A super-resolution map of the vertebrate kinetochore

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A longstanding question in centromere biology has been the organization of CENP-A–containing chromatin and its implications for kinetochore assembly. Here, we have combined genetic manipulations with deconvolution and super-resolution fluorescence microscopy for a detailed structural analysis of chicken kinetochores. Using fluorescence microscopy with subdiffraction spatial resolution and single molecule sensitivity to map protein localization in kinetochore chromatin unfolded by exposure to a low salt buffer, we observed robust amounts of H3K9me3, but only low levels of H3K4me2, between CENP-A subdomains in unfolded interphase prekinetochores. Constitutive centromere–associated network proteins CENP-C and CENP-H localize within CENP-A–rich subdomains (presumably on H3-containing nucleosomes) whereas CENP-T localizes in interspersed H3-rich blocks. Although interphase prekinetochores are relatively more stable to unfolding than surrounding pericentric heterochromatin, mitotic kinetochores are significantly more stable, reflecting mitotic kinetochore maturation. Loss of CENP-H, CENP-N, or CENP-W had little or no effect on the unfolding of mitotic kinetochores. However, loss of CENP-C caused mitotic kinetochores to unfold to the same extent as their interphase counterparts. Based on our results we propose a new model for inner centromeric chromatin architecture in which chromatin is folded as a layered boustrophedon, with planar sinusoids containing interspersed CENP-A–rich and H3-rich subdomains oriented toward the outer kinetochore. In mitosis, a CENP-C–dependent mechanism crosslinks CENP-A blocks of different layers together, conferring extra stability to the kinetochore.

**Results**

**Mapping Pericentromeric Chromatin.** Centromeres are usually embedded in the condensed chromatin of the primary constriction. However, in condensin-depleted SMC2\textsuperscript{OFF} metaphase cells, kinetochores undergo dramatic poleward “excursions” (15, 21), trailing behind them a thread of extended pericentromeric chromatin (Fig. 1B). Importantly, these kinetochores are functional, and after a slight delay, will subsequently direct sister chromatid segregation (15, 22). We used this system to map the distribution of histone modifications in the pericentromeric chromatin by indirect immunofluorescence and deconvolution microscopy. H3K9me3, H3T3ph, and inner centromere protein INCENP were present between sister kinetochores in SMC2\textsuperscript{ON} cells (Fig. 1A) and extended along the full length of the extended chromatin fiber trailing kinetochores undergoing excursions in SMC2\textsuperscript{OFF} cells (Fig. 1B). In contrast, H3K4me2 was detected only in the chromosome-proximal portion of the stretched chromatin, with a distal nonstained region adjacent to the kinetochore (Fig. 1B, a). We conclude that DT40 kinetochore chromatin consists of compact CENP-A domains flanked at either side by pericentromeric heterochromatin.

**Centromeric Region Unfolds to Higher Extents in Interphase than in Mitotic Cells.** We previously showed that exposure of chromosomes to low ionic strength TEEN buffer [a low-salt buffer in which chromatin higher-order structures are destabilized (20)] causes chromatids to unfold to beads-on-a-string nucleosomes while retaining kinetochore protein binding (15, 20). Although interphase prekinetochores are much more resistant to unfolding in this buffer than pericentromeric heterochromatin (15), they did unravel

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During longer incubations in TEEN buffer, producing fibers in which patches of CENP-A and H3-containing chromatin alternated (Fig. 2B). The intercalated H3-containing chromatin was rich in H3K9me3 (mean occupancy, 56 ± 20% of the CENP-A-containing region; n = 11). In other experiments, H3K4me2 appeared to be present at lower levels in the intercalated chromatin (mean occupancy, 18 ± 12%; n = 9; Fig. 2D). A similar distribution of histone modifications has been observed in centromeres in maize and rice (10, 12).

Mitotic kinetochore chromatin is much more resistant to unfolding in TEEN buffer than its interphase counterpart, presumably because of structural maturation as cells enter mitosis (23, 24). The mean length (± SD) of unfolded kinetochores (determined by the borders of the GFP-CENP-A domains) derived from mitotic centromeres was 1.1 ± 0.44 μm (n = 98), compared with 2.47 ± 1.31 μm (n = 164) for interphase prekinetochores (Fig. 2C and E). Considering that the kinetochore diameter determined by serial-sectioning electron microscopy is 145 ± 27 nm (n = 48; Fig. S1) in SMC2 ON DT40 cells at metaphase, the average mitotic kinetochore fiber undergoes an eightfold extension in TEEN buffer. This contrasts with an average 17-fold extension of interphase prekinetochore fibers.

In mitosis, 95% of the extended CENP-A domains measured less than 3 μm (Fig. 2E). Similarly, most (60%) unfolded interphase prekinetochores yielded single CENP-A blocks less than 3 μm long. We refer to these interphase prekinetochores and normal mitotic chromatin as having undergone “stage 1” unfolding. The remaining 40% of unfolded interphase kinetochores displayed multiple interspersed CENP-A subdomains stretching over more than 3 μm, up to a maximum of 13.4 μm. We refer to this as “stage 2” unfolding.

CENP-C Is Required for the Increased Structural Integrity of Mitotic Kinetochore

In a genetic approach to identify proteins specifically required for the increased stability of mitotic kinetochores, we performed our kinetochore unfolding assay using mitotic cells depleted of CENP-C (18), CENP-H (16), CENP-N (17), and CENP-W (19). Remarkably, no significant difference was observed between unfolded WT kinetochores and those prepared from cells lacking CENP-H, CENP-W, or CENP-W (Fig. 3A and B). Thus, we observed stage 2 CENP-A domain unfolding in 4%, 3%, and 8% of unfolded CENP-H OFF, CENP-N OFF, and CENP-W OFF kinetochores. This was not significantly different from the values obtained with CENP-H ON, CENP-N ON, and CENP-W ON kinetochores in this assay, although following loss of CENP-W a few more unfolded prekinetochores were seen.

In contrast, the loss of CENP-C caused a significant destabilization of the mitotic kinetochore chromatin in the TEEN assay, as the percentage of kinetochores undergoing stage 2 unfolding increased from 5% to 25% (Fig. 3C and D). As with interphase prekinetochores, many CENP-A domains underwent only stage 1 unfolding following CENP-C depletion. However, the maximal lengths of stage 2-unfolded CENP-A domains achieved after CENP-C depletion approached those observed for interphase kinetochore fibers (Fig. 2E).

Depletion of condensin yielded intermediate results in this unfolding assay. The number of extended CENP-A domains larger than 3 μm increased from 4% to 14%, but domains larger than 6 μm were never observed (Fig. 3B). This suggests that condensin in the underlying heterochromatin may contribute in part to the structural integrity of kinetochore chromatin during mitosis, but that loss of condensin does not lead to full stage 2 unfolding.

Thus, of the four CCAN proteins tested, only CENP-C is required for the enhanced structural integrity of mitotic kinetochore chromatin.

Mapping Unfolded Interphase Prekinetochores Using Super-Resolution Microscopy

Fluorescence microscopy with subdiffraction limit spatial resolution yielded further insights into the organization of
CENP-C is essential to confer extra stability to mitotic kinetochores. Kinetochores are distal structures at the edge of the chromosome that are critical for holding sister chromatids together. The CENP-A chromatin fibers, which are readily apparent in super-resolution microscopy, are in close association with the CENP-A rich subdomains. CENP-A is a histone protein that is selectively condensed at the centromere region of chromosomes. The figures show the distribution of CENP-A fibers measured in the presence of CENP-A (A) and in the absence of CENP-A (B). The histograms represent the percentage of CENP-A fibers measured in the presence and absence of CENP-A. The graphs illustrate the percentage of CENP-A fibers measured in the presence and absence of CENP-A. The y-axis represents the percentage of CENP-A fibers, and the x-axis represents the CENP-A unfolded length. The graphs show that the distribution of CENP-A fibers is significantly different in the presence and absence of CENP-A. The data suggest that CENP-C interacts with CENP-A to enhance the stability of the kinetochore fibers. The figures also show the localization of CCAN proteins in stretched CENP-A-containing chromatin using super-resolution microscopy. This technique allows for the visualization of single molecules and provides a higher resolution of the chromatin structure. The localization of the CCAN proteins (CENP-A, CENP-H, CENP-N, and CENP-W) is shown in the figure. The localization of these proteins helps to understand the complex organization of the kinetochore region and the interactions between different components of the kinetochore.

Discussion

We have combined gene targeting with biochemical manipulation of chromatin higher-order structure and super-resolution microscopy to characterize a vertebrate kinetochore. Kinetochores persist during interphase as locally condensed chromatin domains known as prekinetochores (32) that undergo a program of structural (23) and biochemical (24) maturation as cells enter mitosis. By using a protocol in which kinetochore chromatin is unfolded in vitro with TEEN buffer (20), we show that this maturation renders mitotic kinetochore chromatin considerably more robust than that of interphase prekinetochores. This presumably helps to give kinetochores the structural rigidity required to withstand pulling forces within the mitotic spindle.

Genetic analysis using DT40 conditional knockouts reveals that this mitotic stabilization of kinetochore chromatin requires CENP-C but not CENP-H, CENP-N, or CENP-W. This was surprising, as CENP-H is required for CENP-C accumulation at interphase prekinetochores (16, 18). However, a role for CENP-C...
in stabilization of the mitotic kinetochore is consistent with previous observations that CENP-C determines the size and continuity of the kinetochore plate (24, 33). CENP-C could perform a scaffolding role by interacting directly with DNA (19, 34) or RNA (35, 36) or with proteins such as CENP-L or Pcs1 as shown in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (37).

Interphase prekinetochore chromatin unfolded with TEEN buffer consists of extended fibers in which multiple CENP-A subdomains alternate with subdomains containing H3K9me3. This heterochromatin-associated modification was also seen to abut CENP-A domains in stretched pericentromeric chromatin trailing behind kinetochores undergoing poleward excursions in condensin-depleted cells. Furthermore, the pericentromeric chromatin also consistently displayed a gap between H3K4me2 staining and the kinetochore. However, further analysis of the histone modification pattern of unraveled centromeric fibers, using both deconvolution and super-resolution imaging, suggested that, as in rice centromeres (10), both histone H3 modifications (detected in independent experiments) are present in the centromeric region. Comparison of the two sets of experiments suggested that H3K4me2 may be present at lower levels than H3K9me3 in this region.

Although it is now accepted that CENP-A domains alternate with canonical H3 blocks within kinetochore chromatin (6, 7), the modification pattern of the canonical histones blocks seems to be less conserved. In human and *Drosophila* interphase prekinetochores, H3K4me2, but not H3K9me3, was found to be intercalated between CENP-A subdomains (8). H3K4me2 and lower levels of H3K9me3 were readily detected within the kinetochore of a human artificial chromosome by ChIP (38). In contrast, levels of H3K4me2 were much lower in one human neocentromere (39) and in maize centromeres (11, 12). Clearly, more work is required to understand the role of particular histone modifications in kinetochore chromatin structure and function.

Here we examined the distribution of members of the CCAN relative to CENP-A along the chromatin fiber. CENP-C, CENP-H, CENP-I, CENP-K-U, and CENP-W all coimmunoprecipitate with CENP-A following partial digestion of chromatin by micrococcal nuclease (40, 41), and ChIP studies showed colocalization of CENP-C and CENP-H with discontinuous domains of CENP-A in human neocentromeres (39, 42, 43). CENP-N is the only CCAN protein that has been shown to interact directly with CENP-A nucleosomes (44). CENP-C, CENP-T, and CENP-W coimmunoprecipitate with H3 nucleosomes after extensive nuclease digestion (19, 45). This suggests that some canonical H3 nucleosomes must be close to CENP-A–rich subdomains in the inner kinetochore. We confirmed this by super-resolution light microscopy, finding that CENP-C and CENP-H colocalized with CENP-A–rich subdomains in unfolded kinetochores. This suggests the presence of some canonical H3 nucleosomes within the CENP-A–rich subdomains. In contrast, CENP-T, H3K4me2, and H3K9me3 were interspersed between the CENP-A subdomains.

Detailed maps of kinetochore proteins in fixed chromosomes derived from measurements using two-color fluorescence light microscopy place CENP-C external, but very close to, CENP-A, with CENP-T slightly external to CENP-C (46, 47). Current kinetochore chromatin folding models based on data available from localization of canonical histones and CENP-A on unfolded chromatin fibers propose that CENP-A and H3 coexist in the same fiber and are sorted on different faces of an “amphipathic” superhelix, in which CENP-A faces the outer kinetochore and the H3-containing blocks are embedded in the centromere (7, 13). The data here presented extend this mapping of

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**Fig. 4.** Characterization of unfolded prekinetochores using fluorescence microscopy with subdiffraction spatial resolution. (A) Example of a 13.4-μm interphase fiber in which H3K9me3 blocks are clearly observed between CENP-A arrays. (B) Example of a 15.1-μm fiber in which H3K4me2 is also detected between CENP-A arrays, but with a more diffuse distribution. Dronpa-CENP-A is represented as green, H3K9me3 and H3K4me2 labeled with Alexa647 are represented as red. Yellow represents colocalization. Each dot corresponds to the localization of a single molecule switching event. (C) Frequency distribution histogram of stretched fiber widths measured from super-resolution reconstructed images of (C) Dronpa-labeled CENP-A and (C) Alexa Fluor 647–labeled H3K9me3. The solid lines represent the best fit to bimodal Gaussian distributions centered at 46 and 67 nm for CENP-A (*n* = 53) and 40 and 57 nm for H3K9me3 (*n* = 30).
CENP-A relative to the CCAN proteins (most of which were still unidentified at the time the existent models were proposed) and require changes to the original solenoid model to take into account the fact that H3 domains with associated CENP-T are present on the outer face of the kinetochore chromatin.

Our data could be explained by a modification of the “amphipathic” superhelix model if helical segments were oriented radially with their long axes perpendicular to the chromosome axis. Such an orientation would expose some CENP-A and H3 on the outer surface of the chromosome, but is difficult to reconcile with immunoelectron microscopy and super-resolution colocalization of other kinetochore proteins with CENP-A by fluorescence microscopy, all of which indicate that CENP-A seems to provide a basal layer to the kinetochore that does not penetrate significantly into the chromosome interior (13, 46, 47).

Based on our data, we suggest a simple alternative model for the topology of chromatin fiber folding in regional kinetochores. We propose that alternating CENP-A and H3 domains fold into a planar sinusoidal patch, or boustrophedon (Greek: “ox-turning”; Fig. 6). Such a topology would allow kinetochore size to vary according to the number of microtubules bound with minimal perturbation of local packing. Each kinetochore could be composed of several such patches stacked on top of one another as shown in Fig. 6A.

This organization can explain the two stages of kinetochore chromatin unfolding observed in the present study. Stage 1 unfolding might correspond to the “straightening out” of the boustrophedon folds, with the different layers remaining held together laterally by structural crosslinks dependent at least in part on CENP-C. Stage 2 unfolding would entail the loss of connections between layers and stretching out of the whole kinetochore into a single contiguous linear segment. As we have shown, interphase prekinetochores frequently undergo stage 2 unfolding in TEEN buffer, whereas this is seldom observed for mitotic kinetochores.

Given that CENP-C is required for this stability of the mitotic kinetochores, it is interesting to note that the genetic requirements for stable association of CENP-C with kinetochores differ between interphase and mitosis, with the former, but not the latter, requiring CENP-H (16, 18). This suggests that at least one aspect of kinetochore maturation may involve a change in the detailed mechanism of CENP-C association with kinetochore chromatin.

In surface view, our proposed model fits well with the recent proposed patterning of kinetochore proteins based on known protein associations in a “horizontal view” of the outer kinetochore (1). That model did not suggest a topological path for the chromatin fiber, which we propose here. In both models, CENP-A and H3 nucleosomes face the external surface, enabling the binding of all CCAN proteins. CENP-C could bind to the more internal CENP-A blocks, crosslinking several layers and explaining the similar oscillations undergone by CENP-A and CENP-C when kinetochores are under tension exerted by microtubules (47). The KMN network assembles in mitosis on top of the CCAN and binds microtubules. KMN binding may confer stability to the kinetochore by crosslinking the CENP-C chromatin either directly or indirectly.

Materials and Methods
DT40 conditional knockout cell lines were cultured as described before (22). Transfection of cells with a construct expressing GFP-CENP-A, antibody staining conditions, the quantification of DNA amounts in CENP-A and CENP-H kinetochore domains and detailed electron microscopy analysis of kinetochores are described in SI Materials and Methods.

Super-Resolution Microscopy with Single Molecule Sensitivity. Cells expressing Dronpa-CENP-A were plated on clean 22 × 22 mm coverslips for 20 min. Dronpa cDNA was provided by J. Lippincott-Schwartz (Bethesda, MD). The TEEN assay and antibody staining were performed as described in SI Materials and Methods using Alexa Fluor 647 (Invitrogen)-coupled secondary antibodies at 1:200 dilution. Coverslips were then attached to a CoverWell imaging chamber (Grace Bio Labs), containing “switching buffer” that promotes photo-induced blinking of Alexa Fluor 647: 10 mM PBS solution (pH 7.4) with an oxygen scavenger (0.5 mg/mL glucose oxidase; Sigma), 40 μg/mL catalase (Sigma), 10% wt/vol glucose (Fisher Scientific), and 50 mM β-mercaptoethanol (Fluka) (29). Single-molecule fluorescence imaging was performed on a Nikon Eclipse TE2000 inverted microscope, equipped with a total internal reflection fluorescence oil-immersion objective (apochromat, magnification ×60) and a 488 nm CW Ar+ laser (163-C, 0.5 kW/cm²; Spectra-Physics) or 633 nm He/Ne CW laser (model 31–2140-000, 1 kW/cm² at the sample; Coherent) passing through appropriate band-pass filters (Chroma Technology). Pulses for Dronpa photoactivation (2 Hz, 5 mJ, 1 W/cm²) were provided by a CW 405-nm laser (Cube; Coherent) passing through an electronic shutter (Newport), controlled by a function generator (USB-6218, National Instruments).

Ejected fluorescence was collected by the same objective and imaged by an Andor Luca S electron-multiplying CCD camera after passing through a dichroic mirror (z488rdc or z633rdc; Chroma Technology), additional spectral filters (HQ500LP and HQ530/50, or HQ645LP and HQ700/75; Chroma Technology), and lenses resulting in a final pixel size of 74 nm. Integration time per frame was 100 ms. Typically 500 to 1,000 frames were collected. Two-color imaging of Dronpa and Alexa Fluor 647 was performed sequentially. Chromatic shifts were corrected by localizing immobilized 0.1 μm Tetraspeck beads (Invitrogen) with both colors.

Density super-resolution images like that in Fig. S2 were reconstructed by dividing each pixel into 16 subpixels and assigning each localization to a subpixel. The image brightness thus represents the density of localizations.
in a subpixel. The FWHM values were estimated from line cross-sections of density super-resolution images of fibers drawn with ImageJ by fitting a Gaussian function in GraphPad Prism. A spatial resolution of 37 nm was estimated by multiple localizations of the same single molecule of AlexaFluor647 analyzed under identical conditions, and fitting a Gaussian function to its cross section in a density reconstructed image (Fig. S2).

Movies were analyzed with Igor Pro by fitting Gaussian functions to individual molecules and localizing their centers.

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