dorado versions. There is a large overlap of the detected ≥ 10%-stoichiometry m^6A (DRACH and all-

context) and Ψ sites between versions, although there are a lot of unique all-context m^6A and Ψ sites

identified with just v0.7.0 and not v0.8.0-v0.9.0, that are reduced after applying our modification

probability filter (**Fig. S14A,B**). Ψ sites uniquely detected with different versions are found in slightly

different sequence contexts (**Fig. S14C,D**). Thus, while RNA modification detection with Dorado is sensitive

to changes in the underlying models/versions, this can be effectively controlled through the application of

filters that only retain sites with high-confidence modification probability calls.

GLORI exhibits reduced specificity but converges with Dorado predictions at high stoichiometry sites

To assess the agreement of DRS Dorado-derived predictions with an orthogonal m^6A detection method,

we conducted GLORI on the same NHDF RNA preparations. To ensure a fair comparison of m^6A sites across

the two methods, we applied the following filtering strategies: For Dorado (DRACH model), this included

thresholds on modification probability (A ≥ 0.8, m^6A ≥ 0.98) and read coverage (≥ 20). For GLORI, we used

filters based on coverage (≥ 20) and statistical significance (p-value ≤ 0.05). Next, we extracted m^6A sites

that were present in both DMSO and STM2457 treated samples and removed all sites with ≤ 10%

stoichiometry in DMSO (**Fig. 3A**). This stepwise strategy reduced false positives and enabled a fair

comparison of the high confidence m^6A sites identified by both approaches.

As shown in the violin plots, both the all-context and DRACH-context Dorado models identify similar

numbers of m^6A sites (81,012 (all-context model) and 72,372 (DRACH model)), the stoichiometries of

which were strongly reduced upon STM2457 treatment (**Fig. 3B**). When we analyzed the motifs of the m^6A

sites detected with the all-context model, we observed nearly 9,000 sites outside of DRACH motifs.

Importantly, the total number of m^6A sites within DRACH motifs was nearly identical to the number of m^6A

sites reported using the DRACH model (**Fig.3B**). Unexpectedly, GLORI detects a substantially higher

number of sites when using all motifs (140,934) compared to DRACH motifs alone (27,926) (**Fig. 3C**). The

fact that most GLORI-identified sites fall outside DRACH motifs suggests these are false positives. This

interpretation is reinforced by the observation that the overlap between Dorado and GLORI datasets

remains virtually unchanged when comparing GLORI "all motif" and "DRACH motifs" (n=13,614) site sets,

underscoring that the additional non-DRACH sites in GLORI (n= 113,008) are largely spurious (**Fig. S17A**).

We obtained similar results when comparing m^6A sites obtained with Dorado and GLORI from HD10.6

cells. Overall, we detected a similar number of m^6A sites in HD10.6 cells using the all-context and DRACH-

specific Dorado models (77,728 and 67,222, respectively) (**Fig. S17B**). By contrast, we detected 174,282 vs

27,965 m^6A sites using GLORI without or with DRACH filtering, respectively (**Fig. S17C**).

To evaluate how stoichiometry threshold affects the agreement between GLORI and Dorado, we compared

the overlap of high-confidence GLORI-identified sites with Dorado m⁶A (DRACH context) calls across

increasing m⁶A stoichiometry cutoffs (**Fig. 3D**). At the lowest stoichiometry threshold applied (≥ 10%),

13,614 sites overlapped, representing less than half (48.8%) of GLORI sites. However, as the stringency

increased, the relative overlap increased sharply: at ≥ 20%, nearly 70% of GLORI sites overlapped (11,536

sites), at ≥ 50% almost 90% overlapped (6,307 sites), and at the highest cutoff (≥ 80%), over 93% of GLORI

sites (3,119 sites) were also detected by Dorado. These results demonstrate that while GLORI detects a

broad set of potential m⁶A sites, only the sites with high stoichiometries overlap with Dorado, indicating

high signal to noise ratios in the GLORI datasets.

GLORI relies on the high-efficiency conversion of adenosine to inosine with overall gene A to I conversion

rates needing to exceed 95-98%[32,33]. Similarly, we observed the conversion rates for our NHDF and HD10.6

dates to be 95% (**Table S3**), but we found that small variations in gene conversion rates can strongly

influence the sensitivity and specificity of GLORI, as only high-stoichiometry m⁶A sites overlapped with

DRS-derived predictions (**Fig. 3D**).

DRS coupled with Dorado outperforms GLORI in isoform-specific m⁶A detection

Next, we wanted to highlight the advantage of long-read sequencing in terms of mapping reads with

isoform-precision to the human transcriptome, which is not possible using GLORI due to its reliance on

short-read sequencing. We first confirmed that mapping Dorado-basecalled sites to the human

transcriptome results in the detection of similar numbers of m⁶A sites in both NHDFs and HD10.6 cells (**Fig.**

S17D,E). To assess if DRS coupled with Dorado identifies distinct m⁶A profiles on different transcript

isoforms, we analyzed the *SPEN* gene locus which was previously shown to contain more than 100 m⁶A

sites[17]. On a genomic level, we detected 42 m⁶A sites using DRS, while GLORI only detected 5 m⁶A sites

(**Fig. 3E**). Out of the 7 total isoforms of *SPEN*, *SPEN-201* and *SPEN-202* were detectable in DRS-derived

data, considering a minimal coverage of 20 (**Table S4**). When plotting the m⁶A sites detected by

transcriptome-aligned DRS data, we found that the *SPEN-201* isoform exhibited more m⁶A sites with a

higher median stoichiometry compared to the *SPEN-202* isoform (**Fig. 3F**). This example highlights that

DRS is superior compared with GLORI for isoform-level m⁶A quantification.

Dorado profiling reveals cell type differences in m⁶A distribution and stoichiometry

To assess the reproducibility of Dorado across DRS datasets derived from different cell types, we compared

the m⁶A methylomes of NHDFs and HD10.6 cells. To ensure a fair comparison, we extracted genes that

were expressed in both cell types. Next, we compared the total numbers of high confidence m⁶A sites in

NHDFs and HD10.6 cells within the genes expressed in both cell types and found that 87% of HD10.6-

derived m⁶A sites overlap with those detected in NHDFs (**Fig. 4A**). Site-specific m⁶A stoichiometries from

the shared gene set correlated strongly across cell types (Pearson r = 0.93), although we observed a global

shift in the HD10.6 dataset, where m⁶A stoichiometries were generally higher than in NHDFs (**Fig. 4B**).

Gene Ontology (GO) term analysis of genes containing shared or unique m⁶A sites across NHDFs and

HD10.6 cells further revealed that these modifications are enriched in transcripts involved in fundamental

cellular processes such as transcriptional regulation, DNA repair, chromatin remodeling, and protein

transport suggesting that conserved sites maintain core cellular functions (**Fig. 4C**).

We next aimed to conduct a comparative motif analysis of m⁶A sites detected in NHDFs and HD10.6 cells.

Sequence logos confirmed strong enrichment of the canonical DRACH consensus motif for both cell types

in modification probability-filtered data, with the GGACU pentamer being the most prominent (**Fig. 4D,E,**

Fig.S15). Quantification of 5-mer distributions revealed highly similar motif preferences across datasets.

While the global motif architecture of m⁶A deposition is conserved between NHDFs and HD10.6 cells, we

observed a trend toward higher stoichiometries in the HD10.6 dataset, particularly within the most

abundant DRACH motifs, suggesting enhanced modification efficiency in the neuronal-like context (**Fig. 4F,**

G).

Metagene analysis showed, as known previously, that m⁶A is enriched near the stop codons and in the 3'

UTRs (**Fig. 2F**). Since there have been several studies done on how exon architecture regulates m⁶A

distribution on mRNAs[1,2,3], we also examined m⁶A sites in monoexonic transcripts separately and observed

that monoexonic transcripts are more equally m⁶A-modified across entire CDS (**Fig. 2F**). m⁶A (both all-

context and DRACH-context) distribution profiles look less typical for all-stoichiometry or < 10%

stoichiometry sites in both NHDF and HD10.6 datasets (**Fig. S16**). For all-context m⁶A (**Fig. S16A**),

modification filter also proves to be deciding for the distribution profile, together with ≥ 10%

stoichiometry.

To connect shared m⁶A sites with their functional context and illustrate their distribution on individual

transcripts, we conducted a KEGG pathway analysis with the genes that contain shared m⁶A sites between

NHDFs and HD10.6 cells. We observed a significant enrichment in pathways related to neurodegeneration,

infection, and intracellular signaling, including axon guidance and mTOR signaling (**Fig. 4H**). To further

illustrate these findings, we examined representative genes contained in one or more of these pathways.

WNTB5, *MAPK1*, *AKT1*, *NCK1* and *NRP1* all showed robust methylation in both NHDFs and HD10.6 cells,

with consistently higher stoichiometries observed in the neuronal-like context. In contrast, *ACTG1*,

included as a housekeeping control not represented in the enriched pathways, displayed stable and

comparatively uniform methylation across both cell types (**Fig. 4I**).

Together, these results demonstrate that while the global architecture of m^6A deposition is largely

conserved between primary fibroblasts and neuronal-like cells, the neuronal context is characterized by a

global shift toward higher m^6A stoichiometries, which is readily detectable in single genes. These findings

suggest that cell type-specific regulation of m^6A may fine-tune core cellular pathways relevant to that cell

type.

Discussion

High rates of false positives remain a major problem in epitranscriptomics, even with the advent of

modification-aware tolls[24]. Comparing the outputs of orthogonal methods performed on the same input

material, combined with use of IVT RNA and/or specific methyltransferase inhibition, offers an effective

mitigation strategy[24,26]. The results presented here establish a robust framework that minimizes false

positives and enables isoform-specific and quantitative m^6A mapping. Through a direct comparison with

GLORI, we showed that combining nanopore DRS datasets with Dorado modification-aware basecalling

provides greater scalability, isoform resolution, and reproducibility across different cell types. Further, the

simplicity of nanopore DRS library preparation enhances consistency whereas GLORI is constrained by a

laborious and technically challenging protocol that is extremely sensitive to adenosine conversion rates[34].

Despite these limitations, we determined that the majority of m^6A sites in our filtered DRS datasets could

be confirmed by GLORI. By expanding our analysis across multiple human cell types, we further determine

that the sites of m^6A installation are conserved for the most part but that the stoichiometries show cell-

type specific differences.

Crucially, the inclusion of transcriptome-wide IVT datasets and the use of a selective METTL3 inhibitor

(STM2457) provides a robust approach to developing filters that dramatically decrease false-positive m^6A

detection. The impact of both approaches was readily visualized by plotting modification probability

distributions, enabling our determination that retaining only m^6A calls with confidence scores of 0.98 or

greater retained almost all STM2457-sensitive m^6A sites while eliminating the large numbers of false-

positive m⁶A sites reported for the IVT datasets. This approach is supported by a recent study which

highlighted that Dorado introduces large numbers of false positives outside canonical DRACH contexts[35].

Our data confirms that in the unfiltered datasets, the number of false positives is higher in the all-context

model compared to the DRACH model. This may reflect the degenerate nature of the canonical DRACH

consensus and understudied differences in sequence preference between different cell types and

organisms. Retaining only sites at which m⁶A stoichiometries exceeded 10% further reduced false-positive

rates while also focusing the results on identification of sites that are more likely to be biologically

significant. The combined effect of these filters was to provide a strong agreement between the m⁶A all-

context and m⁶A DRACH model in the detection of high confidence m⁶A sites, as observed by filtering for

DRACH motifs from m⁶A sites detected with the all-context model (**Fig.3B**).

Prior studies have emphasized the need for isoform-resolved m⁶A quantification by demonstrating

widespread heterogeneity in m⁶A levels between genes and their isoforms[35,36]. Here, we showed that

aligning DRS datasets to the human transcriptome reveals differential m⁶A installation patterns between

isoforms, underscoring the importance of accurate, isoform-specific m⁶A quantification at single-molecule

resolution and highlighting the advantage of DRS against short-read sequencing approaches such as GLORI

(**Fig. 3E,F**).

Recently, the ability of Dorado and m6Anet[37] to identify m⁶A in DRS datasets from 293T and HeLa cells

were systematically evaluated using IVT RNA and comparisons to published datasets obtained by GLORI

and eTAM-seq[23]. In this case the authors found that Dorado (v0.7.2) outperforms m6Anet but also

advocated for the importance of applying filters to reduce false positive calls. Likewise, we found that IVT

RNA served as a valuable negative control to detect false positive calls. Furthermore, using the RNA

calibration strand (RCS) as a negative control provided a convenient and simpler alternative to IVT RNA,

yielding comparable probability distributions and thereby enabling a built-in control for routine

experiments[21]. While m⁶A detection was generally reproducible across Dorado versions, model-specific

differences are present, i.e. v0.7.0 produces substantially more low-confidence all-context m⁶A and Ψ calls

than v0.8.0–0.9.0, highlighting that the models remain under active development and that benchmarking

should be repeated when switching to a new model.

Focusing on other modifications that are detected by Dorado, we observe that inosine and Ψ detection

appears robust when applying similar filtering strategies as for m⁶A, the latter supported by other

studies[27,38]. For inosine, we observed an enrichment of high-probability (> 0.99) inosine sites in genome-

aligned data from STM2457-treated samples. Further studies are needed to determine whether this

reflects increased intron retention or misclassification of modifications by the current inosine model. We

also observed a reduction in m^5C sites detected and changes to m^5C stoichiometries in STM2457-treated

cells.

While DRS is the only approach that allows for robust isoform-specific m^6A mapping, comparisons with

orthogonal approaches remain essential to validate findings. When comparing Dorado and GLORI using

the same input RNA, we unexpectedly observed that only 50% of m^6A sites with stoichiometries above

10% that were identified by Dorado were also present in the GLORI data although increasing the

stoichiometries led to increased overlap (**Fig.3D**). We attribute this to a sub-optimal gene-wide adenosine

conversion rate of 95% during GLORI, compared to the 98-99% rate reported in the original study[39]. Here,

unconverted adenosines result in high signal-to-noise ratios which result in lower sensitivity, explaining

why the overlap with Dorado increases at higher-stoichiometry sites. This is also reflected in the relatively

high amount of false positive sites detected outside of DRACH motifs in the GLORI datasets (**Fig. 3C**). The

sensitivity of GLORI to small fluctuations thus limits its utility in comparison to DRS. Whether this can be

resolved with improvements to the GLORI methodology[40] requires further study.

Prior analyses of m^6A stoichiometry distributions across immortalized human cell lines, including cancer

cell lines, have revealed broadly similar m^6A stoichiometry distributions[36]. By contrast, our analysis of

primary fibroblasts (NHDFs) and neuronal cells (differentiated HD10.6 cells) revealed an overall increase

in m^6A stoichiometries in neurons compared to fibroblasts, especially in genes associated with neuronal

function. While further studies are warranted to establish the underlying mechanisms and functional

consequences of these differences, this aligns with the importance of m^6A in neuronal function[41]. This

includes m^6A maps from synaptic and nuclear RNA isolated from mouse dorsal hippocampus which

showed that synapse-specific RNAs showed generally higher methylation levels[40]. Intriguingly, neuronal

regulation pathways utilize differentially spliced isoforms[42] and a recent study revealed isoform-specific

differences in m^6A sites and stoichiometries in the human brain that are linked to m^6A machinery

expression and cell type context.

In summary, using matched RNA samples from different experimental conditions and from different

human cell types analyzed with both Dorado and GLORI orthogonal methodologies, we establish a robust

pipeline for the precise and quantitative transcriptome-wide detection of m^6A in DRS datasets. Future

studies should aim at extending this approach using orthogonal sequencing approaches to benchmark

Dorado-based detection of Ψ, m^5C and inosine, as well as the newly released models for 2'O-methylation.

Methods

Cell culturing and STM2457 treatment

NHDFs (Lonza) were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Gibco), supplemented with 5% heat-inactivated FBS (HI-FBS, Gibco) and 1% penicillin-streptomycin (PS, Lonza) under standard culture conditions. The HD10.6 cell line was originally derived from fetal human dorsal root ganglia (DRG) and immortalized by overexpression of the v-myc oncogene under tetracycline regulation. Upon addition of tetracycline and neurotrophins, these cells can be differentiated into neuron-like cells that show typical neuronal morphology and nociceptive properties[28]. For our experiments, we used HD10.6 cells that have been matured for 10 days. For maintenance of undifferentiated HD10.6 cells (a gift from Anna Cliffe, University of Virginia School of Medicine), T-75 flasks were coated with 17 µg/mL fibronectin in PBS for 15 min at 37°C before adding the cell suspension. Cells were grown in Advanced DMEM/F12 (Gibco), supplemented with 1x Neurocult SM1 (STEMCELL Technologies), 2 mM L-glutamine (Gibco), 1x Primocin (Invivogen) and 10 ng/mL prostaglandin E1 (Sigma). 0.5 ng/mL bFGF (PeproTech) were added freshly to each media change. For maturation, HD10.6 cells were seeded at a density of 25.000 cells/cm² in 6-well plates which were pre-coated overnight with 50 µg/mL poly-L-ornithine hydrobromide (Sigma) in 0.5M borate buffer pH 8.5 (Boston Bioproducts), and 1 µg/mL fibronectin (overnight). After cell attachment overnight, media was changed to Neurobasal media (Gibco), supplemented with 1x Neurocult SM1, 2mM L-glutamine, 1x Primocin, 1 µg/mL doxycycline, 50 ng/mL NGF (Alomone Labs), and 25 ng/mL CNTF, GDNF and NT-3 (PeproTech). Media was changed every three days until HD10.6 cells showed complete neuronal morphology after 12 days. NHDFs and matured HD10.6 cells were treated with 30 µM STM2457 (Sigma) or DMSO for 48h, harvested in TRIzol (Invitrogen), and stored at -80°C until RNA isolation.

RNA isolation

RNA was extracted by the TRIzol method according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 0.2 mL chloroform per 1 mL TRIzol were added and mixed by vortexing. After centrifugation for 30 min at 12,000xg at 4°C, the aqueous phase was transferred to isopropanol (0.5 mL per 1 mL TRIzol), mixed and incubated for 10 min at room temperature. Subsequently, the samples were centrifuged for 10 min at 12,000xg at 4°C and the RNA pellets were washed twice in 75% fresh ethanol. After air-drying for 5-10 min, RNA was dissolved in nuclease-free H_2O and stored at -80°C until further processing. One third of each sample was used for DRS and the remaining same-input material was processed for GLORI. For both DRS and GLORI,

poly(A) RNA was selected using the Dynabeads™ mRNA Purification Kit (Invitrogen), according to the

manufacturer's instructions.

GLORI-Sequencing

GLORI reactions were largely performed following the published protocol for RNA protection, deamination

and deprotection with several minor adjustments[34]. Briefly, poly(A) RNA was fragmented at 94°C for 2 min

(NEB E6150S) and subjected to glyoxal protection, sodium-nitrite-mediated deamination (750 mM NaNO$_2$

at 16°C for 8h and 4°C for 6h), and deprotection in triethylammonium acetate-formamide buffer at 95°C

for 10 min. Library construction was conducted using a ligation-based strategy as described by Liu and

colleagues incorporating 5'adapters with 11-nt UMIs[43].

Indexed libraries were amplified with NEBNext Dual Primers Set 2 (E7780S), purified using AMPure XP

beads, and validated on an Agilent TapeStation (D1000 High Sensitivity). Sequencing was performed on an

Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform (150 bp paired-end mode; > 80 million reads per sample).

For data processing, we employed the same computational pipeline described in Liu et al[43], but

implemented within a Snakemake-based framework that automates the complete analysis starting from

raw fastq files[44]. Details on software versions, workflow availability, and repository links are provided in

the Data and code availability section below.

Generation of a transcriptome-wide IVT RNA library

We sequenced the IVT RNA from both NHDFs and HD10.6 cells along with the native poly(A) RNA to

evaluate potential false-positive predictions by Dorado. This was achieved by converting the poly(A) RNA

to cDNA using a poly(A) primer and a T7-incorporating strand switch primer and using the cDNA as a

template for IVT synthesis.

Nanopore Sequencing of poly(A) RNA

Poly(A) RNA was isolated from 22-30 ug total RNA using the Dynabeads™ mRNA Purification Kit

(Invitrogen), according to the manufacturer's protocol. 250-300 ng of isolated poly(A) RNA and 25 ng RNA

calibration strand (RCS) were used as input for the standard nanopore DRS SQK-RNA004 protocol.

Resulting libraries were loaded onto individual PromethION RNA flow cells before sequencing on the

PromethION 2 Solo instrument for 48h.

Nanopore basecalling

448   Basecalling was performed using Dorado v0.5.0, v0.6.0, v0.7.0, v0.8.0 and v0.9.0 (ONT) in super accuracy

449   mode with modification detection enabled for m6A (DRACH context) in v.0.5.0, 0.6.0, 0.8.0 and 0.9.0, m6A

450   (all context) in v0.7.0, 0.8.0 and 0.9.0, Ψ in v0.7.0, v0.8.0 and v0.9.0. Each dataset was processed with

451   adapter trimming. Resulting unaligned BAM files were converted to FASTQ files containing modification

452   tags for every read in the FASTQ read headers, using SAMtools v1.18[45] [*samtools fastq -TMM,ML*].

Genome and transcriptome level alignments

For genome-level alignment, reads were aligned against a combined human genome reference

(GRCh38.p14), and the RCS gene sequence, using minimap2 v2.26 [*minimap2 -ax splice -k14 -y -uf --*

secondary=no]. For transcriptome-level alignment, the reads were aligned against the human

transcriptome (v47), obtained via GENCODE[46] [*minimap2 -t 8 -ax map-ont -y -L -p 0.99*]. Using SAMtools

v1.18, resulting genome- and transcriptome-aligned SAM files were converted to BAM files retaining only

primary alignments [*samtools view -b -F2308* and *samtools view -b -F2324,* respectively]. BAM files were

sorted [*samtools sort*] and indexed [*samtools index*].

Processing of RNA modification calls using Modkit

Probability distributions of the detected sites in human genome- and transcriptome-aligned reads were

generated using sample-probs subcommand from Modkit v0.4.1[31] [sample-probs --hist --only-mapped --

percentiles 0.1,0.2,0.3,0.4,0.5,0.6,0.7,0.8,0.85,0.9 -f 0.1]. For RCS reads -f value was increased to 0.25. The

resulting .tsv files were imported into RStudio (v. 2024.12.1+563) and plotted using a custom R(v. 4.4.2)

script (Dorado_mod_probability_distributions.R), with the following packages: dplyr (v1.1.4), ggplot2

(v3.5.1), reshape2 (v1.4.4), patchwork (v1.3.0).

To generate extended bedMethyl files with m6A-modified and unmodified base counts from the reads

mapping against the potential modification sites, we used Modkit pileup subcommand with the thresholds

[*--filter-threshold A:0.8 --filter-threshold T:0.8 --filter-threshold C:0.8 --filter-threshold G:0.8 --motif A 0 --*

ref $REF] with and without modification threshold filter [*--mod-thresholds a:0.98*] to generate our

"filtered" and "unfiltered" datasets, respectively. Canonical nucleotide calls (A, C, G, U) were retained with

> 80% probability scores for all modification datasets. Modification thresholds were set at 98% for m6A

and 99% for all the other modifications. *--motif* was adjusted to the base for which modification status

was examined, which further restricted the analysis to only the positions that matched canonical

nucleotides in the reference genome. The resulting sites were further filtered according to the read
number per site (≥ 20 reads) for all the downstream analysis.

Gene Ontology analysis

480   GO analysis was performed using DAVID[47]. Genes harboring m^{6}A sites were filtered for genes that were
481   generally present in both datasets. Next, they were divided into NHDF-specific, HD10.6-specific, and
482   shared categories, and enrichment was assessed for biological processes. GO terms were considered
483   significant at FDR ≤ 0.05 with a minimum of 20 genes per GO term. For plotting, the top 20 GO terms that
484   contained the highest gene numbers were extracted from the analysis of the shared gene sets.

Analysis and visualization of modification stoichiometries and distributions

486   Stoichiometry distribution histograms and metaplots were generated using Rstudio and R v4.4.2 with the
487   following libraries: data.table, patchwork, scales, tidyr, dplyr, ggplot2[4]. Access to scripts used for analysis
488   and visualization is detailed below.
489

Data and code availability

Raw fastq and pod5 datasets generated in this study are available via the European Nucleotide Archive
(ENA) under the accession number PRJEB101380.
R scripts used in the analysis and visualization of data presented herein are available in the
https://github.com/DepledgeLab/HOLDEN repository.
The Snakemake workflow implementing the GLORI analysis pipeline is available in the
https://github.com/gp-micro/glori repository.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Workflow for m6A mapping in different human cell types using orthogonal sequencing approaches.

(A) Schematic of the experimental setup. RNA was isolated from NHDFs and differentiated HD10.6 cells treated with STM2457 or DMSO for 48h. Poly(A) RNA was subjected to DRS and GLORI from the same input material. IVT RNA was generated in parallel to assess potential false-positive modification calls. **(B)** Workflow for benchmarking Dorado basecalling. Reads were processed with Dorado versions v.0.5.0 through v0.9.0, aligned to the human genome or transcriptome, and analyzed with ONT's Modkit tool. Multiple filtering strategies were tested against IVT controls and METTL3 inhibition (STM2457). Resulting

m6A sites were compared with GLORI data from the same input RNA. **(C)** Final benchmarked Dorado pipeline to detect high-confidence m6A sites.

Figure 2. Modification probability of 0.98 and stoichiometry score of ≥10% are necessary cutoffs to identify m6A sites accurately.

(A) Dorado v0.9.0-generated modification probability distributions for all-context m6A from genome-aligned DMSO- and STM2457-treated NHDFs plotted against the ones from in vitro transcribed (IVT) NHDF poly(A) RNA. DMSO probability score distribution is shown as a red solid line, STM2457 – red dashed line, IVT – grey solid line. **(B)** Same as in (A), but for DRACH-context m6A sites. **(C)** Stoichiometry (≥10%) distributions for all-context m6A from DMSO- (in red) or STM2457-treated (in pink) NHDF datasets (genome-aligned) are plotted using a 0.98 modification probability cutoff and a filter for ≥ 20 reads. **(D)** Same as in (C), but for DRACH-context m6A sites. **(E)** Overlap of m6A sites between all-context and DRACH models (A basecall accuracy ≥80%, coverage ≥20reads, stoichiometry ≥10%), comparing non-filtered to filtered (modification probability >0.98) outputs. **(F)** Metagene plots showing the density of m6A (all-context – dark red, DRACH-context – bright red) sites across all annotated poly(A) transcripts (left) and monoexonic poly(A) transcripts (right) from genome-aligned DMSO-treated NHDF datasets filtered with 0.98 modification probability, ≥20 coverage and ≥10% stoichiometry.

Figure 3. Comparison of m6A sites detected by Dorado and GLORI.

(A) Filtering strategy for ONT's Dorado and GLORI to obtain a high-confidence list of m6A sites in NHDFs. **(B)** Stoichiometry distributions are plotted from genome-aligned DMSO- or STM2457-treated NHDF datasets using the indicated Dorado models and the filtering strategy shown in (A). **(C)** Stoichiometry distributions from GLORI performed on DMSO- or STM2457-treated NHDFs are plotted, using the filtering strategy shown in (A). In addition, m6A sites were filtered for DRACH motifs (right plot). **(D)** Overlap of high-confidence m6A sites detected by Dorado vs GLORI. GLORI datasets were filtered using increasing m6A stoichiometry cutoffs (from left to right). **(E)** m6A sites in the *SPEN* gene detected by GLORI and Dorado. Boxplots (right) represent the m6A stoichiometries per m6A site shown on the left. **(F)** *SPEN* isoforms with m6A sites, determined by Dorado. Boxplots (right) show the distribution of m6A stoichiometries on the m6A sites on *SPEN-201* and *SPEN-202*.

Figure 4. Comparative analysis of m6A modification patterns in NHDFs and HD10.6 cells using Dorado v0.9.0.
(A) Overlap of high-confidence m6A sites between NHDFs and HD10.6 cells. **(B)** Correlation of shared m6A stoichiometries (n=38,217). **(C)** GO term analysis (Biological Process, DAVID Bioinformatics Resources) of genes with shared or unique m6A sites. **(D+E)** Motif analysis showing m6A (all-context and DRACH-context) motif logos, 5-mer distributions and modification stoichiometries in NHDFs. **(F+G)** Same as in (D+E) but for HD10.6 cells. **(H)** KEGG pathway analysis (DAVID Bioinformatics Resources) of shared m6A-containing genes. **(I)** m6A stoichiometries of representative examples of individual genes from enriched pathways (H). *ACTG1* serves as a housekeeping control.

Figure S1. Evaluation of Dorado by base and modification probability distributions.

(A) Dorado v0.9.0-generated basecall accuracy probability values for A (all-context and DRACH-context basecaller models) from genome-aligned DMSO- and STM2457-treated NHDF samples against in vitro transcribed poly(A) NHDF RNA. A probability score distribution is shown as a black solid line for DMSO, STM2457 – black dashed line, IVT – grey solid line. **(B)** Dorado v0.9.0-generated modification probability distributions, visualized as histograms, for all-context m6A from genome-aligned DMSO- and STM2457-treated NHDFs and in vitro transcribed (IVT) NHDFs. IVT modification probability score distribution is shown in grey, DMSO – bright red, STM2457 – dark red. **(C)** Same as in (B), but for DRACH-context m6A sites.

Figure S2. Modification probability cutoffs are necessary to identify Ψ and inosine sites more accurately.

(A) Dorado v0.9.0-generated basecall accuracy probability values for U (left) and modification probability distributions for Ψ (right) from genome-aligned DMSO- and STM2457-treated NHDF samples are plotted against in vitro transcribed poly(A) RNA. Ψ probabilities are visualized in blue solid and dashed lines for DMSO and STM2457, respectively and in grey solid line for IVT. **(B)** Same as in (A), but showing A base accuracy probabilities and inosine sites. Inosine probabilities are visualized in purple solid and dashed lines for DMSO and STM2457, respectively and in grey solid line for IVT. **(C)** Same as in (A), but showing C base accuracy probabilities and m^5C sites. m^5C probabilities are visualized in green solid and dashed lines for DMSO and STM2457, respectively and in grey solid line for IVT. **(D+E)** DRACH-context and all-context m^6A modification probability distributions (red) from genome-aligned DMSO- and STM2457-treated NHDFs are plotted against RCS negative control (grey).

Figure S3. Modification probability cutoffs are necessary to identify modification sites accurately, shown for transcriptome-aligned data.

Dorado v0.9.0-generated basecall accuracy probability values for A, U and C (left, **A-E**) and modification probability distributions for m^6A (all-context), m^6A (DRACH-context), Ψ, inosine and m^5C (right, **A-E**) in transcriptome-aligned DMSO-and STM2457-treated NHDFs, plotted against the values from in vitro transcribed (IVT) NHDF poly(A) RNA.

Figure S4. Modification probability distribution profiles in genome-aligned DMSO-and STM2457-treated HD10.6 cells.

Dorado v0.9.0-generated basecall accuracy probability values for A, U and C (left, **A-E**) and modification probability distributions for m^6A (all-context), m^6A (DRACH-context), Ψ, inosine and m^5C (right, **A-E**) in human genome-aligned DMSO-and STM2457-treated HD10.6 cells, plotted against the values from in vitro transcribed (IVT) NHDF poly(A) RNA.

Figure S5. Modification probability distribution profiles in transcriptome-aligned DMSO-and STM2457-treated HD10.6 cells.

Dorado v0.9.0-generated basecall accuracy probability values for A, U and C (left, **A-E**) and modification
probability distributions for m^{6}A (all-context), m^{6}A (DRACH-context), Ψ, inosine and m^{5}C (right, **A-E**) in
human transcriptome-aligned DMSO-and STM2457-treated HD10.6 cells, plotted against the values from
in vitro transcribed (IVT) NHDF poly(A) RNA.

Figure S6. Modification site probabilities detected with different versions of Dorado and compared to
RCS.

(A+B) DRACH-context and all-context m^{6}A modification probability distributions (red) from genome-
aligned DMSO- and STM2457-treated NHDFs are plotted against RCS negative control (grey). **(C)**
Modification probability distributions for all-context m^{6}A (Dorado v0.7.0, v0.8.0 and v0.9.0), the bottom
panel showing the distributions in 0.95-1.00 modification range. **(D)** Same as in (C), but for DRACH-context
m^{6}A (Dorado v0.5.0, v0.6.0, v0.8.0 and v0.9.0). **(E)** Same as in (C), but for Ψ (Dorado v0.7.0, v0.8.0, v0.9.0).
All the plots in C-E are generated from genome-aligned DMSO-treated NHDF datasets and are plotted
against RCS negative controls.

Figure S7. Evaluation of Dorado by stoichiometry distributions.

(A) Stoichiometry distributions for all-context m^{6}A from DMSO- (in red) or STM2457-treated (in pink) NHDF
datasets (genome-aligned and filtered for ≥ 20 reads) are plotted, comparing 0.98 modification probability-
unfiltered (left) and filtered (right) sites. **(B)** Same as in (A), but for DRACH-context m^{6}A sites.

Figure S8. Stoichiometry distributions of m^{6}A, Ψ and inosine in IVT datasets.

(A) All-context m^{6}A stoichiometry distributions (all stoichiometries (top) and ≥10% stoichiometries
(bottom)) in (genome-aligned) IVT from DMSO-treated NHDFs, comparing 0.98 modification probability-
unfiltered and filtered data. The bottom panel shows stoichiometry distributions only for ≥10%
stoichiometry sites. **(B)** As in (A), but for DRACH-context m6A. **(C)** As in (A), but for Ψ. **(D)** As in (A), but for
inosine.

Figure S9. Evaluation of Dorado by stoichiometry distributions in transcriptome-aligned NHDFs.

(A) Stoichiometry distributions for all-context m^{6}A from DMSO- (in red) or STM2457-treated (in pink) NHDF
datasets (transcriptome-aligned and filtered for ≥ 20 reads) are plotted, assessing the 0.98 modification
probability cutoff. The bottom panel shows stoichiometry distributions only for ≥10% stoichiometry sites.
(B) Same as in (A), but for DRACH-context m^{6}A sites.

Figure S10. Evaluation of Dorado by stoichiometry distributions in transcriptome-aligned HD10.6 cells.

(A) Stoichiometry distributions for all-context m^{6}A from DMSO- (in red) or STM2457-treated (in pink)
HD10.6 datasets (transcriptome-aligned and filtered for ≥ 20 reads) are plotted, assessing the 0.98

modification probability cutoff. The bottom panel shows stoichiometry distributions only for ≥10%
stoichiometry sites. **(B)** Same as in (A), but for DRACH-context m^{6}A sites.

Figure S11 Stoichiometry distributions of Ψ and inosine in NHDFs.

(A) Distributions of all (left) and ≥10% (right) Ψ stoichiometries in the 0.99 modification probability-
unfiltered and filtered data from genome-aligned DMSO- (darker color) and STM2457-treated (lighter
color) NHDFs (filtered for ≥20 reads). **(B)** Same as in (A), but for inosine.

Figure S12. Stoichiometry distributions of Ψ and inosine in HD10.6 cells.

(A) Distributions of all and ≥10% Ψ stoichiometries in the 0.99 modification probability-unfiltered and
filtered data from genome-aligned DMSO- (darker color) and STM2457-treated (lighter color) HD10.6 cells
(filtered for ≥20 reads). **(B)** Same as in (A), but for inosine.

Figure S13. m^{6}A and Ψ stoichiometry distributions in different versions of Dorado.

Stoichiometry distributions (all stoichiometries – left, ≥10% stoichiometries – right) in a line graph format
for **(A)** all-context m^{6}A detected in genome-aligned DMSO-treated NHDF dataset, with Dorado versions
0.7.0, 0.8.0 and 0.9.0 colored in gradients of red, darkness increasing with the later versions. **(B)** DRACH-
context m^{6}A detected with Dorado versions 0.5.0, 0.6.0, 0.8.0 and 0.9.0, colored in gradients of red,
darkness increasing with the later versions. **(C)** Ψ detected with Dorado versions 0.7.0, 0.8.0 and 0.9.0,
colored in gradients of blue, darkness increasing with the later versions. All the datasets were filtered for
≥20 reads.

Figure S14. Comparison of modification sites detected with different versions of Dorado.

Upset plots showing unique and shared detected modifications (filtered for ≥20 reads, ≥10%
stoichiometry) in modification probability-unfiltered and filtered genome-aligned DMSO-treated NHDF
data. The versions are ordered on the plot by the number of detected sites, in ascending order (on the
left). Results are shown for the following models and versions: **(A)** all-context m^{6}A detected with v.0.7.0,
v0.8.0 and v0.9.0, **(B)** DRACH-context m^{6}A detected with v.0.5.0, v0.6.0, v0.8.0 and v0.9.0, **(C)** Ψ detected
with v.0.7.0, v0.8.0 and v0.9.0. **(D)** Nucleotide frequencies in the 5-base motif of Ψ sites for uniquely
v0.7.0-, v0.8.0-0.9.0- and v0.7.0-0.8.0-0.9.0-detected Ψ sites. Position 0 marks the modification site.

Figure S15. m^{6}A (all-context and DRACH-context) motif logos for modification probability-unfiltered
NHDF and HD10.6 data.

(A) 5-mer motif logo (showing nucleotide frequences at each position) of m^{6}A-modified sites (position 0 =
modified A) from genome-aligned DMSO-treated NHDFs (all-context – left, DRACH-context – right). All the
datasets were filtered for ≥20 coverage & ≥10% stoichiometry. **(B)** Same as (A), but for HD10.6 cells.

Figure S16. Metagene plots showing m^{6}A (all-context and DRACH-context) distribution profiles in NHDF and HD10.6 data filtered at different stoichiometries.

(A) The density of all-context m^{6}A sites (0.98 modification probability-unfiltered – left, filtered – right) plotted across all annotated poly(A) transcripts of NHDF (dark red) and HD10.6 (bright red) datasets, filtered with different stoichiometries (descending: all stoichiometries, ≥50%, ≥10%, <10% and ≤5%). All datasets were filtered additionally for ≥20 coverage & ≥10% stoichiometry. **(B)** Same as (A), but for DRACH-context m^{6}A sites.

Figure S17. Comparison of m^{6}A sites detected by Dorado and GLORI-Sequencing in NHDFs and HD10.6s.

(A) Upset plot showing the number of m^{6}A sites detected by GLORI and Dorado in NHDFs and their overlaps. Dorado sites represent high-confidence m^{6}A sites obtained after filtering DRACH-model detected data. Similarly, only high-confidence m^{6}A sites detected by GLORI are shown, but were additionally filtered for DRACH sites. **(B)** Stoichiometry distributions are plotted from genome-aligned DMSO- or STM2457-treated HD10.6 datasets using the indicated Dorado models. **(C)** Stoichiometry distributions from GLORI performed on DMSO- or STM2457-treated NHDFs are plotted. In addition, m^{6}A sites were filtered for DRACH motifs (right plot). **(D)** Stoichiometry distributions are plotted from transcriptome-aligned DMSO- or STM2457-treated NHDF datasets using the indicated Dorado models. **(E)** Stoichiometry distributions are plotted from transcriptome-aligned DMSO- or STM2457-treated HD10.6 datasets using the indicated Dorado models.

A

HD10.6
(neuron-like cells)

NHDF
(normal human dermal fibroblasts)

-/+ STM2457
(48h)

WTAP METTL3 METTL14

m⁶A ✗

● m⁶A

GLORI-Seq
glyoxal and nitrite-mediated
deamination of unmethylated adenosines

Direct RNA Sequencing (ONT)
Dorado basecalling

in vitro transcription (IVT)

SQK-RNA004
(P2 solo)

B ONT DRS (P2 solo) and Dorado

pod5 files

Basecalling with Dorado
(v5.0.0, 6.0.0, 7.0.0, 8.0.0, 9.0.0)

bam files

genome and transcriptome
alignment (*minimap2*)

sorted.bam
files

modkit pileup

bedMethyl
tables ⟷ GLORI m⁶A sites

Evaluation of dorado filters using IVT and STM2457 datasets

C Benchmarked m⁶A Dorado pipeline

m⁶A DRACH
model v.9.0.0

transcriptome alignment

modkit pileup

filtering

High-confidence m⁶A sites

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure S3

Figure S4

Figure S15

Figure S17