Establishing benchmarks for quantitative mapping of m⁶A by Nanopore Direct RNA Sequencing

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31   **Abstract**

Nanopore direct RNA sequencing (DRS) coupled with Dorado modification-aware basecalling enables

mapping of epitranscriptomic modifications including N^6-methyladenosine (m^{6}A) 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^{6}A 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^{6}A

mapping method (GLORI). Further, by applying DRS to primary human fibroblasts and HD10.6 neurons, we

uncovered cell type-specific differences in m^{6}A 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^{6}A epitranscriptome to fibroblasts and neurons.

44   **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^{6}A), 5-methylcytosine (m^{5}C), and N7-methylguanosine (m^{7}G)[4]. One of the best studied

and most abundant internal mRNA modifications is m^{6}A. Functional studies of m^{6}A methylases,

demethylases and m^{6}A binding proteins, as well as sequencing-based mapping methods have increased

our understanding of m[6]A as a reversible and dynamic modification that fine-tunes nearly all aspects of

mRNA metabolism[1,5-8].

In addition to m[6]A, other widespread and functionally important marks include m[5]C, 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[9].

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[10].

Early antibody-based techniques[11-13] provided the first transcriptome-wide insights into m[6]A architecture,

albeit at limited resolution. Enzyme-assisted methods[14,15] 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[16].

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[17].

Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) direct RNA sequencing (DRS) offers an alternative to these methods

by analyzing native RNA molecules that have retained their modifications[18]. As single RNAs pass through

nanopores, signal changes are interpreted to determine canonical and modified residues at single-

nucleotide resolution on individual transcripts[19,20]. 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[21]. 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[22].

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[23]. 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[17,23]. 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[24]. 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^6A sites. However, these evaluations relied on previously published GLORI

and eTAM-Seq datasets, rather than matched input material[17,22]. By directly comparing m^6A 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[25], along with IVT RNA. We included treatments with STM2457, an enzymatic

inhibitor of the primary m^6A methyltransferase METTL3[26], to robustly assess false-positive m^6A detection

rates and also compared the DRS outputs with those obtained from GLORI[27] using the same RNA as input.

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

benchmark the ability of Dorado to reliably detect m^5C, 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 1**.

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[28]. 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 m^{6}A 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 m^{6}A 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 m^{6}A 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 m^{6}A (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 m^{6}A calling, the fraction of m^{6}A sites is substantially smaller
when compared to DRACH-context m^{6}A 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 m^{6}A calls can be considered reliable. Here,

STM2457 treatment shows a marked reduction in the number of reported m^6A sites in both all-context

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

In addition to m^6A, we examined modification probability distributions for Ψ, inosine and m^5C, 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, m^5C

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^5C installation, it also indicates

that the m^5C 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^6A 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^6A sites in both unfiltered and filtered NHDF

datasets (**Fig. S7**). Here, unfiltered datasets showed that the vast majority of m^6A 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 modification probability 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, Supplementary Table 2). Similar results were observed for the transcriptome-aligned NHDF and

HD10.6 m^{6}A stoichiometry distributions as well (**Fig. S9, Fig. S10, Supplementary Table 2**).

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^{6}A (**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%)[29].

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, Supplementary Table 2**).

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^{6}A 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^{6}A and Ψ as these are the only modifications that could be detected in previous versions.
Here, we observe that m^{6}A 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^{6}A (DRACH and all-
context) and Ψ sites between versions, although there are a lot of unique all-context m^{6}A 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^{6}A detection method,
we conducted GLORI on the same NHDF RNA preparations. To ensure a fair comparison of m^{6}A 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^{6}A ≥ 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^{6}A 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^{6}A 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^{6}A 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^{6}A
sites detected with the all-context model, we observed nearly 9,000 sites outside of DRACH motifs.
Importantly, the total number of m^{6}A sites within DRACH motifs was nearly identical to the number of m^{6}A
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. S15A**).

We obtained similar results when comparing m⁶A sites obtained with Dorado and GLORI from HD10.6

cells. Overall, we detected a similar number of m⁶A sites in HD10.6 cells using the all-context and DRACH-

specific Dorado models (77,728 and 67,222, respectively) (**Fig. S15B**). By contrast, we detected 174,282 vs

27,965 m⁶A sites using GLORI without or with DRACH filtering, respectively (**Fig. S15C**).

To evaluate how stoichiometry thresholds affect 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%[29,30]. Similarly, we observed the conversion rates for our NHDF and HD10.6

datasets to be 95% (Supplementary **Table 3**), 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.

S15D,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[16]. 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 (**Supplementary Table 4**). When plotting the m⁶A sites detected

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

with a lower 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.S16). 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. S17A**). 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. S17A**). 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. S17B+C**). For all-context m⁶A (**Fig. S17B**),

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

stoichiometry.

To connect shared m^{6}A sites with their functional context and illustrate their distribution on individual

transcripts, we conducted a KEGG pathway analysis with the genes that contain shared m^{6}A 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^{6}A deposition is largely

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

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

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

type.

Discussion

High rates of false positives remain a major problem in epitranscriptomic mapping tools, even with the

advent of modification-aware basecalling models[23]. 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[17,23]. The results presented here establish a robust

framework that minimizes false positives and enables isoform-specific and quantitative m^{6}A mapping.

Through a direct comparison with GLORI, we showed that combining DRS datasets with Dorado

modification-aware basecalling provides greater scalability, isoform resolution, and reproducibility across

different cell types. Further, the simplicity of DRS library preparation enhances consistency whereas GLORI

is constrained by a laborious and technically challenging protocol that is extremely sensitive to adenosine

conversion rates[31]. Despite these limitations, we determined that the majority of m^{6}A 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^{6}A 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^{6}A

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

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

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

positive m^{6}A 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[32].

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 m^{6}A 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 m^{6}A all-

context and m^{6}A DRACH model in the detection of high confidence m^{6}A sites, as observed by filtering for

DRACH motifs from m^{6}A sites detected with the all-context model (**Fig.3B**).

Prior studies have emphasized the need for isoform-resolved m^{6}A quantification by demonstrating

widespread heterogeneity in m^{6}A levels between genes and their isoforms[32,33]. Here, we showed that

aligning DRS datasets to the human transcriptome reveals differential m^{6}A installation patterns between

isoforms, underscoring the importance of accurate, isoform-specific m^{6}A 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[34] to identify m^{6}A 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[22]. 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[20]. While m^{6}A detection was generally reproducible across Dorado versions, model-specific

differences are present, i.e. v0.7.0 produces substantially more low-confidence all-context m^{6}A 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[24,35]. 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.

While DRS is the only approach that allows for robust isoform-specific m⁶A 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 m⁶A 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[36]. 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[37] requires further study.

Prior analyses of m⁶A stoichiometry distributions across immortalized human cell lines, including cancer

cell lines, have revealed broadly similar m⁶A stoichiometry distributions[33]. By contrast, our analysis of

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

in m⁶A 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 m⁶A in neuronal function[38]. This

includes m⁶A maps from synaptic and nuclear RNA isolated from mouse dorsal hippocampus which

showed that synapse-specific RNAs showed generally higher methylation levels[37]. Intriguingly, neuronal

regulation pathways utilize differentially spliced isoforms[39] and a recent study revealed isoform-specific

differences in m⁶A sites and stoichiometries in the human brain that are linked to m⁶A machinery

expression and cell type context[40].

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^{6}A in DRS datasets. Future

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

Dorado-based detection of Ψ, m^{5}C 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[25]. 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[31]. 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[41].

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[41], but

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

raw fastq files[42]. 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

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

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

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

433 template for IVT synthesis.

Nanopore Sequencing of poly(A) RNA

435 250-300 ng of isolated poly(A) RNA and 25 ng RNA calibration strand (RCS) were used as input for the

436 standard DRS SQK-RNA004 protocol. Resulting libraries were loaded onto individual PromethION RNA flow

437 cells before sequencing on the PromethION 2 Solo instrument for 48h.

Nanopore basecalling

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 mode with modification detection enabled for m^6A (DRACH context) in v.0.5.0, 0.6.0, 0.8.0 and 0.9.0, m^6A (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, and inosine and m^5C in v.0.9.0. Each dataset was processed with adapter trimming. Resulting unaligned BAM files were converted to FASTQ files containing modification tags for every read in the FASTQ read headers, using SAMtools v1.18[43] [*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[44] [*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[28] [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 m^6A-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 m^6A 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

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

Gene Ontology analysis

471 GO analysis was performed using DAVID[45]. Genes harboring m^{6}A sites were filtered for genes that were
472 generally present in both datasets. Next, they were divided into NHDF-specific, HD10.6-specific, and
473 shared categories, and enrichment was assessed for biological processes. GO terms were considered
474 significant at FDR ≤ 0.05 with a minimum of 20 genes per GO term. For plotting, the top 20 GO terms that
475 contained the highest gene numbers were extracted from the analysis of the shared gene sets.

Analysis and visualization of modification stoichiometries and distributions

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

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 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 Dorado vs 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.

652 **(A)** Overlap of high-confidence m^{6}A sites between NHDFs and HD10.6 cells. **(B)** Correlation of shared m^{6}A

653 stoichiometries (n=38,217). **(C)** GO term analysis (Biological Process, DAVID Bioinformatics Resources) of

654 genes with shared or unique m^{6}A sites. **(D+E)** Motif analysis showing m^{6}A (all-context and DRACH-context)

655 motif logos, 5-mer distributions and modification stoichiometries in NHDFs. **(F+G)** Same as in (D+E) but for

656 HD10.6 cells. **(H)** KEGG pathway analysis (DAVID Bioinformatics Resources) of shared m^{6}A-containing

657 genes. **(I)** m^{6}A stoichiometries of representative examples of individual genes from enriched pathways (H).

658 *ACTG1* serves as a housekeeping control.

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

661 **(A)** Dorado v0.9.0-generated basecall accuracy probability values for A (all-context and DRACH-context

662 basecaller models) from genome-aligned DMSO- and STM2457-treated NHDF samples against IVT poly(A)

663 NHDF RNA. A probability score distribution is shown as a black solid line for DMSO, STM2457 – black

664 dashed line, IVT – grey solid line. **(B)** Dorado v0.9.0-generated modification probability distributions,

665 visualized as histograms, for DRACH-context m^{6}A from genome-aligned DMSO- and STM2457-treated

666 NHDFs and IVT NHDFs. IVT modification probability score distribution is shown in grey, DMSO – bright red,

667 STM2457 – dark red. **(C)** Same as in (B), but for all-context m^{6}A sites.

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

670 **(A)** Dorado v0.9.0-generated basecall accuracy probability values for U (left) and modification probability

671 distributions for Ψ (right) from genome-aligned DMSO- and STM2457-treated NHDF samples are plotted

672 against IVT poly(A) RNA. Ψ probabilities are visualized in blue solid and dashed lines for DMSO and

673 STM2457, respectively and in grey solid line for IVT. **(B)** Same as in (A), but showing A base accuracy

674 probabilities and inosine sites. Inosine probabilities are visualized in purple solid and dashed lines for

675 DMSO and STM2457, respectively and in grey solid line for IVT. **(C)** Same as in (A), but showing C base

676 accuracy probabilities and m^{5}C sites. m^{5}C probabilities are visualized in green solid and dashed lines for

677 DMSO and STM2457, respectively and in grey solid line for IVT. **(D+E)** DRACH-context and all-context m^{6}A

678 modification probability distributions (red) from genome-aligned DMSO- and STM2457-treated NHDFs are

679 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^{6}A (all-context), m^{6}A (DRACH-context), Ψ, inosine and m^{5}C (right, **A-E**) in
transcriptome-aligned DMSO-and STM2457-treated NHDFs, plotted against the values from 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^{6}A (all-context), m^{6}A (DRACH-context), Ψ, inosine and m^{5}C (right, **A-E**) in
human genome-aligned DMSO-and STM2457-treated HD10.6 cells, plotted against the values from 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
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 from genome-aligned
DMSO (solid red line)- and STM2457 (dashed red line)-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 RNA from DMSO-treated NHDFs, comparing 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 m^{6}A. **(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, v.0.6.0, 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. 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.

Figure S16. 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 S17. Metagene plots showing m^{6}A (all-context and DRACH-context) distribution profiles in NHDF

and HD10.6 data filtered at different stoichiometries.

(A) Metagene plots showing the density of m^{6}A (all-context – dark red, DRACH-context – bright red) sites

across all annotated poly(A) transcripts (upper plot) and monoexonic poly(A) transcripts (lower plot) from

genome-aligned DMSO-treated NHDF datasets filtered with 0.98 modification probability, ≥ 20 coverage

and ≥ 10% stoichiometry. **(B)** The density of all-context m^{6}A sites (0.98 modification probability-unfiltered

– left, filtered – right) is 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%

and < 10%. All datasets were filtered additionally for ≥ 20 coverage & ≥ 10% stoichiometry. **(C)** Same as

(A), but for DRACH-context m^{6}A sites.

A

B

ONT DRS (P2 solo) and Dorado

C

Benchmarked m⁶A Dorado pipeline

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure S1

Figure S4

Figure S12

Figure S15

Figure S16

Figure S17